

THE
MIDDLE EAST
AND
NORTH AFRICA

1971-72



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Foreword

THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA was first published in 1948 under the title THE MIDDLE EAST, in which form it continued for ten editions. The eleventh edition included for the first time chapters on eleven countries of the northern half of Africa and Afghanistan was added for the fifteenth edition in 1968. With the eighteenth edition Mauritania, Mali, Niger, Chad, Ethiopia, Somalia and the French Territory of the Afar and Issa have been excluded from the book, so that the area designated by 'North Africa' has been restricted to the Maghreb, Libya and Sudan, in addition to the U A R. The countries not covered in this new edition are dealt with fully in a new companion volume, published in February 1971, AFRICA SOUTH OF THE SAHARA.

The pace of political change in the Middle East and North Africa when this edition was being prepared during May-July 1971 has made it extraordinarily difficult to keep the information presented here up to date. However, the incipient or abortive coups in the U A R, Morocco and Sudan and the purges which followed, the suppression of the Palestinian liberation movement by the Jordanian Government, the announcement of agreement on a form of federation for six of the Gulf states, the settlement of the dispute between Algeria and the French oil companies, not to mention the sudden heightening of tension in Cyprus, have all been taken into account in preparing this edition of THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA.

Once again we would like to thank the numerous individuals and organizations who have sent us both revised and new information for inclusion in this edition of THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA. Without their assistance the book could not have become a recognized authority on this important and rapidly changing part of the world.

August 1971

Acknowledgements

We express our thanks for much help and information kindly supplied by many Foreign Ministries and National Statistical Offices and by the following organizations

Royal Afghan Embassy, London	Libyan Embassy, London
African Development Bank	Maghreb Permanent Consultative Committee
Algerian Embassy, London	Middle East Economic Digest
Arab League	Moroccan Embassy, London
Arab Report and Record	Organization of African Unity
British Petroleum	Organization of Arab Petroleum Exporting Countries (OAPEC)
Central Treaty Organization	Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC)
Cyprus High Commission, London	Regional Co-operation for Development
Foreign and Commonwealth Office, London	Saudi Arabian Embassy, London
French Embassy, London	Spanish Embassy, London
Imperial Iranian Embassy, London	Sudanese Embassy, London
Institute of Petroleum Information Service, London	Tunisian Embassy, London
Iranian Oil Participants, Ltd	Turkish Embassy, London
Iraqi Embassy, London	United Arab Republic Information Centre, London
Iraq Petroleum Company	United Nations Information Centre, London
Israel Embassy, London	United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East
Jordan Embassy, London	
Keesing's Contemporary Archives	
Kuwait Embassy, London	
Kuwait Oil Company	
Lebanese Embassy, London	

Abbreviations

A A A S	American Academy of Arts and Sciences	B E F	British Expeditionary Force
A B	Bachelor of Arts	B Eng	Bachelor of Engineering
Acad	Academy	B es A	Bachelor of Arts
A C T	Australian Capital Territory	B es L	Bachelor of Letters
A D C	Aide de-camp	B es Sc	Bachelor of Science
Admna	Administrative Administration	B L	Bachelor of Laws
A E F	American Expeditionary Forces	B Lat(t)	Bachelor of Letters
A I A	Associate of Institute of Actuaries	B M	Bachelor of Medicine
	American Institute of Architects	B M A	British Medical Association
A I C E	Associate of the Institution of Civil Engineers	B Mus	Bachelor of Music
A I Ch.E	American Institute of Chemical Engineers	BP	British Petroleum
A I M E	American Institute of Mining Engineers	B S	Bachelor of Science Bachelor of Surgery
	Associate of the Institution of Mining Engineers	B Sc	Bachelor of Science
A I Mech E	Associate of the Institution of Mechanical Engineers	B Sc (Econ)	Bachelor of Science in the Faculty of Economics
AKEL	Anorthotikon Komma Ergazomenou Laou (Reform Party of the Working People)	B Sc (Eng)	Bachelor of Science in the Faculty of Engineering
Ala	Alabama	B S T	British Standard Time
ALN	National Liberation Army (Algeria)	Bt	Baronet
AM	Master of Arts	B Theol	Bachelor of Theology
A M I C E	Associate Member of the Institution of Civil Engineers	Calif	California
A O C	Air Officer Commanding	Canab	Of Cambridge University
A O F	French West Africa	C B	Companion of the (Order of the) Bath
Apptd	Appointed	C B E	Commander of (the Order of) the British Empire
A R A	Associate of the Royal Academy	CENTO	Central Treaty Organisation
ARAMCO	Arabian American Oil Co	C H	Companion of Honour
A R C	American Red Cross	Chair	Chairman
A R C A	Associate of the Royal College of Art	Ch B	Bachelor of Surgery
A R C M	Associate of the Royal College of Music	Ch M	Master of Surgery (Edinburgh University)
A R C S	Associate of the Royal College of Science	C I D	Criminal Investigation Department
A R I B A	Associate of the Royal Institute of British Architects	C I E	Companion of (the Order of) the Indian Empire
A R I C	Associate of the Royal Institute of Chemistry	Cie	Compagnie (Company)
Ariz	Arizona	C I E E	Companion of the Institution of Electrical Engineers
Ark.	Arkansas	C in C	Commander in Chief
A R S A	Associate of the Royal Scottish Academy	C M	Master in Surgery
	Associate of the Royal Society of Arts	C M G	Companion of (the Order of) St Michael and St George
A S C E A	American Society of Civil Engineers and Architects	Co	Company County
Ass	Assembly	Colo	Colorado
Asscn	Association	Comm	Commission
Assoc	Associate	Commndr	Commander
Asst	Assistant	Commndt	Commandant
A Inst C E.	Associate of the Institution of Civil Engineers	Commr	Commissioner
B A	Bachelor of Arts	Conf	Conference
B Agr	Bachelor of Agriculture	Conn	Connecticut
B A O	Bachelor of Obstetrics	Contrib	Contributor Contribution
B Arch	Bachelor of Architecture	COPE	Compagnie Orientale des Pétroles
B B C	British Broadcasting Corporation	Corpn	Corporation
bbi	barrels	Corresp	Correspondent Corresponding
B C E A O	Banque Centrale des Etats de l'Afrique occidentale Ouest	C S I R	Council for Scientific and Industrial Research (re named Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organisation)
B Ch B Chur	Bachelor of Surgery	C S S F	Confédération des Sociétés Scientifiques Françaises
B Ch D	Bachelor of Dental Surgery	C St J	Commander of (the Order of) St John of Jerusalem
B C L	Bachelor of Civil Law Bachelor of Canon Law	Cttee	Committee
B Comm	Bachelor of Commerce	C V O	Commander of the (Royal) Victorian Order
B C S	Bachelor of Commercial Sciences	D B E	Dame Commander of (the Order of) the British Empire
B D	Bachelor of Divinity	D C	District of Columbia
Bd.	Board	D C L	Doctor of Civil Law
Bde	Brigade		
B E	Bachelor of Engineering Bachelor of Education		

ABBREVIATIONS

D.C.M.	..	Distinguished Conduct Medal	F.C.A.	..	Fellow of the Institute of Chartered Accountants
D.Cn.L.	..	Doctor of Canon Law	F.C.I.S.	..	Fellow of the Chartered Institute of Secretaries
D.C.S.	..	Doctor of Commercial Sciences	Fed.	..	Federation; Federal
D.D.	..	Doctor of Divinity	F.G.S.	..	Fellow of the Geological Society
D.D.S.	..	Doctor of Dental Surgery	F.Hell.S.	..	Fellow of the Hellenic Society
D.Econ.	..	Doctor of Economics	F.I.D.E.S.	..	Fonds d'investissement pour le développement économique et sociale de la France d'Outre mer
Del.	Delegate; delegation; Delaware	F.Inst.F.	..	Fellow of the Institute of Fuel
Dem.	..	Democratic	F.Inst.P.	..	Fellow of the Institute of Physics
D. en D.	..	Doctorat en Droit	F.Inst.Pet.	..	Fellow of the Institute of Petroleum
D. en Med.	..	Doctorat en Médecine	F.J.I.	..	Fellow of the Institute of Journalists
D. en Th.	..	Doctorat en Théologie	Fla.	Florida
D. ès L.	..	Docteur ès Lettres	F.L.A.	..	Fellow of the Library Association
D. ès Sc.	..	Docteur ès Sciences	F.L.S.	..	Fellow of the Linnæan Society
Devel., Devt.	..	Development	Fmr.	..	Former
D.F.A.	..	Doctor of Fine Arts	F.R.A.I.	..	Fellow of the Royal Anthropological Institute
D.F.C.	..	Distinguished Flying Cross	F.R.A.S.	..	Fellow of the Royal Astronomical Society; Fellow of the Royal Asiatic Society
D.H.L.	..	Doctor of Hebrew Literature	F.R.A.S.B.	..	Fellow of the Royal Asiatic Society of Bengal
D.I.H.	..	Diploma in Industrial Health	F.R.C.S.	..	Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons
D.Ing.	..	Doctor of Engineering (U.S.A.)	F.R.C.P.	..	Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians
Dir.	Director	F.R.Econ.S.	..	Fellow of the Royal Economic Society
D.Iur. Utr.	..	Doctor of Foreign Law	F.R.G.S.	..	Fellow of the Royal Geographical Society
Div.	..	Division	F.R.Hist.S.	..	Fellow of the Royal Historical Society
D.L.	..	Deputy Lieutenant	F.R.I.B.A.	..	Fellow of the Royal Institute of British Architects
D.Lit(t).	..	Doctor of Letters; Doctor of Literature	F.S.A.	..	Fellow of the Society of Antiquaries of London.
D.L.S.	..	Doctor of Library Science	F.R.S.	..	Fellow of the Royal Society
D.M.	..	Doctor of Medicine (Oxford)	Ga.	Georgia
D.M.D.	..	Doctor of Dental Medicine	GATT	..	General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade
D.Oph.	..	Doctor of Ophthalmology	G.B.E.	..	Knight (or Dame) Grand Cross of (the Order of) the British Empire
D.P.H.	..	Diploma in Public Health	G.C.B.	..	Knight Grand Cross of (the Order of) the Bath
D.Phil.	..	Doctor of Philosophy	G.C.I.E.	..	(Knight) Grand Commander of the Indian Empire
Dr. Jur.	..	Doctor of Laws	G.C.M.G.	..	Knight Grand Cross of (the Order of) St. Michael and St. George
Dr.rer.Pol.	..	Doctor of Political Science	G.C.S.I.	..	Knight Grand Commander of the Star of India
D.S.C.	..	Distinguished Service Cross	G.C.V.O.	..	Knight Grand Cross of the (Royal) Victorian Order
D.Sc.	..	Doctor of Science	G.D.P.	..	Gross Domestic Product
D.S.I.R.	..	Department of Scientific and Industrial Research	G.H.Q.	..	General Headquarters
D.S.M.	..	Distinguished Service Medal	G.M.T.	..	Greenwich Mean Time
D.S.O.	..	Distinguished Service Order	G.N.P.	..	Gross National Product
D.Theol.	..	Doctor of Theology	G.O.C. in C.	..	General Officer Commanding in Chief
D.T.M.	..	Diploma in Tropical Medicine	Gov.	..	Governor
D.V.H.	..	Diploma in Veterinary Hygiene	Govt.	..	Government
E.C.A.	..	Economic Co-operation Administration; Economic Commission for Africa	G.P.R.A.	..	Provisional Government of the Algerian Republic.
E.C.E.	..	Economic Commission for Europe	ha.	..	hectares
Econ.	..	Economic	H.B.M.	..	Her Britannic Majesty
E.D.	..	Doctor of Engineering (U.S.A.)	h.c.	honoris causa
Ed.	Editor	H.E.	..	His Eminence; His Excellency
ed.	educated	H.I.M.	..	His Imperial Majesty
Edin.	..	Edinburgh	Hist.	..	Historical
EDMA	..	Enieon Dimokratikon Metopon Anadimiourgias (United Democratic Reconstruction Front)	H.M.	..	His (or Her) Majesty
Edn.	..	Edition	H.M.S.O.	..	Her Majesty's Stationery Office
E.E.	..	Doctor of Electrical Engineering (U.S.A.)	HQ	Headquarters
EEC	..	European Economic Community	Hon.	..	Honourable; Honorary
EFTA	..	European Free Trade Association	Ia.	Iowa
E.M.	..	Master of Engineering (U.S.A.)	IAEA	..	International Atomic Energy Authority
EOKA	..	National Organisation of the Struggle for Freedom of Cyprus			
Exec.	..	Executive			
Extra.	..	Extraordinary			
f.	founded			
F.A.C.P.	..	Fellow of American College of Physicians			
F.A.C.S.	..	Fellow of the American College of Surgeons			
F.A.I.A.	..	Fellow of the American Institute of Architects			
F.A.O.	..	Food and Agriculture Organisation			
F.B.A.	..	Fellow of the British Academy			
F.B.I.	..	Federal Bureau of Investigation; Federation of British Industries			

ABBREVIATIONS

IATA	International Air Transport Association	Maj	Major
IBRD	International Bank for Reconstruction and Development	Maj Gen	Major General
ICAO	International Civil Aviation Organization	Man	Manager Managing Manitoba
ICEA	Institute of Civil Engineers	Mass	Massachusetts
ICFTU	International Confederation of Free Trade Unions	M B	Bachelor of Medicine
Ida	Idaho	M B A	Master of Business Administration
Ill	Illinois	M B E	Member of (the Order of) the British Empire
ILO	International Labour Organisation	M C	Military Cross
IMF	International Monetary Fund	M Ch	Master of Surgery
Inc	Incorporated	M Ch D	Master of Dental Surgery
Ind	Indiana Independent	M C L	Master of Civil Law
Ing Agric	Agricultural Engineer	Md	Maryland
Insp	Inspector	M D	Doctor of Medicine
Inst	Institute Institution	M E	Mechanical Engineer
Int.	International	Me	Maine (U S A)
IPAC	Iran Pan American Oil Co	M E D	Master of Elementary Didactics
IPC	Iraq Petroleum Co	Mem	Member
IPO	Iranian Plan Organisation	M Eng	Master of Engineering (Dublin)
IRCAN	Iran Canada Oil Co	M F	Master of Forestry
ISO	(Companion of the) Imperial Service Order	Mgr	Monsieur Monsignor
IUBS	International Union of Biological Sciences	M I C E	Member of the Institution of Civil Engineers
JCD	Juris Canonici Doctor (Doctor of Canon Law)	M I Chem E	Member of the Institution of Chemical Engineers
JD	Doctor of Jurisprudence	Mch	Mechanic
Jg	Junior Grade	M I E E	Member of the Institution of Electrical Engineers
JP	Justice of the Peace	MIFERMA	Société des Mines de Fer de Mauritanie
JUD	Juris utriusque Doctor (Doctor of both Civil and Canon Law)	Mil	Military
JD	Doctor of Law	M I Mar E	Member of the Institute of Marine Engineers
Kan	Kansas	M I (Mech) E	Member of the Institution of Mechanical Engineers
KBE	Knight Commander of (the Order of) the British Empire	M I Min E	Member of the Institute of Mining Engineers
KCB	Knight Commander of (the Order of) the Bath	Min	Minister Ministry
KCIE	Knight Commander of (the Order of) the Indian Empire	Minn	Minnesota
KCMG	Knight Commander of (the Order of) St. Michael and St. George	Miss	Mississippi
KCSG	Knight Commander of St. Gregory	M I Struct E.	Member of the Institution of Structural Engineers
KCSI	Knight Commander of the Star of India	M I T	Massachusetts Institute of Technology
KCVO	Knight Commander of the Royal Victorian Order	M L A	Member of the Legislative Assembly
KG	Knight of (the Order of) the Garter	M L C	Member of the Legislative Council
Kh	Khiaban (Avenue)	MNA	Algerian Nationalist Movement
KHP	Hon. Physician to the King	Mo	Missouri
K St. J.	Knight of (the Order of) St. John of Jerusalem	Mont	Montana
KT	Knight of (the Order of) the Thistle	M P	Member of Parliament
Kt	Knight	M Ph	Master of Philosophy (U S A)
Ku	Kucha (Street)	M Phar	Master of Pharmacy
Ky	Kentucky	M R A S	Member of the Royal Asiatic Society
La	Louisiana	M R C P (E)	Member of the Royal College of Physicians (Edinburgh)
L.D.S.	Licentiate in Dental Surgery	M R C S (E)	Member of the Royal College of Surgeons (Edinburgh)
L en D	Licencié en Droit	M R C V S	Member of the Royal College of Veterinary Surgeons
L ès L	Licencié ès Lettres	M R I	Member of the Royal Institution
L ès S	Licencié ès Sciences	M R P	Mouvement Républicain Populaire
LHD	Doctor of Humane Letters	M R S A	Member of the Royal Society of Arts
Lic Med	Licentiate in Medicine	M R S L	Member of the Royal Society of Literature
Litt.D	Doctor of Letters	MS	Master of Science Master of Surgery
LL.B	Bachelor of Laws	M S A	Mutual Security Agency
LL.D	Doctor of Laws	M Sc	Master of Science
LL.M	Master of Civil and Canon Law	MSS	Manuscripts
LM	Licentiate of Medicine or Midwifery	NTLD	Movement for the Triumph of Democratic Liberties (Algeria)
LN	League of Nations	M T P I	Member of the Town Planning Institute
L.R.C.P.	Licentiate of the Royal College of Physicians	Mus Bac	Bachelor of Music
L.R.C.S.	Licentiate of the Royal College of Surgeons	Mus Doc	Doctor of Music
M.A.	Master of Arts	Mus M	Master of Music (Cambridge)
M Agr	Master of Agriculture (U S A)	M V O	Member of the Royal Victorian Order

ABBREVIATIONS

N.A.	..	National Academy; National Academician	R.A.M.	..	Royal Academy of Music
NAAFI	..	Navy, Army and Air Force Institutes	R.A.M.C.	..	Royal Army Medical Corps
Nat.	..	National	R.D.A.	..	Rassemblement Démocratique Africain
N.A.T.O.	..	North Atlantic Treaty Organisation	Rep.	..	Representative; Represented
N.B.	..	New Brunswick	resgnd.	..	resigned
N.C.	..	North Carolina	retd.	..	retired
N.D.	..	North Dakota	R.F.C.	..	Royal Flying Corps
N.D.A.	..	National Diploma in Agriculture	R.G.S.	..	Royal Geographical Society
N.D.R.C.	..	National Defence Research Council	R.Hist.S.	..	Royal Historical Society
Neb.	..	Nebraska	R.I.	..	Rhode Island;
NECCCRW	..	Near East Christian Council Committee for Refugee Work		..	Royal Institution
Nev.	..	Nevada	R.I.B.A.	..	Royal Institute of British Architects
N.H.	..	New Hampshire	R.P...	..	Révérend Père
N.I.O.C.	..	National Iranian Oil Co.	Rt. Hon.	..	Right Honourable
N.J.	..	New Jersey	Rt. Rev.	..	Right Reverend
N.K.V.D.	..	Ministry of Home Affairs (U.S.S.R.)			
N.M.	..	New Mexico	S.C.	South Carolina
N.Y.	..	New York	SCAP	..	Supreme Command Allied Powers
N.Z.	..	New Zealand	Sc.B.	..	Bachelor of Science
O.	..	Ohio	S.D.F.	..	Sudan Defence Force
OAPEC	..	Organization of Arab Petroleum Exporting Countries.	Sc.D.	..	Doctor of Science
O.A.S.	..	Secret Army Organisation	S.Dak.	..	South Dakota
O.A.U.	..	Organisation for African Unity	Sec.	Secretary
O.B.E.	..	Officer of (the Order of) the British Empire	Sect.	..	Section
OCAM	..	Organisation Commune Africaine et Mal- gache	S.et O.	..	Seine-et-Oise
OECD	..	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development	SHAPE	..	Supreme Headquarters of Allied Powers in Europe
OEEC	..	Organisation for European Economic Co- operation	SIRIP	..	Société Irano-Italienne des Petroles
Okla.	..	Oklahoma	S.J.	Society of Jesus
O.M.	..	Member of the Order of Merit	S.J.D.	..	Doctor of Juristic Science
OPEC	..	Organisation of Petroleum Exporting Countries	Soc.	Society, Société
Ore.	..	Oregon	Sqdn.	..	Squadron
O.S.R.D.	..	Office of Scientific Research and Develop- ment	S.T.B.	..	Bachelor of Sacred Theology
Oxfam	..	Oxford Committee for Famine Relief	Supt.	..	Superintendent
Oxon.	..	Of Oxford University	Tapline	..	Trans-Arabian Pipeline Company
Pa.	Pennsylvania	Tenn.	..	Tennessee
Parl.	..	Parliament; Parliamentary	Tex.	..	Texas
P.C.	..	Privy Councillor	trans.	..	translated; translation
Pd.B.	..	Bachelor of Pedagogy	T.U.C.	..	Trades Union Congress
Pd.D.	..	Doctor of Pedagogy			
P.D.F.L.P.	..	Popular Democratic Front for the Libera- tion of Palestine	U.A.R.	..	United Arab Republic
P.E.N.	..	Poets, Playwrights, Essayists, Editors and Novelists (Club)	U.D.M.A.	..	Democratic Union of the Algerian Mani- festo
Perm.	..	Permanent	U.K.	..	United Kingdom
P.F.L.P.	..	Popular Front for the Liberation of Pales- tine.	UN	..	United Nations
Ph.C.	..	Pharmaceutical Chemist	U.N.A.	..	United Nations Association
Ph.D.	..	Doctor of Philosophy	UNESCO	..	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
P.L.A.	..	Palestine Liberation Army	UNICEF	..	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
P.L.O.	..	Palestine Liberation Organization	UNRWA	..	United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East
Plen.	..	Plenipotentiary	U.P.	..	United Provinces; Uttar Pradesh
P.Q.	..	Province of Quebec	U.S.A.	..	United States of America
P.R.A.	..	President of the Royal Academy	U.S.S.R.	..	Union of Soviet Socialist Republics
Pres.	..	President			
P.R.I.B.A.	..	President of the Royal Institute of British Architects	Va.	..	Virginia
Priv.Do.	..	Recognised teacher not on the regular staff	V.C...	..	Victoria Cross
P.R.S.	..	President of the Royal Society	V.G.	..	Vicar-General
P.R.S.A.	..	President of the Royal Scottish Academy	V.S.O.	..	Voluntary Service Overseas Ltd.
Pty...	..	Proprietary	Vt.	Vermont
Publs.	..	Publications			
Q.C.	..	Queen's Counsel	W.A.	..	Western Australia
R.A.	..	Royal Academy; Royal Academician	Wash.	..	Washington (State)
R.A.F.	..	Royal Air Force	W.F.T.U.	..	World Federation of Trade Unions
			WHO	..	World Health Organisation
			Wis.	..	Wisconsin
			W.Va.	..	West Virginia
			Wyo.	..	Wyoming
			Y.M.C.A.	..	Young Men's Christian Association
			Y.W.C.A.	..	Young Women's Christian Association

TRANSCRIPTION OF ARABIC NAMES

The Arabic language is used over a vast area. Though the written language and the script are standard throughout the Middle East, the spoken language and also the pronunciation of the written signs show wide variation from place to place. This is reflected and even exaggerated, in the different transcriptions in use in different countries. The same words, names and even letters will be pronounced differently by an Egyptian, a Lebanese, or an Iraqi—they will be heard and transcribed differently by an Englishman, a Frenchman or an Italian. There are several more or less scientific systems of transliteration in use, sponsored by learned societies and Middle Eastern governments, most of them requiring diacritical marks to indicate Arabic letters for which there are no Latin equivalents.

Arabic names occurring in the historical and geographical sections of this book have been rendered in the system most commonly used by British and American Orientalists, but with the omission of the diacritical signs. For the convenience of the reader, these are explained and annotated below. The system used is a transliteration—i.e. it is based on the writing, which is standard throughout the Arab world, and not on the pronunciation, which varies from place to place. In a few cases consistency has been sacrificed in order to avoid replacing a familiar and accepted form by another which, though more accurate, would be unrecognisable.

Consonants

- d** represents two Arabic letters. The second, or emphatic *d*, is transliterated *ḍ*. It may also be represented, for some dialects, by *dh* and by *z*, e.g. Qāḍī, qadhī, qazī.
- dh** in literary Arabic and some dialects pronounced like English *th* in *this*. In many dialects pronounced *z* or *d*.
- gh** A strongly guttural *g*—sometimes written *g*, e.g. Baghdād, Bagdad.
- h** represents two Arabic letters. The second, more guttural *h*, is transliterated *ḥ*, e.g. Ḥusayn, Husein.
- j** as English *j* in *John*, also represented by *ḍj* and *g*. In Egypt this letter is pronounced as a hard *g* and may be thus transcribed (with *u* before *g* and *ḡ*), e.g. Najīb, Nadjīb, Nagīb, Naguib, Neguib.
- kh** as *ch* in Scottish *loch*, also sometimes represented by *ch* and *h*, e.g. Khalīl, Chalīl, Hālīl.
- q** A guttural *k*, pronounced farther back in the throat. Also transcribed *k*, *h*, and, for some dialects, *g*, e.g. Waqī, Wakī, Waki, Wagī.
- s** represents two Arabic letters. The second, emphatic *s*, is transliterated *ṣ*. It may also be represented by *ṣ*, e.g. Sālib, Saleh, Ṣaleh.
- t** represents two Arabic letters. The second, emphatic *t*, is transliterated *ṭ*.

- th** in literary Arabic and some dialects pronounced as English *th* in *through*. In many dialects pronounced *t* or *s*, e.g. Thābit, Tabit, Sabit.
- w** as in English, but often represented by *ou* or *v*, e.g. Wādī, Vadi, Oued.
- z** represents two Arabic letters. The second, or emphatic *z*, is transliterated *ḡ*. It may also be represented for some dialects by *dh* or *d*, e.g. Hāfiṣ, Haḍiḥ, Haḍīd.
- ʿ** A glottal stop, as in Cockney *ʿi l bo l s*. May also represent the sound transliterated *ʿ*, a deep guttural with no English equivalent.

Vowels

The Arabic script only indicates three short vowels, three long vowels, and two diphthongs, as follows:

- a** as in English *hat*, and often rendered *e*, e.g. balad, beled, emur, amur, with emphatics or gutturals usually pronounced as *u* in *but*, e.g. Khalīfa, Baghdād.
- i** as in English *bit*. Sometimes rendered *e*, e.g. jhād, jhād.
- u** as in English *good*. Often pronounced and written *o*, e.g. Muḥammad, Mohammad.

In some Arabic dialects, particularly those of North Africa, unaccented short vowels are often omitted altogether, and long vowels shortened, e.g. Oued for Wādī, bled for balad, etc.

- ā** Long *a* variously pronounced as in *sand*, *dart* and *half*.

- i** As *ee* in *feet*. In early books often rendered *ee*.
- ū** As *oo* in *boot*. The French transcription *ou* is often met in English books, e.g. Maḥmūd, Mahmūd, Mahmoud.
- ai** Pronounced in classical Arabic as English *i* in *hide*, in colloquial Arabic as *a* in *lake*. Various transcriptions as *ai*, *ay*, *ei*, *ey* and *ē*, e.g. sheikh, shaikh, shaykh, etc.
- aw** Pronounced in classical Arabic as English *ow* in *town*, in colloquial Arabic as in *grow*. Various renderings *au*, *eu*, *au*, *ō*, *av*, *ev*, e.g. Tawfiq, Taufiq, Tévīk, etc.

TURKISH ORTHOGRAPHY AND PRONUNCIATION

Turkish has been written in Roman characters since 1928. The following pronunciations are invariable:

- c** hard *j*, as in *majority*, *jam*.
- ç** *ch*, as in *church*.
- g** hard *g* as in *go*, *big*.
- ğ** not voiced, or pronounced *y*, Ereğli is pronounced *erayli*.
- i** short vowel, as the second vowel of *'centre'*, or French *'le'*.
- ı** sound of *Iran*, *bitter* (NOT as in *bite*, *might*).
- o** *o*, as in *hot*, *boss*.
- ö** sound of *birth*, or French *'oeuvre'*.
- u** as in *do* *too*, German *'un'*.
- ü** as in *burette*, German *'Hütte'*.

CALENDAR OF EVENTS

1969

JANUARY

- 6 French ban on arms supplies to Israel made public by Israel
- 7 23 Resignation of Lebanese Government following Beirut raid Mr Rashid Karami formed new ministry
- 8 Elections for U A R National Assembly held
- 27 Fourteen men (nine Jewish) executed and publicly hanged in Iraq amid much publicity after being convicted of spying for Israel

FEBRUARY

- 26 Death of Mr Levi Eshkol Israeli Prime Minister at the age of 73

MARCH

- 11 Mrs Golda Meir became Prime Minister of Israel heading an unchanged Cabinet
- 24 New Jordanian Government formed by Mr Abdul Moniem Rifai

APRIL

- 1 30 Fierce fighting throughout month in Suez Canal area
- 4 First meeting of American Soviet British and French representatives in New York to discuss Middle East situation
- 21 Iranian vessel sailed down Shatt al Arab waterway flying national flag thus abrogating 1937 treaty granting Iraq sovereignty over the waterway
- 30 Iraq granted full diplomatic recognition to the German Democratic Republic by August 1969 Southern Yemen Syria Sudan and the U A R had followed suit

MAY

- 15 30 Political crisis in Turkey when army effectively overruled Parliamentary majority in favour of restoring rights to former Justice Party leaders
- 25 Parliamentary government in Sudan overthrown by bloodless coup d'état Maj Gen Ja'far al Nemeiry heads new military regime
- 29 New Cabinet formed in Syria as outcome of much reported strife amongst army and Baath Party leadership

JUNE

- 22 President As Shaabi of Southern Yemen overthrown and replaced by five-man Presidential Council
- 30 Spain formally handed over Ifni to Morocco

AUGUST

- 21 Fire causes severe damage to Al Aqsa Mosque in Jerusalem

SEPTEMBER

- 1 Army coup in Libya monarchy deposed and Libyan Arab Republic proclaimed
- 3 New Yemen Cabinet formed by Abdallah Kurshoum
- 5 Arrests made in Saudi Arabia following reports of an abortive coup
- 8 Cabinet Reshuffle in Tunisia Ahmed Ben Salah demoted
- 21 25 Islamic Summit Conference at Rabat

OCTOBER

- 1 10 Severe floods covered large areas of Algeria and Tunisia
- 6 Cabinet reshuffle in Morocco Ahmed Laraki became Prime Minister
- 12 General Election in Turkey—Justice Party retained power
- 20-Nov Extensive fighting between the Lebanese Army and guerrilla forces threatening civil war
- 21 25 Meeting of the Federation of Arab Emirates in Abu Dhabi provisionally chose Sheikh Zaid as President Sheikh Rashid (Dubai) as Vice President and Abu Dhabi as the capital
- 28 General Election in Israel the governing Alignment lost its majority in the Knesset

CALENDAR OF EVENTS

NOVEMBER

- 2 President Bourguiba and the Destour Socialist Party returned to power unopposed.
- 3 Lebanese Commander-in-Chief and Yassir Arafat of Al Fatah signed pact in Cairo.
- 7-13 Libya cancelled British missiles contract, and ordered immediate "Libyanization" of banks and other foreign enterprises.
- 17 New cabinet formed in Afghanistan.
- 25 Rashid Karami formed new government in Lebanon, replacing the caretaker ministry which had governed since April.
- 26-Dec. 3 Armed conflict on Saudi Arabia-Southern Yemen border.
- 27 Extensive nationalization programme announced in Southern Yemen.

DECEMBER

- 7 Counter-revolutionary plot revealed in Libya; subsequent arrests included Defence and Interior Ministers.
- 9 United States' ten-point peace plan for the Middle East publicly announced.
- 11 New 24-member coalition cabinet formed in Israel.
- 16 France and Morocco resumed full diplomatic relations after 4 years.
- 17 Algeria and Tunisia signed 20-year friendship treaty, including border settlement.
- 21-24 Arab Summit Conference in Rabat.
- 25 Israeli crews sailed 6 gunboats, built for Israel but withheld by the French Government, out of Cherbourg harbour en route to Haifa.
- 27 Libya, Sudan and the U.A.R. announced political, economic and military co-ordination agreement following Heads of State meeting in Tripoli.

1970

JANUARY

- Jan.-Feb. Israeli air raids struck deep into Egypt, including the Cairo area.
- 16 New Libyan cabinet formed, with Colonel Gaddafi becoming Prime Minister.
- 16 Morocco, having dropped claim to Mauritania, exchanged ambassadors with her.
- 19 First Bahrain cabinet—or "Council of State"—formed.
- 20 Attempted coup in Baghdad—Iran accused of collusion.
- 21 Sale of French Mirage jet fighters to Libya announced.
- 23 Israel's High Court decreed that Israelis can register children as Jewish by nationality if not religion even if their mother was a Gentile—strong Rabbinate protests.
- 26 Contract for construction of bridge over the Bosphorus signed in Ankara; bridge due for completion in 1973.

FEBRUARY

- 5 Muhsin al Aini became Prime Minister of the Yemen, heading reshuffled cabinet.
- 11-14 Budget defeated in Turkish Parliament; Mr. Demirel resigned but later formed new government.
- 12 Israeli air raid on Al Khanka scrap metal plant in Egypt killed 70 civilians.
- 15 Israeli oil pipeline linking Eilat to Ashkelon opened.

MARCH

- 8 President Makarios narrowly escaped assassination attempt.
- 11 Fifteen-point peace agreements granting the Kurds autonomy announced in Baghdad; the Kurds accepted the agreement and the civil war came to an end.
- 15 Mr. Polycarpus Georghadjis, former Interior Minister in Cyprus, found shot dead.
- 23-26 Islamic Countries' Foreign Ministers met in Jeddah and decided to establish a permanent secretariat. Saudi Arabian and Yemen representatives also met there.
- 28-31 Unsuccessful rebellion in the Sudan by Ansar sect supporters of the Imam el Mahdi, who was reported killed whilst escaping.
- 28-April Severe earthquakes hit western Turkey, centred on the Gediz area.

MAY

- 1 Israel claimed Soviet pilots were flying operational missions in Egypt.
- 2-14 UN Report on Bahrain's future published. Its conclusion that Bahrain preferred independence to association with Iran was soon accepted by the UN and Iran.

CALENDAR OF EVENTS

- 23 Yemen Government reorganized and expanded to include former Royalist supporters
- 24 Ahmed Ben Salah sentenced to ten years hard labour in Tunisia

JUNE

- 7-11 Heavy fighting in Jordan between guerrillas and regular forces following a ceasefire agreement the King dismissed some of his officials
- 16-18 Serious rioting in Turkey martial law was declared in Istanbul and elsewhere
- 29-July President Nasser visited Moscow for talks on American ceasefire proposals

JULY

- 5 First General Election in Cyprus for ten years no party won a majority
- 20-24 Saudi Arabia Britain and France recognized the Yemen Republic
- 23 President Nasser unconditionally accepted American ceasefire proposals
- 24 Referendum in Morocco approved new constitution
- 24 Sultan Said of Muscat and Oman overthrown by his son who became Sultan Qabus bin Said

AUGUST

- 5-6 Foreign and Defence Ministers of Jordan Libya Sudan Syria and U A R met in Tripoli Algeria and Iraq refused to attend
- 8 Ceasefire came into effect on Israel's post 1967 frontiers
- 9 Turkish currency devalued by 66.6 per cent.
Muscat and Oman renamed Oman
Central Committee for Palestinian Resistance announced rejection of American peace proposals for Middle East
- 17 Sulaiman Franjiya elected President of the Lebanon
- 21 and 28 Elections in Morocco resulted in victory for King Hassan's group which gained 218 out of 240 seats
- 31 Eastern Front against Israel split into separate national fronts

SEPTEMBER

- 6-13 Four Western airliners hijacked by P F L P and blown up in Cairo and north Jordan hostages later released in exchange for freeing of Palestinian commandos held in Western countries
Israel withdrew from peace talks in New York
- 16-27 Exceptionally fierce fighting in Jordan between army and Palestinian commandos
Cairo agreement between King Hussein and Yassir Arafat
- 26 Death of President Nasser

OCTOBER

- 13 Comprehensive agreement between Hussein and Arafat
- 15 Anwar Sadat elected President of the United Arab Republic
Air Marshal Hardan Takriti a Vice President of Iraq dismissed

NOVEMBER

- 2 Hadji Nourra appointed Prime Minister of Tunisia
- 8 Libya Sudan U A R decide to draw up plan for union
- 13 General Hafiz Assad seized power in Syria
- 30 New constitution in Southern Yemen which was renamed the People's Democratic Republic of Yemen

DECEMBER

- 28 First permanent constitution of Yemen Arab Republic proclaimed

1971

JANUARY

- 14 New agreement between Jordanian Government and Palestinian guerrillas after continuing fighting between the two sides.
- 29 Flow of oil in Tapline resumed after Syria allowed repairs to be made.

FEBRUARY

- 14 New five-year agreement between 23 international oil companies and Abu Dhabi, Iran, Iraq, Kuwait, Qatar and Saudi Arabia.
- 24 Algerian Government nationalizes C.F.P. and Elf-E.R.A.P., the two French companies.

MARCH

- 4 Royal decree extended term of Jordanian House of Representatives for two years.
- 7 President Sadat announced cease-fire with Israel not to be renewed again.
- 12 General Assad elected President of Syria for seven years.
Army threatened to take over in Turkey; Demirel resigned; Erim formed new government.
- 28 Bahi Ladgham, chairman of committee supervising Jordanian agreements, accused Jordanian Government of violating them.
President Gaddafi called for King Hussein's overthrow.

APRIL

- 2 Agreement in Tripoli between international oil companies and Libyan Government, acting for Algeria, Iraq and Saudi Arabia as well; posted price for Libyan crude raised 90c.
- 3 New government in Syria formed under Maj.-Gen. Abdal Rahman Khlefawi.
Mahmoud Ayyoubi appointed Vice-President of Syria.
- 13-14 Meeting of heads of state of Libya, Sudan, Syria and U.A.R. in Cairo and Benghazi.
- 17 Announcement of plan to federate Libya, Syria and U.A.R.; Sudan's membership of federation postponed.

MAY

- 2 U.A.R.'s Vice-President, Ali Sabry, dismissed.
- 1-8 U.S. Secretary of State, William Rogers, visited Saudi Arabia, Jordan, Lebanon, U.A.R. and Israel to discuss plans for reopening Canal.
- 13 More Ministers in U.A.R. dismissed after planning coup.
- 27 Fifteen-year treaty of friendship between U.A.R. and U.S.S.R.

JUNE

- 5 Palestinian guerrillas, including Fatah, call for overthrow of Hussein.
- 11 President Gaddafi announced Arab Socialist Union to be formed as Libya's only party.
- 30 Agreement reached between Algerian Government and C.F.P. on compensation for nationalization, on tax reference price, etc.

JULY

- 10 Unsuccessful attempt by section of army to overthrow King Hassan of Morocco; many people killed; thirteen officers executed; full powers granted to Gen. Oufkir.
- 18 Six of seven Trucial States agreed to federate before British withdrew from Gulf at end of year; Ras al Khaimah elected to become independent.
- 19 Negotiations began between Algerian Government and Elf-E.R.A.P.
- 19-21 Unsuccessful attempt at communist take-over in Sudan; 13 leading communists later executed for their part in it.

AUGUST

- 2 U.S.S.R. and other Warsaw pact states condemn Sudan's "reign of terror".
- 15 Bahrain becomes independent.

THE YEAR IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

ARAB DISUNITY

The year is very appropriately delimited by two conferences in Tripoli—one of Arab foreign and defence ministers held at the beginning of August 1970, and the other of heads of state, which met at the end of July 1971. The first meeting was called to discuss ways of improving co-ordination between Arab states in the face of the Israeli challenge, the second meeting, which met to consider the Jordanian assault on the Palestinian commando bases, only served to illustrate how much more remote from realization Arab unity really was a year later. The fact that both the meetings were held in Tripoli is also significant, for President Gaddafi has been a leading supporter of the Federation of Arab Republics as well as a leading opponent of conservative states like Morocco and Jordan.

The cause of Arab unity was not helped by the loss of President Nasser, who died of a heart attack on September 28th, 1970. The departure of the charismatic leader of the Arabs against Israeli and Western imperialism left a huge void. None of the remaining leaders had Nasser's long experience of government or his redoubtable record of contest with Israel. However, it is doubtful whether even he could have papered over the cracks that appeared in the Arab world surrounding Israel following his and King Hussein's acceptance of the American peace proposals in July 1970. The other two main "front line" Arab states, Syria and Iraq, rejected them, as did Algeria and Libya, although only Algeria has translated this rejection into action and has continued to give wholehearted support to the Palestinian guerrillas. It was the guerrillas' almost unanimous refusal to countenance peace negotiations, albeit indirect, with Israel that led to even greater divisions in the Arab world. The Popular Front for the Liberation of Palestine responded in a spectacular fashion, hijacking four Western airliners at the beginning of September 1970 and holding numbers of passengers and crew hostage until Western governments released Palestine commandos held in their countries. At the same time there was an assassination attempt on Hussein. These were the last significant acts of the commandos in Jordan. It was obvious in August, as the defences of Amman were strengthened and the top command of the army reshuffled, that the Jordanian Government was preparing for a showdown with the Palestinian liberation organizations. The commandos had appeared at times to be almost an alternative government—in June 1970 Hussein was forced to dismiss his army commander and a cabinet minister, both relatives in order to secure agreement with the commandos. There had also been previous assassination attempts and previous violent confrontations between the mainly Bedouin Jordanian army and the Palestinian guerrillas—in November 1968 and

February and June 1970. However, the confrontation in September, which built up in the last half of the month into full scale civil war, was the bloodiest of all. Estimates of the numbers killed in the last two weeks of September range between 500 and 3 500. Almost the last act of President Nasser was to get an agreement to end the fighting, outlined by King Faisal, signed in Cairo by King Hussein and Yassir Arafat. But although the commandos had been driven back to enclaves in the north of the country and had been neutralized in the capital, the Jordanian Government was not satisfied. Sporadic operations against the guerrillas continued in defiance of various agreements reached under the auspices of other Arab governments. It was not until July 1971 that the guerrillas were finally reduced to impotence in Jordan, their bases being wiped out, hundreds being imprisoned and many more fleeing into Israeli-occupied territory. The other Arab states throughout displayed an ambivalent attitude towards the events in Jordan. In September 1970 Libya and Kuwait cut off their aid to Jordan, and Libya, Syria and Iraq threatened to intervene on the commandos' behalf. But in the event only tanks from Syria gave any assistance to the guerrillas, and this support precipitated a coup in Syria which brought to power a regime less inclined to support the Palestinian organizations. Libya as became clearer early in 1971, opposed on ideological grounds, the PFLP, which had provoked the Jordanian crisis, and restricted its help to the financial assistance normally allotted to the Jordanian Government. Most notably, Iraq's 20 000 troops stationed on the Eastern Front remained passive during the internecine fighting and most of them were withdrawn in January 1971. The UAR apparently released three battalions of the Palestine Liberation Army from duty on the Suez Front so that they could return to Jordan, and it was reported that Nasser's threat to intervene against the Jordanian army was a factor helping to secure the September 27th agreement. The death of Nasser gave Hussein a freer hand in dealing with the commandos, and the Jordanian army became more and more open in its policy of eradicating the remaining guerrilla bases from the country. However, the UAR, Syria and Algeria confined themselves to strong protests against Jordanian action. It was not until July 1971, when Hussein's government had almost completed their task, that any sanctions were applied against Jordan. Iraq and Syria closed their land frontiers with their neighbour, but Syria at the same time held up the delivery of Algerian arms to the guerrillas. The summit conference called by President Gaddafi only issued more threats to Jordan.

The attitude of the Lebanon, and more particularly Syria, to the demise of the guerrilla organizations has been governed by their experiences with them in their own countries. In both states since the June War they have been a significant, if not major,

THE YEAR IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

factor in internal politics. In the Lebanon friction between the army and the commandos in October 1969 had nearly sparked off civil war. The guerrillas and radical elements took over Tripoli, the second largest city, for several days and Palestinian refugee camps were mobilized as training and equipment centres. Guerrilla actions against Israel have brought countless Israeli retaliatory actions. The Israeli attacks, together with fighting between different guerrilla groups and between guerrillas and extreme right-wingers, have heightened domestic problems of unemployment and inflation in the Lebanon. In Syria the long-standing contest between the two factions of the ruling Baath Party was brought to a head by the intervention of tanks, sent by leaders of the "civilian" or "progressive" faction, on behalf of the Palestinian commandos in September 1970. The "military" or "nationalist" group under Gen. Assad which seized power in November, immediately brought the Syrian guerrilla organization, Saqa, under army control, and later forbade any guerrilla operations against Israel from Syria. In Lebanon and Syria, as in Jordan, the basic issue between the governments and the guerrillas has been that of sovereignty. This has been resolved in favour of the national governments. But the Palestinian cause has been dealt an irreparable blow. The guerrilla organizations grew out of the refugee camps. The danger with their demise is that the refugees will be forgotten again. The idea of a Palestinian state has faded and all that Palestinians can look forward to is a second-class existence in either Israel or Jordan. Only in the Gaza strip does resistance continue, mainly initiated by the P.F.L.P., and the reactions of the Israeli occupying forces—the razing to the ground of homes of guerrilla suspects or sympathizers, detention without trial, the (alleged) torture of prisoners and all the other repressive measures that occupying forces faced with indigenous resistance traditionally resort to—at least serve to maintain publicity about the plight of the Palestinians.

COMMUNISTS IN DECLINE

Another section of the Arab world that received a severe battering during the year 1970-71 was the communists. In Iraq, Syria, the U.A.R., Algeria and above all Sudan those supporting Moscow suffered in varying degrees. In addition, Marxists (especially of the P.F.L.P. and P.D.F.L.P.) were deported from or attacked in Libya and Lebanon, in addition of course to Jordan. In Syria the Marxist-oriented "civilian" faction of the Baath Party was ousted from power in November 1970 by the military faction led by Gen. Assad, who had been restrained from a previous attempt in February 1969 by Soviet threats to withdraw all military and economic aid. By late 1970 the Syrian army had widened its base of foreign support, and in any case by then Gen. Assad's Nasserite approach to the Middle East problem was more in accord with the U.S.S.R.'s. While still very dependent on the Soviet Union for aid, General Assad is determined to prevent any extension of Soviet influence in Syria, nor is he likely to forget the

Soviet intervention in 1969. The Iraqi régime is ruthless in its approach to any possible opponents and campaigns against communists have proceeded simultaneously with purges of "reactionaries". However, a drive against communists at the beginning of 1971, in which members of the Iraq Party were reported to have died in prison, was serious enough to provoke adverse press comment in the Soviet Union. The Algerian Government discovered a Marxist plot among students at the University of Algiers in January 1971. The National Union of Algerian Students was banned and freedom of expression in the University restricted.

More important was the alleged attempt to overthrow President Sadat of the U.A.R. in May 1971. One of those involved was Ali Sabry, Vice-President of the Republic and well-known for his pro-Moscow sympathies. He and other ministers involved were later charged with treason, and a purge of sympathizers was carried out at all levels of the Arab Socialist Union, trade unions and professional bodies. A new constitution was drafted and fresh elections held to the National Assembly. The Soviet Union appeared willing to gloss over the downfall of its strongest supporters when President Podgorny signed a fifteen-year friendship treaty with the U.A.R. at the end of May.

But the biggest setback for communists came in the Sudan, which has always had the largest and most influential Communist Party in both the Arab world and Africa. Members of the Party helped President Nemery seize power in May 1969, and held five positions in the cabinet. However, in pursuing a policy, very much akin to Nasser's and aiming at eventual union with the U.A.R. and Libya, Nemery began to feel insecure in the face of opposition from both right and left. In March 1970 he removed the danger from the traditional Islamic right by crushing a rebellion led by the Imam al Mahdi, who was killed while trying to escape. In November 1970 when the Libya-U.A.R.-Sudan federation was agreed in principle he moved against the left which opposed federation. Three ministers and thirteen army officers were dismissed. In April Nemery said that Sudan was unable to contemplate federation at that time because of the opposition of the communists, in addition to the war in the south, and Syria joined instead. He had already declared his intention to destroy the Communist Party, but in fact it was his left-wing opponents who moved first. A section of the army, led by left-wing participants in Nemery's own 1969 coup and backed by communists, seized power on July 19th. The Soviet Union prematurely allowed favourable press comment on the coup. Iraq, looking for Arab allies to reduce its isolation, despatched a high-level delegation, but this was destroyed when the plane transporting it crashed in Saudi Arabia.

President Gaddafi of Libya, seeing a chance to further his dreams of an enlarged Arab federation and also to deal a blow against his most hated enemies, the communists, ordered the seizure of the newly-declared Sudanese head of state and his assistant from the B.O.A.C. plane flying them from

London to Khartoum The two leaders were handed over to Nemery, who after three days had regained power, and were later executed Eleven other leading communists or sympathizers said to be involved in the coup were also executed in a rigorous purge which brought condemnation from the USSR and six other Warsaw Pact states of the "reign of terror" in the Sudan President Sadat's backing for Nemery's handling of the crisis completed the exposure of the contradictions in Soviet policy in the Arab world

Since the abortive coup President Nemery has made moves to strengthen links with China But Chinese policy in the Middle East is no more consistent than the USSR's Chinese influence reached its peak during the war in Jordan in September 1970, when support was given to the Palestinian guerrillas Since then China's problem has been reconciling support for the guerrillas with her desire to strengthen relations with the Arab states who support the American peace proposals In addition any move to assist the PFLP or PDDLP at the expense of Fatah would make relations with Arab states even more difficult

OTHER INTERNAL SECURITY PROBLEMS

In Morocco the attempt to overthrow the government came from the right, despite King Hassan's claims to the contrary and Libya's premature support The badly planned coup attempt, in July 1971, was put into operation by right-wing army officers, incensed at the King's too liberal treatment of left-wing dissent and disturbed by the level of corruption in the royal administration It was crushed within twenty-four hours by troops led by Gen Oufkir He remained in Hassan's new cabinet formed in August, which appears to herald some reforms coupled with more authoritarian rule The breach with Libya caused by her hasty declaration of support for the revolutionaries, merely formalized that country's withdrawal from the Maghreb and reorientation towards the Middle East

Security was also a preoccupation of the British and the rulers of the Gulf states given Britain's undertaking to withdraw from the area by the end of 1971 Agreement on a federation of all nine states was originally hoped for, but the Union of Arab Emirates which was eventually established in July 1971 contained only six of the seven Trucial States, Ras al Khaimah electing to face independence alone Bahrain and Qatar had long been expected to opt for complete independence because of their relatively advanced levels of development Bahrain formally declared its independence in August 1971, replacing its former ties with Britain with a treaty of friendship and Qatar was expected to follow suit shortly Iran's attitude to the Federation will be crucial and depends on how her claim to the Tumbs and Abu Musa islands in the Gulf is resolved

The position of Oman could be considerably strengthened if negotiations between the exiled Imam and the Sultan, which began in August 1971, can resolve their rival claims to the state and ease the way to recognition by the Arab League and the UN

The Popular Front for the Liberation of the Occupied Arab Gulf, backed by the NLF in the Yemen People's Democratic Republic, has declared its intention of fighting for the destruction of the new Union, as well as for the "liberation" of Oman, which it has begun in Dhofar province

NO PEACE SETTLEMENT YET

The disarray among Arab states in the past year has left Israel largely on the sidelines The cease fire remains observed by the UAR and Jordan, even though it has not been officially renewed since the beginning of March The USA managed to paper over the cracks that began to appear in the peace plan after the alleged violations of the cease fire agreement by Egypt, and indirect talks between Jordan, Egypt and Israel resumed in New York under Gunnar Jarring Throughout the spring and summer of 1971 US Secretary of State, William Rogers and his assistant, Joseph Sisco, concentrated on discussing with the governments concerned various plans for reopening the Suez Canal as a first phase of a negotiated peace settlement However, it was clear by the beginning of August that these initiatives had proved fruitless and the UAR began its own diplomatic offensive, to maintain its promise that 1971 would be "decisive" in determining the outcome of the Middle East conflict President Sadat's main concern is that the 1967 frontiers will, in the absence of action, gradually become accepted as permanent His view is given some point by the actions of the Israelis in Gaza, where Arab homes in some of the largest refugee camps are being razed to the ground and the occupants transported south to Sinai These actions led to a call by the guerrilla organizations for a seven-day general strike in August, which was widely observed by Palestinians

The other side of the Egyptian initiative has been the frantic attempt in conjunction with Saudi Arabia to patch up the differences among the "front line" Arab states The Syrians were enlisted to mediate between Moscow and Khartoum, and although reconciliation is a long way off it seems probable that Sudan, like the UAR before her, will eventually reach some kind of *modus vivendi* with the USSR One of the obstacles will be the uncompromising attitude of the remnants of the Sudanese Communist Party, which has recently elected a new Secretary-General, Mohamed Ibrahim Nugud, to replace the executed Mahgoub

The Syrians, with Egyptian and Saudi approval, have also brought pressure to bear on Jordan to reach agreement with the Palestinian guerrillas The objective of the Egyptians and Syrians is to secure agreement with guerrillas who can be carefully controlled in any confrontation with Israel and do not act independently of Arab governments as previously However, the danger is that Syria may be pushed into serious conflict with Jordan or that General Assad's position may be weakened by opposition from the opposing faction of the Baath Party in his country or from the rival Iraqi Party

PF

LATE INFORMATION

Afghanistan Cabinet (*August 1971*)

Prime Minister Dr. ZAHIR; Deputy Prime Minister Dr. ABDUL SAMAD HAMED; Minister of National Defence Gen. KHAN MOHAMAD; Minister of Foreign Affairs MOHAMMAD MOUSA SHAFIQ; Minister of the Interior AMANULLAH MANSURI; Minister of Justice MOHAMMAD ANWAR ARGHANDEEWAL; Minister of Finance Dr. GHULAM HAIDER DAWER; Minister of Education HAMIDULLAH ENAYAT-SERAJ; Minister of Commerce MOHAMMAD AREF GHAUSI; Minister of Public Works KHWAZAK ZALMAY; Minister of Information MOHAMMAD IBRAHIM ABASI; Minister of Communications ENGINEER NASRATULLAH MALEKYAR; Minister of Public Health Dr. MOHAMMAD EBRAHIM MAHID-SERAJ; Minister of Mines and Industry ENGINEER MOHAMMAD YAKOUB LALI; Minister of Agriculture and Irrigation ABDUL HAKIM; Minister of Planning Dr. ABDUL WAHED SARABI; Ministers without Portfolio Mrs. SHAFIQA ZIAYEE, Dr. ABDUL WAKIL, ABDUL SATAR SIRAT.

THE MIDDLE EAST

AN OUTLINE OF ITS PHYSICAL AND SOCIAL GEOGRAPHY

DEFINITION OF THE AREA

Use of the term "Middle East" to denote the territories of Egypt and of the Sudan, Turkey, Iran, Libya, the Arabian Peninsula and intermediate regions developed during the Second World War, in a casual and almost haphazard manner, following the territorial expansion of a unified military command that was originally based on countries lying east of the Suez Canal. In this way, the British public grew accustomed to the association of Jerusalem, Damascus, Cairo, and even Benghazi with the collective description 'Middle East', and in the writer's view, the expression has come to have a validity based on popular usage which it is now difficult to challenge. There are, however, numerous geographers and historians who are unwilling to abandon the older concept of southern Asia as divisible into a Near, Middle and Far East and in 1946 an official protest was made against the British Government's continued official usage of 'Middle East' to indicate Palestine and Egypt. If we talk of a Middle East, the logical argument runs, there is also implied a Near East and in fact this term was once in great vogue, as referring to the territories along the seaboard of the eastern Mediterranean. It was, moreover, a useful collective geographical description for the lands of the former Ottoman Empire.

However, usage of "Middle East" in the present volume may be justified on several grounds (a) few definitions of a Near East ever agreed—some authors extended it eastwards to include Afghanistan others terminated it at the coastal ranges of Syria and Palestine, and some included Egypt, whilst others did not. (b) "Near East" is convenient to apply, in an historical sense only, to the now defunct Ottoman Empire. (c) Nowadays for the English speaking public at least, the term 'Middle East' would have no validity if applied, in a strictly logical sense, to Afghanistan, Pakistan and India. (d) The term can be taken as denoting a single geographical area in which occur broadly similar features of physical environment and ways of life. We thus arrive at the definition of the Middle East as given on the title page of earlier editions of this volume—the highland countries of Turkey and Iran, Cyprus, the Arab-speaking states of the eastern Mediterranean seaboard, Mesopotamia and the Arabian peninsula, Israel, Sudan, Libya and Egypt (the United Arab Republic). This, by no means an ideal solution to the problem, was at least one with considerable sanction in popular usage and technical utility. The subsequent addition of a number of North African states and of Afghanistan while it is believed to be of value to the reader, has extended the range of the volume beyond most though not all of the numerous definitions of "The Middle East" which have been proposed,

although the criteria of a broad similarity of environment and way of life have been upheld. The discussion below, unless otherwise indicated, pertains only to the Middle East proper, however.

THE PHYSICAL BACKGROUND

Structure. Geologically speaking, the Middle East consists of two distinctive zones: the northern mountains and the southern plateaus. The northern zone consists of highly folded ranks of generally recent rocks, forming a part of the great series of mountain chains that are traceable from the East Indies through the Himalaya of Northern India as far west as the Carpathians, Alps and Pyrenees of Europe. This system extends from southern Spain and across the central Mediterranean from Italy and Sicily to produce the massive Atlas Ranges of North Africa and their continuations which together run in a generally east-west direction through Algeria and Tunisia. Embedded amongst these tightly packed folds occur large broken fragments of older structures. Such a formation of ancient blocks surrounded by folds of more recent age occurs in Asia Minor and in Iran, giving a central plateau lying several thousand feet above sea level that is surrounded by an outer ring of even higher mountains. North west Africa consists of a series of massive folds aligned generally in a west-south west—east north east direction, with an intermediate central plateau between. In Afghanistan, the folds come together without intervening blocks, to form an intricate knot.

The southern region contrasts sharply with the north, since it consists essentially of a platform of very ancient rocks—some of the most ancient in the world—covered in large part by thin layers of newer rocks that lie horizontally, or in gentle, open folds. A series of fissures that developed some 40 to 50 million years ago has split the southern plateau into two, detaching a smaller mass from the parent block of Africa to form Arabia, and giving rise to a broad rift valley that is now occupied by the Gulf of Aden and the Red Sea. The rift continues northward on a smaller scale, through the Jordan valley and western Syria, as far as southern Turkey. Another branch of it forms the Gulf of Suez.

The areas where fissures and extensive folds occur are zones of crustal weakness, and so from time to time, small adjustments take place giving rise to earthquakes of varying severity. In the district of the Jordan and western Syria, minor tremors are fairly frequent (they are described in the Bible), whilst severer shocks of greater amplitude occur in northern Turkey, Iran and Morocco, and may occasion loss of life. Another feature of these zones of weakness has

been the rise of liquid magma from the interior of the earth. Amongst the northern fold ranges enormous volcanic cones have been formed, producing the highest peaks in the Middle East (Mt. Ararat, 17,000 ft., Mt. Demavend, 19,000 ft.). Farther south, in Syria, Jordan, Libya and parts of southern Algeria, the lava has emerged in sheets rather than cones, and whole areas are covered by basalt of very recent deposition, giving a barren, desolate, and inhospitable landscape. Despite this widespread extension of lava outpourings in geologically very recent times, there are, however, today no really active volcanoes in the Middle East, although in a number of areas there are still emissions of hot gases and mud—the last phases of igneous activity.

Often associated with volcanic outpourings, especially in the north, are veins of metallic minerals—chromium, copper, lead, silver, zinc—and also asbestos, coal, emery and iron. In general, though these minerals are reasonably widespread, individual deposits tend to be small, of highly irregular occurrence, and of varying quality, so that it is not always commercially worthwhile to exploit them. However, the rise in world prices since 1940 has had a markedly stimulating effect and moreover, local governments will sometimes prefer to exploit national resources at higher cost rather than be dependent upon imports. Hence mineral exploitation has growing importance, with Turkey ranking second as world producer of chromium, Cyprus a significant producer of asbestos, copper and iron ore. Egypt has recently begun to develop on an extensive scale the important iron deposits near Aswan, using hydro-electric power from the partially completed High Dam; and other iron deposits are known to occur between the Nile Valley and the North-West coast of the Red Sea and in the Behariya oasis due west of the Nile. Another important discovery of iron not yet producing is at Rajo near Aleppo, in Syria. North Africa is distinctly richer in minerals than most of the Middle East proper. Besides extensive deposits of phosphate (which make Morocco the second largest world producer) there are important deposits of iron ore, with smaller, but highly significant quantities of lead, zinc, antimony, cobalt, molybdenum and barytes.

Elsewhere in the Middle East, other mineral resources are found, but on a scale somewhat smaller than in North Africa: phosphate in Israel and Jordan, where exploitation is now on an important scale; manganese in the Sinai peninsula; and small deposits of copper and natural gas in Israel. There is increasing use of soluble salts found in such lakes as the Dead Sea and the Wadi Natrun west of Cairo, chiefly (in the case of the Dead Sea) as sources of bromine. Very small quantities of alluvial gold are still produced, mainly from Saudi Arabia.

On the southern flanks of the fold mountains, rock strata are tilted into great domes, in which have accumulated the vast deposits of petroleum that make the Middle East one of the leading oil provinces in the world. More will be said later about these deposits, but it may here be noted that the occurrence of oil is closely dependent upon a certain kind of geological

structure. There must be first an alternation of porous and impermeable strata, with the latter uppermost so as to act as a seal, and prevent the oil from running away; and there must also be a slight degree of disturbance enough to produce the domes in which the oil can collect, but not sufficient to produce cracks which will allow oil to escape. Such factors can explain why oil is restricted in occurrence to a few zones, and why its discovery is such a chancy affair, with many disappointments—for every boring that produces oil, at least nine others are made without success.

Climate. Conditions can be broadly summarized as a long, intensely hot summer, and a relatively mild, rainy winter, with short intermediate periods—an autumn that is warm and sunny, and a spring which is changeable and rather unpleasant. Because of the absence of cloud during summer (away from the coast there can be days without any cloud whatever) the sun beats down uninterruptedly, and the temperatures reached are far higher than those at the Equator. Day maxima of 100° to 115° F. are usual, and a figure of over 125° F. is known. Parts of the interior of Arabia, Algeria, Libya and Iran may experience the highest temperatures occurring in the world.

In winter, though frost is practically unknown on the coast, snow can fall as far south as central Morocco and Algeria, Aswan, the Yemen, and southern Iran, whilst the presence of high mountains has the effect of intensifying winter cold. The plateaus of Turkey and Iran in particular, and to a slightly lesser degree of the Atlas region, experience severe winters, with several months of frost, and up to 120 days of snow cover—a reminder of their geographical position adjacent respectively to Russia and to Spain, which is surprisingly cold in winter. Considerable seasonal change is thus the keynote of Middle Eastern climate, with 40° to 50° F. of temperature range between one part of the year and another.

Rainfall is on the whole scanty, with less than ten inches annually over many areas; and aridity is often intensified by the sporadic and irregular nature of the actual fall. As much as two or three inches of rain may occur in a single day, and there can be heavy rain in one part of a district and none in the other, so that a map of average rainfall conditions can be somewhat misleading as to actual conditions. Moreover, there are a few regions of the Middle East where rainfall exceeds thirty or forty inches per annum. These are usually upland areas close to large seas—northern Israel and Jordan, the Lebanon and western Syria, south and west Turkey, the north of Iran close to the Caspian Sea, and the higher parts of the North African mountain zones, in Morocco and as far east as northern Tunisia.

Normally, the winter rains begin in October, with a series of storms (the "Former Rains" of the Bible). Heaviest rain falls during January in the west, and February or March in the east. Towards the end of April there may be a final onset of rain (the "Latter Rains"), and then from June to September no rain whatever falls in the south, and only very small amounts in the north.

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Two other phenomena may be mentioned the occurrence from time to time of hot, sand laden winds from desert areas, and the prevalence of high atmospheric humidity near the coasts. The sand winds (known as *Khamins*, *Simooms* (Iran) or *Ghibls* (Libya)) are unpleasant visitations that can last up to 48 hours, and their main effect, apart from personal inconvenience and mental irritation among humans, is to wither growing crops on a large scale. High humidity, especially in summer, makes living conditions difficult in such areas as the Persian Gulf, the Red Sea, and parts of the Lebanon and Asia Minor, so that the wealthier sections of the community try to pass this season in hill stations. Though, as we have seen, the summer is almost rainless, there is the curious and unfortunate effect that humidity is most pronounced at the hottest time of the year.

THE SOCIAL GEOGRAPHY

The lands of the Middle East occupy a unique geographical position as lying between and linking the three continents of the Old World. We may therefore expect that cultural influences from all three continents will be strongly represented. At the same time, whilst some parts of the Middle East are easy of access, and have thus acted for centuries as transit zones, thereby acquiring a mixed culture, there are also extensive areas of difficult terrain—mountain, desert, and swamp, where invaders do not often penetrate, and where ancient languages, religions, and ways of life still persist, largely unaltered and undisturbed.

This contrast between seclusion and openness to outside influence is highly characteristic of the Middle East, and explains why in some parts the population is extremely mixed in racial origin (for example, the "Levantine" of the coasts), and why in other districts it is racially pure (e.g. the Bedouin Arabs or Armenians), and why in some regions there is a modernity of outlook existing alongside ways of life that have persisted with little change since Biblical days. Rapid transition from one way of life to another within a small region is thus a marked feature, and there can be groups of people with traditions, language, religion and racial origins radically different from those of near neighbours. The most outstanding example of this is to be found in the heart of Arabia, where a number of desert tribes living less than 500 miles from Mecca itself remained, until quite recently, only slightly affected by the Muslim faith, though Islam itself had reached out centuries before to overrun and influence countries as far away as Spain, India, and Central Africa.

Racial Grouping. As regards racial origins in the Middle East, we may distinguish firstly a group of people known to anthropologists as the Mediterranean race. This group, fairly short in stature, slimly built, with dark curly or wavy hair, and a generally light brown or "olive" complexion is widespread all over the Mediterranean basin, and further east. A slightly darker variant of this group makes up what we know as the "Arab" peoples, and occurs in its purest form among the inhabitants of the Arabian and north-east

Saharan deserts. This population is probably the earliest to have been established in the Middle East, and forms the bulk of the present-day population in central and western Turkey, Cyprus, Syria, southern Iraq, the peninsula of Arabia, and north-east Africa. Central African (i.e. negroid) influences are dominant in the Sudan and extend to a diminishing degree northward along the Nile Valley. The bulk of Egyptians are not wholly Mediterranean in racial origin, but partake to some degree of African and even Asiatic influences. This seems to have been a feature from very early times.

A second important racial element—characterised by a heavier build, rounder head form, dark and very curly hair, and pronounced features, including a prominent arched nose—is associated with the north and east of the Middle East. This is the type we imply in using the description "Semitic", and it is often applied, sometimes wrongly, to the Jewish people. In fact, these racial characteristics are found in their best developed form amongst the Armenians, and have thus been given the name of Armenoid. Armenoids are found for the most part—in or near the upland regions of the Middle East—the centre and east of Asia Minor, the adjacent Zagros Mountain ranges as far south as the Persian Gulf, the Lebanon, and northern Syria. Substantial intermixture of Armenoids and other races occurs in Cyprus, northern Iraq, Iran, and southern Arabia, including the Yemen.

Briefer mention may be made of other, generally less important racial elements—an Irano-Afghan population, taller and rather fairer; proto-European (even fair Nordic) in parts of Afghanistan, Iran, and the Mediterranean coastlands, negroid characteristics, chiefly due to a long standing slave trade, confined mostly to the south, and finally even a few Mongoloid traits—very occasionally a yellowish skin and slant eyes which may be seen in Turkey and northern Iran.

In Libya there are a few Berber groups that are a survival from an earlier indigenous population, and have clear affinities racially with the Berbers of Algeria. Prior to invasion by Arabs in the 10th and 11th centuries, this older population of Berbers was the predominant group but is now represented only in a few small towns which in racial composition and even language still remain Berber rather than Arab. Aujla, Zuara and Ganan. These Berber groups are of course offshoots or extensions from the main area of Berber speech, that occurs in the hill country and adjacent areas of Algeria, Tunisia and Morocco.

Language Distribution. This is less complex than racial distribution. Arabic, the language of Muhammad, and of comparatively recent origin, was spread rapidly by the Islamic conquests of the seventh to ninth centuries A.D., and has now become universal in Egypt, the Sudan, Arabia, Jordan, Syria, Lebanon, and Iraq. There is a classical form, now understood with some difficulty and (as the language of the Koran) used for religious observance and broadcasting, and various regional dialects. Some of these latter are close to each other in syntax but differ in pronunciation (i.e. differences are of the order of those in English, spoken let us say, in London, Lancashire

or Glasgow, or Massachusetts, Georgia and Nebraska). But in other instances the colloquial forms of Arabic can differ as widely as, say, French, Spanish or Italian, so that intercommunication is difficult.

Farther north, Turkish, a central Asiatic language brought in by the Turkish conquerors of the eleventh century A.D., is current over most of Asia Minor, with extensions into Iran and the U.S.S.R. Turkish was for many centuries written in Arabic characters, but as the sounds of Turkish are not easily adaptable to Arabic letters, Roman (i.e. European) characters have been introduced since 1928. Persian is an Indo-Aryan language with affinities to some European forms of speech, but it is by no means universally spoken throughout Iran—probably by only one-half or at most two-thirds of the population. A variation known as Dari Persian is spoken in Afghanistan, as is the Pashtu language. The hill country from Asia Minor as far east as the Indian frontier is a mosaic of different dialects spoken by various tribal groups. Some of these dialects are remnants of ancient forms of speech that were once more widely current; some are of fairly recent origin; whilst some show relationships to central and eastern Asia. Aramaic, the language of Palestine at the time of Christ, now persists in a modern and altered form only in a few villages near Damascus and Mosul; Kurdish has a fairly wide extension in the hills from central Turkey as far as south-west Iran; and Armenian, owing to the persecution and dispersal of Armenians from their homeland, is spoken in many large towns. Greek is the chief language of Cyprus. In Israel, Hebrew and Arabic are the two official languages, the former predominating. Berber is of course important in North Africa.

Variation of language, as between written and spoken forms of the same dialect and as between families of languages, presents a serious problem at the present time, and is an important factor in the isolation and retarded economic level of several Middle Eastern states. In education, the problem is more complicated, because for a long time practically all modern scientific and technological works were written in English, French, German or Russian, with higher teaching often in the hands of foreigners. To the complication of several indigenous languages within one country was thus added the difficulty of higher instruction carried on by foreigners in their own tongue; and so school and university teaching was frequently enmeshed in the toils of language, and time-tables heavily weighted towards the linguistic side, as an essential preliminary to any other work. Because of the lack of contact, and the smallness of the potential market, which rarely make translation of serious works into Arabic, Turkish or Persian a commercial proposition, only a minority of standard texts from Europe or America could, until very recently, be read in the native languages of the Middle East. This has been a considerable, but not recognised, factor in the cultural and educational separation which has for long existed between the Middle East and other countries. Within the last few years certain governments, notably those of Egypt and Turkey, have tackled the problem, by

sponsoring translation; and UNESCO has also been active in this connection. Another significant change is that with the expansion of general education, there is a greater flow of Middle Easterners abroad, and many of these are now beginning to return as very effective teachers. As well, locally trained Arabic speaking personnel, chiefly of Egyptian origin, but also Palestinian and Syrian Arab, have tended to take up appointments in less developed Arab countries. Thus there is distinctly more general instruction using Arabic as compared with ten or fifteen years ago; and one index of the situation is the growing tendency to replace teaching in English, where it still occurs, by instruction in Arabic. One instance is at Khartoum, where the state university still uses English both for lectures and for examinations. In the view of some, use of Arabic will allow for more effective methods; to others, it will reduce the reading of textbooks (a number of which are available only in a foreign language) and limit the possibility of employing expatriate staff.

Nomads. With much of the Middle East arid or semi-arid, animal rearing plays an important part in the life of the region, with numerous migratory tribes moving regularly in search of fresh pasture. Though the actual numbers of people who live as pastoral nomads are relatively small, their way of life is of great significance, and contrasts sharply with that of the townspeople and peasant cultivators. The impact of desert life and ideas upon neighbouring peoples has from time to time been immense: in a negative aspect giving rise to invasion and destruction, but in a positive way often leading to cultural progress, particularly in the fields of religion and abstract thought. The Old Testament deals continually with the theme of desert against town, and we may recall the words of T. E. Lawrence that the edge of the desert is littered with the relics of religions and ideas developed from the interaction of nomadic and sedentary ways of life. Many of these movements have perished, but a few have gained strength enough to affect the whole world.

The unit among nomads is the tribe—a group that ensures a certain advantage from numbers, yet is small enough to exist within the limits set by a poor environment. Tribal discipline is strong, and direction is in the hands of a leader whose right to rule is based partly on hereditary descent, and partly on personal merit. This system of rule may to some extent explain the general importance of leaders and persons, rather than principles and party doctrines, in the general political life of the present-day Middle East.

The mobility of the nomads, their predilection for raiding and skirmishing, and their scanty material possessions for long made them difficult subjects for any national government that attempted to impose its rule. An unusually vigorous Head of State, such as Reza Shah in Iran, could from time to time successfully break or limit the power of the tribes; but a better policy (followed by the Ottomans, and by several present-day governments) has been to let the nomads go their way, with a minimum of interference. This was the situation until very recently, but the exploitation of oil has been a powerful solvent of ancient

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custom and many former nomads have found sedentary occupations within oilfields or in towns, or as semi settled cultivators using irrigation water paid for or supplied largely by oil revenues. Now, nomadism and tribalism are declining, and are far less of a political difficulty—the aeroplane also provides a new possibility of easy military control. Altogether, perhaps 7 to 10 per cent of the peoples of the Middle East are still predominantly nomadic—1 to 2 million in each of Arabia, Iran and Turkey; 400,000 in Syria, slightly fewer in Iraq 50,000 in Egypt 18,000 in Israel, and perhaps 200,000 in Libya.

One important feature in the sedentarisation of nomads has been land reform schemes by which plots of agricultural land, sometimes even with houses have been made over to former pastoral nomads e.g. in parts of the Nile valley and in the N.E. Caspian provinces of Iran, for such schemes to be successful education in cultivation, and agricultural credit schemes are essentials.

Religious Diversity. Religious divisions are strong within the Middle East; and for many persons religious and sectarian fidelity even replaces nationality, so that it is frequently possible, on asking an Arab to what country he belongs, to receive the answer "I am a Christian", or 'a follower of Islam'. A remarkable feature of the area possibly connected with its geographical function as a meeting place of peoples and ideas is that three great religions of the modern world—Judaism, Christianity and Islam—have arisen within its limits and that others notably Zoroastrianism (now confined almost entirely to the Parsees of Bombay), Manichaeism, and Mithraism (of great influence in the later Roman Empire) should also be associated with the Middle East. The most recent example is the rise of Baha'.

All three of the modern religions have various branches or sects. Little need be mentioned concerning Judaism, except to note that one of the main social problems of the state of Israel is to absorb Jewish immigrants of widely differing backgrounds and religious traditions. Because of the dispersals of Jews in various continents, there have developed Hebrews of Oriental and African affinities, besides the two European groups of northern (Ashkenazim) and southern (Sephardim) Jews. Since the establishment of the State of Israel divergence of view as to the part religion should play in everyday life, and its general relationship with politics have proved intractable questions in the Israel Parliament, and have led to several Cabinet crises.

Christianity in the Middle East is even more widely divided. Geographical separation and the development of regional feeling during and after the end of the Roman Empire resulted in the rise of many cults that varied greatly in dogma, ritual and opinion, and despite the efforts of the early Fathers of Christianity, it proved impossible to reconcile all conflicting views and maintain the unity of Christian peoples. There arose the Greek (or Orthodox) Church, the Roman Catholics (called the Latin Church in the Middle East), the Nestorians who were once widespread from Mesopotamia and Asia Minor as far as India and China,

the Armenians (or Gregorians), Copts, Abyssinians, and Jacobites (or Syrian followers of Jacob Baradeus) and the Maronites (adherents of St. John Maroun). All of these sects came in time to possess complete autonomy, but following the rise of Islam in the seventh century A.D. the fortunes of many of them declined. Numbers of Armenians, Copts, Greeks, Jacobites, Nestorians and others (and the entire Maronite Church) were driven to accept aid from Rome, but at the price of recognising the Pope as their titular head. Thus we have what are termed the Uniate Churches—Armenian, Coptic, Nestorian Catholics, etc.—which further reduced the strength of the older autonomous groups, most of which managed to continue, though no longer of great importance. At present, therefore, we have more than twenty separate Christian sects, some powerful and world wide, others purely local in allegiance. The appearance of Protestant missionaries in the nineteenth century and after has added further to the religious bodies represented, although the number of converts is small.

Division in Islam began on the death of Muhammad. As the prophet designated no successor, most followers agreed that leadership of Islam could pass from any individual to another, according to merit and circumstance. This group came to be known as the *Sunnis*, or Orthodox, and numbers about 90 per cent of all Muhammadans. A minority supported the claims of the next male relative of Muhammad, and these *Muslims* have taken the name of *Shi'a* or Party *Shi'a* adherents are strongest in Iran and the Yemen Arab Republic, in southern Iraq where they form a large minority of the inhabitants and as minorities in Syria, the Lebanon and Turkey. Many sub sects of the Shi'a are known, representing different forms of belief and one such group was for a time a warlike military order, with much power in Syria and Iran. Its head was finally forced to take refuge in India, where his direct descendant is today the Aga Khan. Groups of his followers still remain in Iran and Syria. Many Muslims believe that there will one day arise a Mahdi (Messiah) who will conquer the world for Islam and this circumstance has led to the appearance at various times of leaders who have claimed to be the long awaited incarnation. The instance of the Mahdi in the Sudan in the late nineteenth century will recur to mind and the descendants of the Mahdi who fought at Omdurman still possess much prestige in Sudanese affairs.

The revival during the present century of Wahhabism may briefly be noticed. The Wahhabis, by reason of their dislike of ostentation in religious observance, and their desire to revive the earlier, simpler tenets of the Faith, have been termed the Puritans of Islam. Under the vigorous and skilled leadership of their late head, King Ibn Saud of Arabia, they have risen from obscurity as a desert people to control of most of the Arabian peninsula, and hence domination of the holy cities of Mecca and Medina. One factor in the present Arab disunity is the division on general religious grounds between the Wahhabis, who tend to despise the Muslims of Egypt, Jordan and Syria as lax in observance, and as backsliders in the Faith, and who are in turn criticised as primitive reac-

tionaries. There have also been acute personal differences involving King Ibn Saud, who in conquering Mecca displaced the former ruler, Sharif Husein, a direct descendant of the Prophet. A descendant of the former Sharif rules in Jordan (as also until 1958 in Iraq), hence something of the animosity displayed between Saudi Arabia and its northern neighbours owed its origin to personal feuds.

There are other questions of a general political nature that stem from religious differences within the Middle East. The willingness of outside nations to support various religious groups in their struggle against each other has from time to time led to large-scale intervention. France has championed the cause of the Latin and Uniate Churches, basing many of her claims to influence and territory within Syria and the Lebanon on her long connection with the Uniates, who form the largest single sect in the latter country.

Russia, under Tsarist and Soviet rule alike, has maintained a link with the Orthodox Church, and from time to time Russian bishops visit Jerusalem, where the larger part of Christian shrines are owned by the Orthodox Church. Within the last few years Russia has strongly supported, by means of legal and diplomatic action, Orthodox claims to ownership of property and privileges; and whatever the position within the U.S.S.R., Soviet policy is firmly directed to maintaining the rights and position of the Orthodox Christians within the Middle East. Because of its territorial ownership within Old Jerusalem, Russia could in some respects make a good case for trusteeship of the Christian Holy Places. Britain, rather curiously, has at times supported Muslim groups—sometimes orthodox, sometimes dissident. American interest, though of long standing (as much as a century in one or two localities) was generally much less direct, but over the last ten to fifteen years has greatly expanded. There are now within the Middle East a number of American educational institutions of great influence and standing (for example, the American University of Beirut and the American Colleges of Istanbul). Most of these were founded as Protestant missionary activities, but have since developed into secular institutions covering a wide range of subjects.

One final effect of religious differences may be noted. With the possibilities of appeal to outside assistance, and the internal vigorousness of religious feeling, it has happened that a political *modus vivendi* can be achieved only by a distribution of offices and appointments among the interested religious sects. Thus the Maronites of the Lebanon have in practice the right of nominating the President of the Republic, and a close public eye is kept on the relative number of Muslim and Christian appointments; whilst in Iraq Sunni Muslims, at least until 1958, had a major influence in Cabinet policy, though the majority of the population is Shi'a in adherence.

It is, however, necessary to state that the pattern of religious life in the Middle East is at the present time rapidly altering. Among many, there is a decline of religious belief, with the growth of a secular and

materialist outlook in its place—a phenomenon also prominent in contemporary Europe. Also it is true to say that an opposite tendency prevails in certain groups. Religious brotherhoods of an extremist character, dedicated to subversion and fanaticism have come into prominence over the last few years, and a number of these—the Ikhwan of Egypt, Fidaiyai of Iran, and Tijaniya of Turkey—exert growing political influence. At the same time, however, the traditionally close relationship of religion and politics is tending slowly to change in character, with secular nationalism becoming more and more a feature.

City Life in the Middle East. From very early times, long before Plato commended the city-state as an ideal form of political organisation, town life has exercised a predominant influence in lands of the Mediterranean; and this predominance, amounting to a marked disproportion, has been particularly characteristic of the Middle East. Here, towns stand out as islands of relative wealth, culture and progress in a poor and backward countryside; and it is significant that the two centres that dispute the title of oldest continuously inhabited site in the world are Damascus and Aleppo, whilst the oldest undoubted port is Byblos (modern Jbeil, 20 miles north of Beirut) which from its trade in papyrus gave us the word Bible.

There are several contributing factors in the precocious growth of Middle Eastern cities. Firstly, because of a wide variety in geographical environment—rich oasis or coastal plain, mountain, desert, steppe and forest—there soon arose a diversity of economic production, and hence a need for exchange and market centres. Then too, with frequent warfare and invasion, defence became a necessity, and strong points on mounds or peaks, commanding corridors, defiles and river passages soon developed and gathered around them a township. Examples of former simple tribal strongholds that have evolved into great cities are Aleppo, Ankara, Jerusalem, Mosul and Tabriz, the third city of Iran. Another feature of the Middle East is the number of “planted” towns—sites deliberately planned or designated to be important. Of this nature is Teheran, which before it was chosen as a new capital by the Qajar rulers in 1788 had few functions other than that of a wintering spot for pastoral nomads. Amman was largely uninhabited for several centuries previous to 1880, though the site (Philadelphia) had held importance in Roman times; and there are other towns whose origins can be clearly traced to planned development in early Arab, Roman or Classical Greek times. Alexander the Great, and his successors especially, fostered many new towns and extended others.

It has been a feature of Middle Eastern history that time and time again, small but energetic groups of people have seized power, and for a limited period ruled a large territory. The Hyksos Kings of Egypt, the Medes, Assyrians, Macedonian Greeks, Romans, Arabs, and Ottomans can all be cited as examples; and for each conqueror there soon arose the acute problem of maintaining a hold on defeated but numerically superior subject races, and of spreading the language,

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religion and traditions of the minority ruling group. Most conquerors have found that it was usually easier to dominate the cities, partly for the reason that military operations can be undertaken with more success against the inhabitants of a closely packed town, rather than against the nomads or peasants of trackless steppes, deserts or mountains partly because the towns with their trade could easily be taxed to support military rule, and partly because the population of the cities, polyglot in origin and in touch with outside conditions, could be more often induced to accept a new idea, a new language, or even a new religion. It is no accident that the great evangelical religions of the modern world should have extended from towns—that men first called themselves Christians in Antioch, or that Muhammad could feel that his cause had succeeded when Mecca and Medina acknowledged his rule, or that Jewish ritual should include the phrase "Next year in Jerusalem." We also have the curious position that the towns of the Middle East may often be strikingly different in wealth, in outlook and even in language and religion as compared with the immediate surrounding countryside. The most famous example may be cited from the New Testament as when the inscription on the Cross of Christ indicated the presence of a Latin speaking ruling class, a Greek speaking town and professional class, and an Aramaic-speaking peasantry. Such contrasts are apparent even today, though, of course, involving different languages.

Another feature of Middle Eastern cities is their economic dominance, amounting almost to a stranglehold, in the life of each country. Town merchants are in touch with world markets and can control or "corner" the produce of the rural areas in their own district, for which, owing to difficult transport, they are the only outlet. The strength of the merchants is indicated by the fact that in many Middle Eastern countries there is relatively little, or even in a few instances no direct taxation, most governmental revenue being raised by indirect imposts.

We also find that in most cities there is an important community of wealthy absentee landlords. Unlike that of Europe, the Middle Eastern countryside offers few amenities—rather it is a stronghold of poverty, discomfort and disease, hence landowners tend to remain most of the time in the towns, and visit their estates only rarely, sometimes merely to collect the rents, for which, occasionally, an armed guard may be necessary. The same can be said of religious communities, Christian and Muslim, many of which possess landed estates or which actually control the exploitation of land by tenant farmers. In either case, there is a general flow of money, derived from the country, but spent in the towns, and this provides a living not only for the wealthy, but for artisans, domestic servants, and shopkeepers.

Another feature of town life in the Middle East is the absence, or relatively slight development of traditions of civic government and responsibility. There was little to parallel the growth of the burgher class that became so prominent in parts of Europe.

and hence less of a corporate pride and pattern of local, as distinct from provincial or national interest in problems of rule. The situation is changing in some localities, but the absence of a bourgeois outlook (in its best sense) is still a feature.

Lastly, it is interesting to observe that towns have long tended to dominate Middle Eastern political life. The lure of greater wealth attracts the energetic, dissatisfied, and sometimes turbulent elements from the countryside. Many such immigrants, together with the occupants of city slums who become periodically unemployed because of trade slumps, and also a third element, inexperienced secondary school and university students form a very dangerous combination—the Middle Eastern city mob. Mob violence, awakened at first over a political matter, sometimes assumes a religious complexion directed against minorities and foreigners and among the demonstrators are often groups with few political or religious convictions, but whose aim is to spread disorder so that shops can be broken open and looted. Most Middle Eastern shops in the cities carry iron shutters that can cover the whole of the shop-front at the slightest sign of trouble. A restless underfed proletariat, excited by political and religious issues and inflamed by student agitators can be very menacing in close narrow streets. Even politicians themselves may ultimately go in fear of the tide of disorder that they themselves have had a hand in provoking. Over and over again in Middle Eastern affairs, demonstrators in the streets have swayed or brought about a total change of government, and, as we have seen in 1951 (Egypt), 1956 (the Lebanon), 1958 (Iraq), 1960 (Turkey) and 1963 (Iraq, Syria and Jordan), the dilemma of Pontius Pilate—how far to give way to turbulence in the streets—arises in an acute form at unhappily frequent intervals. The swift explosion of anti American and anti-British feeling, expressed through mob violence in centres as far apart as Kuwait, Benghazi and Tunis, was a feature of June 1967.

A further considerable problem now arises from the exceedingly rapid physical growth of a few urban centres. Cairo, with a population now over four million is not only the capital of Egypt but the largest town of the Mediterranean area and by far the largest city in Africa. "Greater" Teheran is now over two million in population, whilst Beirut and Baghdad are effectively near or beyond the one million mark. Algiers has about one million, about one-quarter of the country's population live in Tunis. This rapid and accelerating growth—placed at six to ten per cent per annum for many large towns—is leading to a concentration of economic power, political influence, and social prestige which poses acute problems of two kinds. Besides the difficulties of providing adequate amenities and methods of administration—the demand for electricity in Beirut is doubling at present every five years, and the traffic problems are monumental—there is also a retrogression of provincial life, with stagnation in more distant parts. The problems associated with the "drift to London" in Britain are repeated in another form in parts of the Middle East.

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By far the greater part of the land surface in the Middle East is either mountain, desert, or swamp, and cultivated areas are extremely small in extent, covering no more than 5 per cent or $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of the total area. Nevertheless, agriculture is the main occupation of at least four-fifths of the inhabitants; and a further proportion of the people is employed in processing the products of agriculture, as cotton and tobacco packers, fruit driers, or canners of fruit, vegetables, and olive oil. It is obvious therefore, that the remaining activities in the Middle East are of relatively restricted extent. Pastoral nomadism is found in many districts, as the only possible way of life in an arid or mountainous environment; but few people are involved, and the nomads live mainly a self-sufficient existence, so that their contribution to general economic activity is greatly limited.

Apart from petroleum, which will be discussed later, mineral resources, though fairly widely scattered and varied in character, are generally small in amount and often difficult to work, so that unless world prices are high, exploitation is uneconomic.

Agriculture. The chief food crops grown in the Middle East are wheat, barley and rye in the north, and millet, maize and rice in the south. Wheat, the chief crop of Turkey, Syria, the Lebanon, Jordan, Israel, Algeria and Tunisia, is of the hard variety, planted in autumn, and harvested in late spring or early summer. Barley is more important than wheat in Libya, Iraq, Morocco and parts of Iran, since it is hardier and more resistant to insects. Rye (with some oats) is restricted to the colder and hillier parts of Turkey and Iran, whilst rice though much prized as a luxury, and also for its very high yield per unit of farm land, needs much heat and abundant water, and is grown only in a few specially fertile and favoured localities—Lower Egypt, southern Iraq, the valleys of southern Turkey, and a few parts of North Africa, especially Morocco. In some countries, because of its demands on irrigation water, and its tendency to spread malaria (owing to the flooded ground) the cultivation of rice is limited by law. Maize is the chief cereal in Egypt, and its cultivation is also greatly extending in Israel. Farther south, towards Arabia and the Sudan, millets of various species become of increasing importance.

In addition to these food crops, which, except for barley, are mostly of indifferent quality and are grown for home consumption only, there is increasing emphasis on cash crops, as communications develop and an export market can be found. Some of the finest cotton in the world is grown in Egypt, where about 20 per cent of the agricultural land is given over to its production, and four-fifths of the total exports are in the form of raw cotton. The same crop is also a chief export of the Sudan. Elsewhere, quality is much lower, but cultivation is spreading, especially in the Seyhan plain of southern Turkey around Adana, in the Aleppo district of Syria, and in parts of Iran.

Tobacco was brought into the Middle East during the sixteenth century, and at the present time there is considerable production mainly in the Black Sea

and Aegean coastlands of Turkey, and in Cyprus. Pure Turkish tobacco is no longer in favour among British and American smokers, but most "Virginian" cigarette and pipe tobaccos contain a small admixture of Turkish leaf; and Central Europe still prefers the unmixed Turkish variety. Many Arab farmers grow small quantities for their own use, but here quality is generally low, except in the district of Latakia, from which there is some export.

The Middle East has an extremely wide variety of fruit. Vines are found both wild and cultivated, and besides their use in Turkey and Cyprus for currants and sultanas, much local wine is made, the best probably coming from Cyprus, the Lebanon and Israel. North Africa is especially favourable for wine-growing, which immigrants from France did much to foster. As a result, quantities of *vin ordinaire* are sold abroad, to France especially, where the local product had to some extent been superseded by the cheaper Algerian wine until pressure from domestic growers forced the government to reduce imports. The U.S.S.R. has recently become a large-scale importer. Citrus fruits are of increasing importance along the north-eastern Mediterranean coast, whilst apricots, figs, peaches and plums are widespread. Olives form a very important part of Middle Eastern diet, since animal fats are scarce, and the poorer fraction of the oil also serves as a domestic illuminant and for soap-making. Other products of some importance are hazel nuts, liquorice, and dates. Dates are a principal article of food in the arid areas of the south—Arabia, southern Iran, and parts of the Sudan. In addition, there is an export on a large scale from the Basra district of southern Iraq, which produces 80 per cent of the world's supply. Nearness to the sea, allowing cheap transport by water, gives Basra a considerable advantage over its competitors in North Africa—though it must also be stated that Algerian dates, and especially those from Biskra, are superior in quality to those from Iraq. Mention must also be made of bananas, citrus fruit and apples, the importance of which has greatly increased in the last few years following expansion of export markets, and demands from the oilfields. In contrast to the "soft" fruits already discussed the three latter types of fruit can be more easily transported without damage, and are also less likely to be carriers of human disease.

Finally, reference may be made to the cultivation of narcotics, opium and hashish, which are respectively the sources of morphine and heroin; and also of qat, which has a very local market. There is a legal and strictly controlled world trade in morphine, and about one-half of the legal supplies come from Turkey; but in addition, quantities above the legal maximum are grown illicitly in the Lebanon, Syria, and Iran, since prices are very high, and supervision lax. There is consequently much temptation in the way of a poor peasant farmer to grow a few plants for sale to the illicit buyer. Qat is grown only on the hill slopes of south-west Arabia, in the Yemen and near Aden and when chewed induces a feeling of euphoria. It can only be used fresh, so for long its consumption was closely limited to the environs of where it could be grown. But now, air transport has allowed wider markets, reaching as far as East Africa, and cultiva-

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tion has increased. Opinion is divided as to the dangers of qat—some hold that it can be regarded as no more than a harmless addiction whilst others believe it to be a dangerous drug. At one time the Government of Aden prohibited its production and sale.

Yields and Levels of Production. In general and with a few conspicuous exceptions, the level of production and quality of crops are low. It has been reckoned that the Middle Eastern farmer is only one eighth to one-quarter as efficient a producer as his counterparts in Western Europe or the U.S.A., and many parts of the Middle East despite an overwhelming emphasis on cultivation and self subsistence, are among the poorest fed in the world.

The reasons for this low level of agricultural productivity are complex. In the first place there are the obvious handicaps of heat and aridity, together with the *resulting effects of this climatic régime upon soil character*. Many Middle Eastern soils are lacking in humus and another difficulty is that when watered copiously by artificial means (e.g. by irrigation) certain soils that would appear to be capable of bearing heavy crops can turn saline and sterile. This is at present a problem in the Nile Delta, where heavy irrigation is tending to induce soil salinity and a number of large irrigation schemes notably round Konya in Anatolia, and along the Karun River of south west Iran, have failed to achieve success for the same reason. In 1949 it was estimated that for the whole of Iraq some 60 per cent of all irrigated land had become salinated to a certain degree and that about 1 per cent of area is abandoned each year. Relatively little would appear to have been done to alter this general situation though the development of the Wadi Tharthar drainage scheme could have some effect when it is fully in operation. The Tigris and Euphrates carry double the quantity of salts near their mouth as compared with upstream above Baghdad. The best remedy is to have extensive underground drains in the fields to prevent accumulation of excess water. This is however expensive and adds greatly to the overall cost of irrigation schemes.

Another limiting factor is the unusually high soil temperature during summer—of the order of 130° to 180° F., which has the effect of destroying organic material within the soil itself and of preventing the efficient use of fertilizers. There is a fundamental problem, as yet not solved, of maintaining soil fertility by artificial means, because the techniques successful in wetter and colder parts of the world do not always answer in the Middle East.

One other source of agricultural loss occurs in the pests and diseases that affect both plants and man. As much as 60 per cent of a year's crops may be destroyed by locusts which breed in the deserts of Arabia, Africa and Somaliland and move as swarms into cultivated areas. In Iraq and Iran the much smaller *swarna* fly causes periodic devastation—one reason for the emphasis on barley growing is that it ripens faster, and hence can be harvested before the arrival of the *swarna* insect in late summer. Scale diseases, rusts and mildew are other handicaps. An encouraging feature is the expansion of activity on an

international scale directed towards locust control. Faced with growing annual losses, Middle Eastern governments are now co-operating not only with neighbours but also with such organizations as FAO and UNESCO in preventative measures.

Equally severe if not actually more damaging are the diseases of man himself. In Egypt serious maladies affect between 75 per cent and 80 per cent of the total population; there are a few local areas in the riverine districts of Iraq, the Lebanon, Syria, Turkey and northern Iran, where the incidence of malaria reaches over 50 per cent and not long ago was up to 90 per cent. Iran is an endemic area of plague, Turkey owing to its colder climate has a tuberculosis rate at least seven or eight times higher than that of Western Europe whilst the southern deserts much less affected by malaria are the stronghold of eye diseases that produce blindness in up to one-quarter of the inhabitants. The riverine areas of Egypt and Iraq are notorious for parasitic infestations—hookworm, bilharzia and ankylostomiasis—and it would appear that yellow fever is gradually spreading from Central Africa northwards towards the Sudan. Cholera, smallpox, typhoid and venereal diseases are prevalent in the towns with dysentery (usually of a relatively mild form) an almost ubiquitous feature especially affecting newcomers. Despite this depressing list, it is also true to say that with better public health measures and a start in the provision of clean drinking water, the rate of incidence of all these diseases is beginning to show a marked drop.

The high incidence of disease is an important contributing factor in the low level of agricultural efficiency, since it reduces the peasant's physical capacity for sustained work, and also dulls his mental faculties, thus making it more difficult to introduce better methods and new ideas. Many Middle Easterners possess the minimum of physical strength that will just suffice to carry them through a moderate day's routine, and there arises a vicious circle—the peasant is diseased and cannot work hard, his yield is therefore precarious and he is hence the victim of frequent malnutrition, which makes him the more susceptible to disease. Malaria alone has been cited as a principal cause of backwardness at the present day in many areas of the Middle East and it would also appear that the decay of the once brilliant Arab civilization can be attributed in part to the spread of the disease.

Again, however, it must be noted that successful measures have been taken in many areas to reduce or eradicate the malarial mosquito and conspicuous, though uneven improvements in public health have resulted. Twenty years ago mosquito nets were always provided in the better hotels; now they are hardly to be seen.

Another element in preventable ill health is the so-called Pharaonic circumcision of girls which is prevalent in the Sudan and neighbouring regions of East Africa. This is a form of mutilation which often results in permanent ill health for those subjected to it and by reason of its widespread occurrence and association with religious beliefs is a principal social problem, but at the same time, one that is not easily eradicated.

Yet another factor in agricultural backwardness are the methods of land holding, and forms of tenancy. Full ownership, with the possibility of applying long-term methods of improvement, is not frequent among Middle Eastern farmers—instead, there are various forms of share-cropping or tribal ownership, which collectively tend to perpetuate old, wasteful methods, to emphasise conservatism in outlook, and to make it extremely difficult for an individual to introduce any innovation. Holdings are often small and scattered, so that modern ploughs, tractors, or reaping machinery cannot easily be introduced; and owing to extremely high rents and dues, amounting in some instances to 65 per cent of the total yield of the holding, the peasant farmer is entirely lacking in capital for improvements, and remains dependent on his landlord for seed and even implements. Land reform schemes now in progress in several countries, notably Iran, Syria and the U.A.R., are altering this picture, but they do not affect all areas. When they do become more widespread there is a risk that production will decline initially, owing to the lack of capital and knowledge of new techniques of the new owners.

A further feature of Middle Eastern farming is the existence of numerous absentee landlords, who invest money in land purely as a safe outlet for surplus capital, and have no real interest in farming itself. Such owners live mainly in the towns, and delegate control of their agricultural estates to overseers, being satisfied if the same level of production is maintained from one year to another. Such owners are not often willing to sink capital in new methods or machines, but are content to perpetuate existing methods. Because of the lack of outlet for investment in most Middle Eastern countries—movable property may be stolen, paper securities may be repudiated, and foreign currency, particularly the franc, lira, and pound sterling have depreciated—real property represents a fairly safe long-term investment that cannot easily depreciate.

In recent years, many Middle Eastern governments have made attempts to improve the position by redistribution of holdings, and enactments limiting the total area of land held by one individual. This has had some good effect, but in some cases the laws have been loosely applied, or even remained a dead-letter; and ways of ignoring or circumventing them have further reduced their efficiency. Extensive handing over of Crown land to peasant ownership in Iran, followed by the redistribution to peasant ownership on a national scale of all large estates, and the organization of Liberation Province in Egypt, mainly from expropriated and irrigated land, are outstanding but by no means the only large-scale examples of re-allocation of big estates. In Iran, the process has been so energetically and fully pursued as to invite the description "White Revolution".

It is also necessary to state that despite all the handicaps noted above considerable progress has been achieved in certain restricted areas of the Middle East. In parts of the Nile Valley, yields per acre of one or two crops are among the highest in the world; and in Israel a remarkable development of mixed

farming based on cereals, vegetables and animal husbandry has transformed conditions in many areas. Much the same could be said of parts of Cyprus, until the Greek-Turkish conflict retarded agricultural progress. The influence of French and Italian settlers in North Africa and Libya respectively was to demonstrate what might be done to improve yields and methods. Turkey, too, has experienced considerable agricultural development in certain directions over the last twenty to thirty years. Such ameliorations stand, however, in sharp contrast to conditions elsewhere in the Middle East.

Industrial Activities. In medieval times Middle Eastern industrial products had a high reputation. Steelwork, silverware, pottery, leather, and above all, textiles (from Damascus and Mosul, giving the words damask and muslin) found their way into many parts of Europe. At the present time, however, the scale of Middle Eastern industries is small; lack of fuel (particularly of coal and hydro-electric power), scarcity of mineral ores and some other raw materials, and the poverty of local markets being severe limiting factors. There is only one coalfield of any great importance—this is in north-west Turkey, at Ereğli (Heraclea), and production is only 6–7 million tons per annum; whilst very much smaller amounts are produced from fields in the region of Teheran.

In recent years a significant degree of industrial development has, however, taken place in Egypt, Turkey, Israel and Iran, with some industry on a smaller scale in Iraq, the Lebanon and Syria. Some industrial activity, on a smaller scale, and related chiefly to production of building materials, processing of agricultural produce, or the limited treatment of mineral ores for export, has developed in North Africa. Textiles—chiefly cotton, but also silk, wool and mohair—are important, together with the transformation of agricultural products (sugar, tobacco, fruit processing and distilling) and the making of cement and bricks, for which there is a considerable local demand.

A further feature has been the growth of light consumer industries. Acute shortages during the Second World War impelled many Middle Eastern governments to try to develop local manufactures, even where local conditions were not outstandingly favourable; and over the last fifteen years there has been a marked growth of new power stations, factories and mills, detailed instances of which can be found in the economic sections. Heavy capital goods such as machinery and vehicles are still imported on a large scale, though there are now assembly plants for motors and electrical machinery in Turkey, Iran, Israel and Egypt, with plans for similar plants, e.g. in the Lebanon, Syria and Iraq. Since 1960, however, there have been the beginnings of local manufacture of motors (in Egypt and Israel) and other machinery. Industrial expansion is marked in Egypt, Israel, Turkey, the Lebanon and Iran, especially the first two; and the last few years have seen the start of petro-chemical industries in Egypt, Israel, Kuwait and Iraq, based on local supplies of oil. In many places, however, restricted size of the potential market, and competition of foreign produced goods (it is cheaper to import

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Indian cement, for instance, in parts of the Oman Gulf inhibit industrial development on a large scale.

Petroleum Resources. The general geological factors involved in the occurrence of petroleum have already been touched on but it remains to add that there are a number of features special to the Middle East. Exploration has been retarded by the presence of what may be described as misleading surface structures—in some places the possibility of finding oil was at first entirely discounted (as in Saudi Arabia) whilst in others leakages of oil to the surface have given rise to optimism that has not always been justified. Moreover, the oil fields are often of extraordinary large size and the oil is held under considerable pressure, so that very few wells need be sunk to tap a large area and the crude oil often rises of itself without much pumping—factors that allow an unusually low cost of production. The open nature of the country, as compared with the *jungle of the East Indies* and the mangrove swamps of Venezuela has been another favourable circumstance. Hence the cost of production of Middle Eastern oil is distinctly lower than that of oil from the U.S.A., the Caribbean, and from South-east Asia both in terms of actual production costs and in terms of capital investment. Increasingly pointed comment is made from time to time regarding this disparity in costs which as the selling price of most oil is based on American costs means a higher rate of profit on Middle East oil for the exploiting companies. Petroleum development is dealt with in more detail in the section 'Oil in the Middle East' on page 33.

One important factor in oilfield development has been the utility of pipelines. Broadly speaking as compared with sea transport via the Cape or the Suez Canal a pipeline can move oil more cheaply from the Persian Gulf to the Mediterranean and hence countries through which pipelines pass have been able to exact substantial royalties and other payments. Increasing demands of this nature (together with political troubles) have led to suggestions of developing alternative routes (e.g. through Turkey) events since 1956 having demonstrated the vulnerability of European consumers dependent on a single pipeline route.

Another factor that is receiving considerable prominence is the price of Middle Eastern oil. As we saw above cost of production is lower than that for Western Hemisphere oil but the world price has been fixed in relation to the latter. In recent years—particularly since the formation of the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) in 1960—the Middle Eastern countries have become increasingly aware of this and have frequently insisted on renegotiation of their oil concession agreements. The production targets for the various countries are also decided upon after consultation with their governments who normally expect a steady increase in revenues to balance their growing expenditure.

PRESENT-DAY PROBLEMS

In the context of a rapid survey it is possible to do no more than hint at a few acute issues which exert a

profound influence on current trends in the Middle East. These issues may be summarised as population pressure, the question of finding a reasonably equitable basis for the distribution of wealth between social classes, political leadership, and the cultural crisis within Islam.

The population problem arises as the result of a high birth rate together with a fairly high death rate which is now in some parts declining rapidly, as the result of improvements in public health. There are, in consequence, an increasing number of survivors producing a population growth of the order of 3 per cent annually in Turkey, and about 2 per cent in Egypt (c. 0.3 per cent for England and Wales). Between 1900 and 1967 the population of Turkey grew from approximately 9 million to 34 million producing an annual increase now of just under one million. Even an increase of 2 per cent per annum in population can if unchecked lead to a doubling of numbers in less than forty years. So long as food supplies can be increased at a commensurate rate, either by farming within the country, or by an expansion of industry and commerce that can pay for imported food, the position is without danger; but it is in fact difficult to maintain a continuous improvement in agriculture and industry of 2 per cent per annum, particularly under Middle Eastern conditions. Hence, there are signs of severe pressure of numbers on resources—in a few parts of the Nile Valley there are now over 6 000 persons per square mile living by agriculture—with a resulting decline in standards of living. As regards Turkey, FAO has said that the situation calls for a "truly heroic" agricultural programme and that "many farm animals are so seriously underfed that it is surprising they stay alive". Another economist suggests that the production of foodstuffs has actually fallen within Egypt during the last thirty years despite a growth in population numbers. Under such conditions it is not difficult to suggest a possible relationship between the current demographic situation of an underemployed underfed but increasing proletariat and the disturbed political conditions of many parts of the Middle East.

A second group of problems arises from the social inequality that is a feature of many Middle Eastern countries. There is the large mass of the poor, and a small number of wealthy families with few of a "middle class". At present it is fair to say that the gap between the groups is widening rather than closing, as the standard of living of the poor remains the same, or even falls and that of the rich rises rapidly, owing to profits from high world prices in cotton, tobacco and, above all, in petroleum. Equally significantly, the appearance of western luxuries—large automobiles, wireless refrigerators, furs and luxury hotels—tends to increase the visible gap between rich and poor. Until 1918, an Arab who lived ostentatiously risked the vigorous attentions of the Ottoman tax-collector; today, the wealthy Arab is himself often closely connected with the government, and can manipulate its fiscal policy closely to his advantage. We have noted that the larger proportion of the revenues of Middle Eastern states is usually derived

from indirect taxation of necessities such as food and clothing—a system that bears heaviest on the poorer classes.

A third problem concerns the political organization in certain Middle East states. By temperament and experience, many Middle Easterners incline to personal and authoritarian forms of rule. Nomadic and pastoral ways of life tend to throw up individuals of much prestige and personal leadership; and even in religion—as indicated by the importance of prophetic revelation in Islam and Christianity—there is a tendency to respect the man equally with, if not more than, the principle. In consequence the idea of Parliamentary democracy, introduced after 1920 partly in deference to the Western European views, has had a limited and uncertain extension. The average man has tended to be impatient of rule by general consent, as expressed through Western democratic methods, preferring to follow a single individual of superior appeal and ability. Where such a figure has not been forthcoming, there has been acquiescence in rule by a caucus or oligarchy. In this situation, the importance of armed services is very great. As the final repository of physical power—only artillery, tanks, and aircraft can really control a large dissident mob—the army leaders especially come often to be the final arbiters in a struggle for power. Moreover, as something of a meritocracy in which able officers can most easily rise from humble origins to positions of power, the armed forces in the Middle East have often come to a centre of evolved middle-class, or even radical, opinion essentially different from the bourgeois attitude of the merchant groups.

Saudi Arabia is ruled by an absolute monarch; and for the twenty years preceding 1940 Turkey and Iran were ruled by despots. In more recent times, there has been a partial rejection of democracy on the western pattern in countries where parliaments existed, and the last few years have seen a tendency towards a recrudescence of personal rule, the outstanding instances being in Egypt and Iraq. Parliamentary government seemed fairly strongly developed in Turkey until about 1955, but later events have suggested a return to the now normal pattern within the Middle East.

The widest problem of all concerns the cultural crisis within modern Islam. Until the end of the Middle Ages, Islamic culture was vigorous, and in many respects more advanced than that of Europe. Islamic thought greatly influenced the West, with a parallel superiority, or at least equality, in the political sphere. Since that time, however, there has been a considerable decline in power and intellectual strength: large-scale political penetration and domination from Europe began in the nineteenth century, and for several centuries material standards of life have no longer approximated to those of the West. There has, as a result, been much speculation in the Arab world upon the reasons for this decline. Three broad points of view can be discerned. There are those who see no good prospect in a continuance of Islamic traditions, and so wish to follow new ways of life—either Christian and western, or, less clearly, new

materialistic doctrines, one ultimate expression of which may be Communism. At the opposite extreme are those who suggest a return to a stricter form of Islam; and this policy is followed at the present time to a varying extent in Saudi Arabia and Algeria. Then there is a third group of intermediates, whose position is perhaps the most difficult of all, since they wish to combine modernity with a maintenance of internal traditions. How far exactly can one go in this respect? And too often an attempt at combining widely diverse elements leads to superficiality, a rejection of fundamentals and a real understanding of neither aspect. We therefore have the phenomenon of the 'angry young Arab'—given more and more to rejection of existing ways and now actively critical of the failure of leadership over Palestine, and of inequalities in and lack of opportunity for economic advancement. He has an increasing sense of frustration which becomes more and more vocal with the spread of literacy.

POLITICAL AND ECONOMIC IMPORTANCE

Having made a cursory survey of Middle Eastern lands and their resources, it is now possible to attempt a summary of conclusions. We may recall once again what was said concerning the geographical position of the Middle East as the land connexion between three continents; from this situation has arisen its main role in the world—as an intermediary between the nations of Europe, Asia, and Africa, both in the economic and cultural spheres. Sometimes this historic function has been discharged purely, so to speak, as an agent or middleman, without any indigenous contribution—as when, for example, silk, sugar, citrus fruit, paper, gunpowder, and the compass were introduced from Further Asia into Europe. At other times, a technique or an idea has been received or developed in the Middle East, expanded there into a great movement, and transmitted elsewhere. One may cite, for example, the system of garden irrigation brought by the Arabs to Spain, which is still a highly productive element in Spanish agriculture, or the religions of Christianity and Islam, or the scientific ideas of the Greeks and Hindus, which were preserved throughout the Dark Ages of Europe and later made available to the West through the works of Muslim commentators.

With the discovery of the sea route to India in the fifteenth century, the importance of the Middle East as a transit area greatly declined, but since the opening of the Suez Canal, and the growth of air communications, the situation has once more altered. We are at present witnessing a return to the ancient position in a modern guise, with air and sea routes largely contributing to a revival of prosperity. It is no accident that Beirut should have been chosen as one of the fuelling stages for the first all-jet air liner service from Britain to South Africa, or that Cairo should be served by so many international air-lines. Because of its central geographical position, a climate that is in the main exceptionally favourable for air navigation, and its level open topography (at least, in the south) the Middle East has become a nodal centre of air traffic. In a broader sense still, there has been a

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major shift of political influence in the world. For several centuries power and wealth were largely concentrated in north-western Europe, but since 1900 the rise of America and Russia, the independence of India, the revival of China, and the dependence of Europe on foodstuffs imported from Australasia and Africa have brought about an expansion of global relations. The Middle East, situated at the cross roads of the world has begun to profit once more from its central position.

One feature due in large part to geography is potential as a tourist centre. It is probable that currently north-west Europe is experiencing a small climatic oscillation towards cooler, rainier summers hence with "guaranteed" sunshine, excellent beaches, and considerable archaeological and human interest certain parts of the Middle East have been able to develop a growing tourist attraction. New hotels, amenities and sports stadia are under construction and given stable political conditions, this activity could well develop much further in the next few years not merely for one season, but through a large proportion of the whole year.

POLITICAL ASPECTS

Similarly, there have been shifts in political fortune since the First World War. In 1916 the allocation of almost the entire Middle East as spheres of influence for European powers—Britain, France, Russia, Italy and Greece—had been agreed on. Treaties were actually in existence envisaging a territorial division which would have left only a fraction of Asia Minor under autonomous local rule.

From that apparent high water mark of Western influence, there has been a considerable decline, but the interest of external powers in the Middle East continues, fostered by the petroleum resources and strategic geographical location of the area.

At the same time there has been a parallel rise in nationalist feeling, helped on partly by differences among interested European powers and the skill with which these were exploited by Middle Eastern governments, and partly by the growth of internal wealth in the states themselves. This process became particularly vigorous after 1949, when from being a small marginal producer of in the main low quality commodities, the Middle East became an important world supplier of petroleum, cotton, tobacco, wool and cereals.

The main element in the present day politics of the Middle East is the existence of the state of Israel. To most Arabs, the creation first of a National Home for Jews and later of a Jewish State was a clear demonstration of hostility toward the Arab world on the part of Britain, France and America—a view which the events of 1956, and then of 1967, seemed only to confirm. As the Arabs see it, Western patronage of Zionism was a Machiavellian device to disrupt the Arab Middle East and there can be no real friendship or understanding with the West until support for Zionism is disavowed. Moreover, uncertain of their own strength, Arab governments have increasingly turned to the USSR for support against Zionism and its

patrons. At times too it has been possible to take advantage of American divergence in policy from that of Britain and/or France (e.g. over oil concessions, Algeria, Cyprus and Suez). Moreover, the Middle East may offer a counterpoise to the forces balanced within the other southern extremity of Asia—in Viet-Nam especially. Thus the present situation in many ways resembles that of the pre 1914 Balkans, with a number of small and antagonistic states manoeuvring between independence and "protection" from a great power in the background. But the Balkans never possessed more than half the world's oil.

ECONOMIC ASPECTS

In the economic sphere, it is more difficult to present a clearly defined picture. There is the unique asset of petroleum which has already transformed ways of life in areas where it is exploited, and brought unexpected wealth to port terminals such as Abadan, Bahrain, Tripoli (Lebanon), Banyas, Sidon, Kuwait and Benghazi. A striking inequality has consequently developed between various countries. Those actually producing oil have substantial extra wealth, and can embark on schemes of improvement with at some time the possibility of a relatively unfettered foreign policy. Next in order come the non-producers with locational advantages—pipelines, good harbours or oil refineries. These countries can profit in a minor way from petroleum exploitation, but a ceiling is set by the cost of alternative transport. If too much is demanded by way of transit dues, the oil traffic could be re-routed either via Suez (when the Canal is open), the Cape of Good Hope or even by alternative pipeline routes such as that now completed from Eilat on the Gulf of Aqaba to Haifa, or from Iran to the Mediterranean via Turkey.

The relationships of foreign exploiting companies have undergone much change since the 1920s when approximately 16 per cent of oil revenue was paid over to native governments, and companies had almost extra territorial legal and fiscal rights. As was stated above, the prevailing rate is at least 55-60 per cent of gross revenue to the state, with further concessions such as employment guarantees, fixed quantities of cheap oil locally, and stringent fiscal control by the local government. One problem remains—the corroding effect upon native society (especially at highest levels) of sudden and easy wealth.

As regards agriculture and industry, the position is less satisfactory. Though there are certainly richly endowed spots (especially parts of the Nile Valley), the Middle East is on the whole a poor area, condemned by aridity and scantiness of resources to a marginal place as a producer. Nevertheless, the last twenty years have seen significant increases, particularly in Egypt, Iran and Turkey, which are now undoubtedly in numbers and wealth the leading states of the Middle East.

Though an agricultural country, Turkey in 1920 imported almost one half of her foodstuffs; most of the few public utilities were foreign-owned; and modern industry could hardly be said to exist. Following

several phases of development (the last of which from 1947 onwards amounting almost to an agricultural revolution) Turkey is almost self-sufficient in food, and in favourable years since 1950 has even exported wheat. Foreign ownership has been very greatly reduced, and a variety of light industry created. At first much of this activity was state-sponsored and owned, but since 1950 there has been a partial denationalization of industry.

Progress in Egypt has also been considerable. The careful use of river barrage systems has made the lower Nile valley one of the most productive agricultural areas in the world, with highest unit yields in maize and sugar, and highest quality in cotton. Intensity and quality of farming are unrivalled elsewhere in the Middle East, though there are ominous signs that future progress will be difficult—almost all the Nile water is now in use, and more and more fertilizers must be imported. Also, war periods greatly stimulated the growth of local industry, which, until the 1952 revolution, had always been on a capitalist, *laissez faire*, basis. Textiles are most important, but the increased wealth of the upper and middle classes has provided a market for light consumer goods that is now largely supplied within the country. An outstandingly important development will be the full implementation of the Aswan High Dam project which besides adding one-third to the present total of cultivated land in Egypt, is to provide electric power for heavy and light industry on a very considerable scale, at prices comparable with those of Europe.

Israel had certain advantages when she began the desperate task of attempting to support relatively large numbers in a poor environment at high standards of life. There were the energy and skill of its European-trained population; an over-riding determination to make a success from unpromising beginnings, much machinery imported from Europe (Hitler allowed refugees from Nazi Germany to take plant, but not capital), and financial support from outside, chiefly the U.S.A. The country is not richly endowed—though mineral deposits (oil, natural gas, copper and phosphates) on a relatively small scale have recently been discovered—and transport is difficult. Moreover, most of the south is arid, and good agricultural land is everywhere severely restricted. A further handicap has been the determination to maintain European rather than Arab levels of wages—a matter in which powerful Trade Unions are involved. The advances achieved both in agriculture and industry have been very great but some restriction of consumption of food and clothing is still necessary, and there is a severe adverse balance of trade with exports amounting to only one-half or in some recent years, one-quarter of imports. In consequence, despite stringent controls, and great efforts to expand production, loans from abroad are still vital to the Israel economy, and unemployment on a moderate scale had come to be a problem before the 1967 War. Since then, however, the Israeli economy has enjoyed a sustained boom.

Iran has a long tradition of craft industry, especially in wool; and there are varied mineral deposits,

including coal. With the exception of petroleum, however, these deposits are scattered, small in amount, often of low grade. Within the last few years, however, there has been a considerable degree of industrial growth in Teheran city, which now has an industrial quarter that produces a wide range of consumer goods and building materials, especially bricks. The construction of a gas-grid from Gach Saran to Shiraz, and then farther north, will be a further impetus to development.

Until recently there was hardly any industry of any kind in Iraq, in distinct contrast to many of its neighbours. But since 1945 oil revenues have been allocated to a national Development Board, which has fostered the development of communications and agriculture, and begun to plan some industrial activity. Now, in addition to the processing of agricultural products, there is some textile manufacturing (chiefly cotton and rayon), a little light engineering, and a small chemical industry. Plans are in hand to expand these, especially the last. Agriculture is less developed than in Egypt, owing in part to the difficult nature of the two rivers, which have been more difficult to control and develop for irrigation. Since 1954, however, with the completion of Wadi Tharthar and other flood control and irrigation projects, the situation has changed, and large areas of good land which have hitherto remained unused can now be developed.

At one time, Syria was the most industrialized province of the Ottoman Empire, with Aleppo second only to Constantinople in size. Loss of markets since 1918 has hampered but not destroyed the textile and metal manufactures of Aleppo and Damascus, and there are a small number of other industrial activities. Agriculturally, Syria has developed greatly since 1945. The irrigated "Fertile Crescent" has been expanded, and parts of the Euphrates valley brought back into cultivation for the first time in many centuries. Syria is self-sufficient in cereals, and exports these, together with raw cotton, to her less well-placed neighbours, the Lebanon and Jordan. The cotton is used both in the Middle East and in central Europe and Japan. The building of a dam across the Euphrates east of Aleppo has been under consideration for some time, with German interests involved, and this, if constructed, could greatly assist Syrian development.

The Lebanon, like Israel, has severe natural handicaps. The rugged nature of the hills, which occupy most of the country, and aridity in the east greatly limit cultivation, and there are no mineral resources. Dependent on the import of foodstuffs, the country nevertheless has a considerable transit traffic, with the intelligence, adaptability and highly developed commercial sense of its people as the chief assets of the country. There is an international trade in gold, and Beirut (with three universities) has become a major cultural centre for the entire Middle East. Tourism could also become much more important.

Jordan, with almost no sea outlet, is in a very different situation. Most of the country is either arid or covered by bare sheets of lava—the only cultivable areas are west of the Jordan (Israeli-occupied since June 1967), in the Judean uplands, and around

THE MIDDLE EAST—(AN OUTLINE OF ITS PHYSICAL AND SOCIAL GEOGRAPHY)

Amman Nomadic pastoralism is the only possible activity over much of the country—though the exploitation of substantial phosphate deposits provides a further source of occupation. An artificial territorial unit with very few resources. Jordan is hardly a viable unit, and has depended on outside subsidies, at present provided by Britain, the U.S.A. and, since 1967, by Saudi Arabia, Kuwait and Libya.

A somewhat similar situation obtained in Libya until very recently where, despite the imposing size of territory, cultivated land is restricted to certain districts near or along the coast, together with a few inland oasis settlements. Now, discoveries of oil on a large scale are rapidly transforming the situation, and there is marked growth, especially in towns such as Benghazi and Tripoli.

The Arabian peninsula is, so to speak, a stage beyond Libya. Before 1940 the territory was possibly the poorest in all the Middle East—only scattered oases with a largely nomadic population. Now the economic situation has been completely transformed, Saudi Arabia and Kuwait are, with Iran, the largest oil producers in the area by a considerable margin, and the small sheikdoms along the Persian Gulf are also becoming major contributors. The immense oil revenues have financed lavish public works and welfare programmes, but the ease with which all imports needed for the small population can be paid for has reduced the incentive to develop the peninsula's other resources.

Cyprus though small, had (at least until the Emergency) a very good agricultural system (over 55 per cent of the total area is used—a figure far higher

than in any other Middle Eastern country), and there are small but useful deposits of iron, copper and asbestos. Given stable internal conditions, Cyprus could be one of the most prosperous parts of the Middle East.

Lastly, North Africa is still suffering from the effects of colonial rule. The efforts of prolonged and bitter warfare, the withdrawal of French "colons" who contributed in predominant measure to the more highly developed economic activities, and the resulting disequilibrium in an economy that until independence was strongly integrated with that of France—all these will take time to dissipate. Whilst over and above, there is the desperate need to provide for the rapidly growing numbers of inhabitants with the concomitant problem of greater imbalance between urban and rural areas—a declining countryside, resulting in a fall off in agricultural production, and congestion at declining levels of subsistence in the larger towns.

The most hopeful element is the presence of substantial mineral resources. Oil and gas could be used in part directly as fuel for industry, and revenues from exports might be directed to an expansion both of home manufacturing and improved agricultural techniques. Hydro-electricity is another possible source of energy, and this could foster *inter alia* more methodical exploitation and treatment of metallic mineral resources. At long term, the problem is also one of transferring the liability of an underemployed and growing population into the economic asset of a large pool of labour and consumer demand.

W B F

THE ARABIAN PENINSULA

PHYSICAL AND SOCIAL GEOGRAPHY

The Arabian peninsula is a strongly marked geographical unit, being delimited on three sides by sea—on the east by the Persian Gulf and Gulf of Oman, on the south by the Indian Ocean, and on the west by the Red Sea—and its remaining (northern) side is occupied by the deserts of Jordan and Iraq. This isolated territory, extending over more than one million square miles, is, however, divided politically into several states. The largest of these is Saudi Arabia, which occupies over 900,000 sq. miles; to the east and south lie much smaller territories where suzerainty and even actual frontiers are in some instances a matter of doubt. Along the shores of the Persian Gulf and Gulf of Oman there are first the State of Kuwait, with two adjacent patches of "neutral" territory; then, after a stretch of Saudi coast, the island of Bahrain and the Qatar peninsula, followed by the seven small "Trucial" states and the much larger state of Oman. The People's Democratic Republic of Yemen (composed of the former British colony of Aden and British protected South Arabian Federation) occupies most of the southern coastline of the peninsula. To the north of it, facing the Red Sea, lies the independent state of Yemen. The precise location of frontiers between these states and Saudi Arabia, which adjoins them all, is still in some doubt, and atlases show varying positions. The granting of oil concessions and continued discoveries of oil may ultimately lead to a more accurate delimitation.

PHYSICAL FEATURES

Structurally, the whole of Arabia is a vast platform of ancient rocks, once continuous with north-east Africa. In relatively recent geological time a series of great fissures opened, as the result of which a large trough, or rift valley, was formed and later occupied by the sea, to produce the Red Sea and Gulf of Aden. The Arabian platform is tilted, having its highest part in the extreme west, along the Red Sea; and it slopes gradually down from west to east. Thus the Red Sea coast is often bold and mountainous, whereas the Persian Gulf coast is flat and low-lying, being fringed with extensive coral reefs that make it difficult to approach the shore in many places.

Dislocation of the rock strata in the west of Arabia has led to the upwelling of much lava, which has solidified into vast barren expanses known as *harras*. Volcanic cones and flows are also prominent along the whole length of the western coast as far as Aden, giving peaks that rise well above 10,000 ft. The maximum height of the mountains is attained in the south, in the country of the Yemen, where summits reach 14,000 ft.; and the lowest part of this mountain wall occurs roughly half-way along its course, in the region

of Jeddah, Mecca, and Medina. One main reason for the presence of these three towns is the geographical fact that they offer the easiest route inland from the coast, and one of the shortest routes across Arabia.

Further to the east the ancient platform is covered by relatively thin layers of younger rocks. Some of the strata have weathered away to form shallow depressions; others have proved more resistant, and now stand out as ridges. This central area, diversified by shallow vales and upstanding ridges and covered in many places by desert sand, is called the *Najd*, and is spoken of as the homeland of the Wahhabi sect, which now rules the whole of Saudi Arabia. Farther east still practically all the land lies well below 1,000 ft. in altitude, and both to north and south lie desert areas. The *Nefud* in the north has some wells, and even a slight rainfall, so life is possible for a few oasis cultivators and pastoral nomads. But south of the *Najd* lies the *Rub' al-Khali*, or Empty Quarter, a rainless unrelieved wilderness of shifting sand, too difficult for occupation even by nomads.

Though most of the east coast of Arabia (termed *al-Hasa*) is low lying, there is an exception in the imposing ridge of the *Jebel Akhdar* of Oman, which also produces a fjord-like coastline along the Gulf of Oman. One other feature of importance is the presence of several large river valleys, or *wadis*, cut by river action at an earlier geological period, but now almost, or entirely, dry and partly covered in sand. The largest is the *Wadi Hadhramaut*, which runs parallel to the southern coast for several hundred miles; another is the *Wadi Sirhan*, which stretches from the *Nefud* north-westwards into Jordan.

CLIMATE

Because of its land-locked nature, the winds reaching Arabia are generally dry, and almost all the area is arid. In the north there is a rainfall of 4 to 8 inches annually; further south, except near the coast, even this fails. The higher parts of the west and south do, however, experience appreciable falls—rather sporadic in some parts, but copious and reliable in the Yemen. There are even small, regularly flowing streams in the higher parts of the Yemenite mountains, but none manages to reach the sea. The *Jebel Akhdar* (Green Mountain) of Oman, as its name indicates, also has more rainfall than the surrounding districts.

Because of aridity, and hence relatively cloudless skies, there are great extremes of temperature. The summer is overwhelmingly hot, with maxima of over 120° F., which are intensified by the dark rocks, whilst in winter there can be general severe frost and even weeks of snow in the mountains—sheepskins are worn

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in the Yemen. Another feature, due to wide alternations of temperature, is the prevalence of violent local winds. Also, near the coast, atmospheric humidity is very high, and this makes living conditions extremely unpleasant. The coasts of both the Red Sea and Persian Gulf are notorious for their humidity.

Owing to the tilt of the strata eastwards, and their great elevation in the west, rainfall occurring in the hills near the Red Sea apparently percolates gradually eastwards, to emerge as springs along the Persian Gulf coast. This phenomenon, borne out by the fact that the flow of water in the springs greatly exceeds the total rainfall in the same district, would appear to indicate that water may be present underground over much of the interior. Hence irrigation schemes to tap these supplies have been developed, notably in Najd at al Kharij. Results are, however, fairly limited.

ECONOMIC LIFE

Over much of Arabia life is dependent on the occurrence of oases. Many wells are used solely by nomads for watering their animals, but in some parts, more especially the south, there is some regular cultivation. The Yemen in particular has a well-developed agriculture, showing a gradation of crops according to altitude, with cereals, fruit, coffee and *gaf* (a narcotic) as the chief products. Other agricultural districts occur in Aden and the Hadhramaut (in Yemen P.D.R.) in Oman, and in the large oases of the Hijaz (including Medina and Mecca). Despite this, however, it must be emphasized that in the main, conditions in

Arabia are harsh, and human life depends for existence partly on resources brought in from outside—the revenues from pilgrimage, trading by dhow in the Indian Ocean, or trading in the East Indies. A major change in the economy of Saudi Arabia and the Persian Gulf states has taken place following the exploitation of oil, the revenues from which are transforming these states, and *inter alia* allowing the import of food for Arab oil workers.

RACE

The inhabitants of the centre, north, and west are of almost unmixed Mediterranean stock—lightly built, long headed, and dark. In coastal districts of the east, south, and south west intermixture of broader-headed and slightly heavier peoples of Armenoid descent is a prominent feature, and there has been some exchange of racial type with the populations on the Persian shores of the Persian Gulf and Gulf of Oman. Owing to the long-continued slave trade, negroid influences from Africa are also widespread. On this basis it is possible to delimit two ethnic zones within Arabia: a northern, central and western area, geographically arid and in isolation, with a relatively unmixed racial composition, and the coastlands of the south, south-west, and east, showing a mixed population.

LANGUAGE

Arabic is the only language of Arabia. Unlike many other parts of the Middle East European languages are not current.

HISTORY

ANCIENT AND MEDIEVAL HISTORY

Although there is some support for the belief that Arabia was at one time a land of great fertility, there is little evidence of this in historical times. For the most part Arabian history has been the account of small pockets of settled civilisation, subsisting mainly on trade, in the midst of an ocean of nomadic tribes whose livelihood was derived mainly from camel-breeding and raiding. The earliest urban settlements developed in the south-west, where the flourishing Minaean kingdom is believed to have been established as early as the twelfth century B.C. This was followed by the Sabaeen and Himyarite kingdoms, which lasted with varying degrees of power until the sixth century A.D. The term "kingdom" in this connection implies rather a loose federation of city states than a centralised monarchy. As an important trading station between east and west, southern Arabia was brought into early contact with the Persian and Roman empires, whence spread the influence of Judaism, Zoroastrianism, and later Christianity. Politically, however, the south Arabian principalities remained independent, though there was an abortive Roman expedition in A.D. 24, and two brief periods of Abyssinian rule in the fourth and sixth centuries A.D.

By the end of the sixth century the centre of gravity had shifted to the west coast, to the Hijaz cities of at-Ta'if, Mecca and Medina. While the southern regions fell under the somewhat spasmodic control of the Sasanid rulers of Persia, the Hijaz grew in independence and importance as a trade route between the Byzantine Empire, Egypt, and the East. From the fifth century onwards Mecca was dominated by the tribe of Quraish, through whose extensive commercial activities influences from Byzantine, Persian, Aramaic and Judaic sources began to make themselves felt. Meanwhile the central deserts remained obstinately nomadic, and the inhospitable east coast formed for the most part a corner of the Persian sphere of influence.

It is not necessary here to relate in detail the events that led to the spectacular outbreak of the Arabs from the Arabian peninsula and their political and social domination within a century of an area extending from Spain to northern India. Ostensibly the driving force behind this great movement was the Islamic religion preached by Muhammad, a humble member of the Quraish tribe; and so powerful was its appeal that not only was the faith itself widely adopted, but even the language of its holy book, the Koran, has left an indelible impression on the speech of all the peoples it reached.

But this flowering and development of Arabism was to proceed for the most part outside the confines of the Arabian peninsula itself. The Islamic unification of the Near and Middle East reduced the importance of the Hijaz as a trade route. Mecca retained a unique status as a centre of pilgrimage for the whole Muslim world, but Arabia as a whole, temporarily united under Muhammad and his successors, soon drifted

back into disunity. The Yemen was the first to break away from the weakening Abbasid Caliphate in Baghdad, and from the ninth century onwards a variety of small dynasties established themselves in Sanaa, Zabid, and other towns. Mecca also had its semi-independent governors, though their proximity to Egypt made them more cautious in their attitude towards the Caliphs and the later rulers of that country, particularly the Fatimids of the tenth to twelfth centuries. In Oman in the south-east a line of spiritual Imams arose who before long were exercising temporal power; to the north the Arabian shores of the Persian Gulf provided a home for the fanatical Carmathian sect whose influence at times extended as far as Iraq, Syria, Mecca, and the Yemen.

THE OTTOMAN PERIOD

Arabia continued to be restless and unsettled until the beginning of the sixteenth century, when the whole peninsular came nominally under the suzerainty of the Ottoman Sultans at Istanbul. It was a hold that was never very strong, even in the Hijaz, while in Oman and the Yemen native lines of Imams were once again exercising unfettered authority before the end of the century. More important for the future of the peninsula was the appearance of European merchant adventurers in the Indian Ocean and the Persian Gulf. The Portuguese were the first to arrive in the sixteenth century, and they were succeeded in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries by the English, Dutch and French. By the beginning of the nineteenth century Britain had eliminated her European rivals and had established her influence firmly in the Persian Gulf and to a lesser extent along the southern coast.

The political structure of Arabia was now beginning to take the shape it has today. The Yemen was already a virtually independent Imamate; Lahej broke away in the middle of the eighteenth century, only to lose Aden to Britain in 1839 and to become the nucleus of the Aden Protectorate. To the north of the Yemen was the principality of the Asir, generally independent, though both countries were occupied by the Turks from 1850 to the outbreak of the Great War. The Hijaz continued to be a province of the Ottoman Empire. In 1793 the Sultanate of Oman was established with its capital at Muscat, and during the nineteenth century all the rulers and chieftains along the Persian Gulf coast, including Oman, the sheikhdoms of the Trucial Coast, Bahrain and Kuwait, entered into close and "exclusive" treaty relations with the British Government. Britain was principally concerned to prevent French, Russian and German penetration towards India and to suppress the slave and arms trades.

Meanwhile the Najd in the centre of Arabia was the scene of another upheaval with religious inspirations. The puritanical and reforming Wahhabi movement, launched in the middle of the eighteenth century, had

by 1800 reached such strength that its followers were able to capture Kerbela and Najaf in Iraq, Damascus in Syria, and Mecca and Medina in the Hijaz. They were defeated by Muhammad Ali of Egypt, acting in the name of the Ottoman Sultan, in 1817-1818 and again in 1838, but the Wahhabi ruling house of Sa'ud continued to rule in the interior. Towards the end of the century they were in danger of being eclipsed by the Shammar line of Rashid to the north, who had Turkish support, but in 1902 Abd al Aziz ibn Sa'ud, the late ruler of Saudi Arabia, succeeded in recapturing the Wahhabi capital of Riyadh, and by the outbreak of the Great War was master of the whole of central Arabia including the Hasa coast of the Persian Gulf. In 1910, with the aim of reviving the ideals of the Wahhabi movement, he established the *Ikhwan* or Brethren and proceeded to settle them in colonies throughout the Najd, thus forming the basis of a centralized organization that was to prove a powerful instrument in later years.

MODERN HISTORY

When Turkey entered the war on the side of Germany in October 1914 Arabia inevitably became a centre of intrigue, if not necessarily of military action. British influence was paramount along the eastern and southern coasts, where the various sheikhs and tribal chiefs from Kuwait to the Hadhramaut lost no time in severing their last slender connections with the Ottoman Empire. On the other hand, the Turks had faithful allies in Ibn Rashid of the Shammar to the north of the Najd, and in Imam Yahya of the Yemen, they also retained their garrisons along the west coast, both in the Asir, whose Idrisi ruler was impelled by his long standing enmity with the Imam of the Yemen to intrigue against them, and in the Hijaz, where Sharif Hussein of Mecca still acknowledged Ottoman suzerainty. In the centre Ibn Sa'ud, who had accepted Turkish recognition in 1913 of his occupation of the Hasa coast, was in close and friendly relations with the Government of India.

British military strategy developed as the war dragged on into a two pronged thrust against the Turks from Egypt and the Persian Gulf. In the implementation of this plan opinions were divided on the extent to which use could be made of the Arab population. The Indian Government on the eastern wing, while favouring the pretensions of Ibn Sa'ud, preferred to see the problem in purely military terms, and opposed any suggestion of an Arab revolt. Thus, however, was the scheme favoured by the Arab Bureau in Cairo whose views eventually prevailed in London. They were alarmed at the Ottoman declaration of a *Jihad* (Holy War) and possible repercussions in Egypt and North Africa. Negotiations were started at a very early stage with Arab nationalist movements in Syria and Egypt but these met with comparatively little success. More progress was made when the British negotiators turned their attentions to the Sharif of Mecca, Hussein, member of the Hashimi family that had ruled in Mecca since the eleventh century. The support of such a religious dignitary would be an effective counter to Turkish claims.

Hussein was inclined to favour the Allied cause, but was reluctant to act independently, and it was only after he had elicited from the British (in the MacMahon correspondence) promises which he believed would meet Arab nationalist aspirations that he decided to move. On June 5th, 1916, he proclaimed Arab independence and declared war on the Turks. By November things had gone so well that he felt able to claim the title of King of the Hijaz. Military operations continued throughout the winter, and in July 1917 the port of Agaba was captured and the Hijaz cleared of Turkish troops except for a beleaguered and helpless garrison in Medina.

Arabia thereafter remained comparatively peaceful and was not even greatly disturbed by the complicated post war political manoeuvres in the Middle East. Hussein played a somewhat ineffectual role in maintaining the Arab point of view at the peace conferences and over the allocation of mandates, and as a result forfeited the favour of the British Government. When, therefore, he was unwise enough to challenge the growing power of his old enemy Ibn Sa'ud, he found himself entirely without support. Ibn Sa'ud's stature had been steadily growing since the end of the war. In November 1921 he had succeeded in eliminating the house of Ibn Rashid and annexing the Shammar, and a year later he was recognized by the Government of India as overlord of Ha'il, Shammar and Jawf. On March 5th, 1924, King Hussein laid claim to the title of Caliph, vacant by the deposition of the Ottoman Sultan. His claims were nowhere recognized, and Ibn Sa'ud, declaring him a traitor, overran the Hijaz in a campaign of a few months, captured Mecca and forced Hussein's abdication. Hussein's eldest son, Ali, continued to hold Jeddah for another year, but was then driven out, and on January 8th, 1926, Ibn Sa'ud proclaimed himself King of the Hijaz, so formally marking the Saudi Arabian kingdom (See SAUDI ARABIA chapter, *History*).

OIL DEVELOPMENT

To a large extent the history of the remaining parts of the Arabian peninsula (with the exception of Yemen—see chapters on the Yemens) in modern times is the history of the Middle East oil industry.

A British syndicate had secured the Bahram oil concession as early as December 1925, but after three years the rights had been transferred to the American Standard Oil Company of California. Even then it was nearly four years before the Bahram fields were proved and the immense possibilities of Arabian oil opened up. In May 1933 Standard Oil of California secured a concession on the mainland from Ibn Sa'ud, and in December 1938 oil was struck in commercial quantities at Dammam. At the same time an Anglo-American group consisting of the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company and the Gulf Oil Corporation had obtained a concession in Kuwait, where oil was discovered in commercial quantities in February 1938. From 1935 onwards the Iraq Petroleum Company, obtained exploration concessions in all the protectorates and sheikhdoms along the eastern and southern coasts of

Arabia, but little practical progress was made. When war came in 1939 to interrupt further activities there was as yet little practical evidence of Arabia's great future as an oil-producing zone.

With the ending of the war in 1945, the oil industry rapidly became the most important economic fact in the peninsula. A full account of developments in Saudi Arabia and Kuwait will be found elsewhere (see separate chapters). Other important producers are Qatar, Bahrain, and the Saudi Arabia/Kuwait Neutral Zone, while in 1961 Abu Dhabi joined their ranks amid a chorus of optimistic forecasts. In November 1964 the Shell Group announced the start of com-

mercial production in Oman. There is also considerable exploitation of off-shore deposits, notably off the coasts of Kuwait and Qatar. In April 1959 the first Arab Petroleum Conference in Cairo was attended by representatives of nearly all the Middle Eastern oil-producing states, with the exception of Bahrain. Since then conferences have been held annually in various Middle Eastern cities.

(NOTE: For subsequent developments in the Arabian Peninsula, see separate chapters on the Gulf States, Kuwait, Oman, Saudi Arabia, Yemen Arab Republic and Yemen People's Democratic Republic.)

L.P.E.-S.

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THE HOLY PLACES

The Middle East has seen the rise of numerous civilizations and is the source of the three principal monotheistic faiths of the world—Judaism, Christianity and Islam. For each religious community certain places have assumed special sanctity by virtue of their association with leading teachers and prophets. Many localities associated with the major figures and events in the history of the principal religions are venerated alike by Christian, Muslim and Jew. This is especially true of Jerusalem.

So numerous are the places held in religious respect throughout the area covered by this book that it has only been possible to list those which are of outstanding importance to each community. Certain centres, such as Mecca and Jerusalem, have established procedures by which their major festivals are celebrated, and some attempt has been made to describe these where appropriate.

ISLAM

Mecca: Saudi Arabia. Birthplace of Muhammad and associated traditionally with Abraham, Mecca has become the foremost holy city of Islam. To this city Muhammad himself made a pilgrimage the year before his death, so initiating the Islamic ruling that each Muslim, if able, must make one pilgrimage to Mecca in the course of his life. The city and the sacred area of some miles about are prohibited to non-Muslims.

In the centre of the vast courtyard of the Great Mosque stands the Ka'ba, Islam's most venerated building, said to have been founded by Abraham. Its square granite walls are draped with richly embroidered carpets, in its south east corner is set Abraham's black stone. The Great Mosque with the unique seven minarets, begun in A.D. 638 by Omar ibn al-Khattab to protect the Ka'ba, and many times developed since then, has been substantially enlarged and strengthened since 1952 during the government's extensive rebuilding programme.

The Hajj. This great pilgrimage is an annual celebration of the life and faith of Abraham, who is highly regarded as 'the friend of God' and first Muslim. Most pilgrims—over one million each year—make their visit in the month of Duhlegga (Jan/Feb approximately in 1972 see Chapter *Calendars and Time Reckoning*). Each adopts the *Ihram* consisting of two white cloths signifying the equality of all in the eyes of Allah. Entering the city by the 7th day of Duhlegga the pilgrims take part in the customary preliminaries which entail circling the Ka'ba seven times, endeavouring to kiss the sacred black stone and later running seven times between the nearby twin hills of Safa and Marwah, recalling Hagar's desperate search for water for her child Ishmael. (It is from Ishmael that the Arabs claim descent.) On the 8th of Duhlegga pilgrims leave the city for Mina, a small town six miles to the east, before sunrise next day (Day of Pilgrimage) all make for the plain below Mount Arafat, about twelve miles east of Mecca, where they pass the day in meditation until sunset. This point is the climax of the pilgrimage, when the whole gathering begins the return journey to Mina. On the 10th of Duhlegga (*Id al Adha*, Day of the Feast of the Sacrifice) begin three days of rejoicing. Pilgrims must first perform the rite of stoning the devil, represented by three pillars in the main street of Mina. This symbolises Abraham's triumph over the temptation to disobey God's command

to sacrifice his son, Ishmael. Many pilgrims then sacrifice a sheep to commemorate God's subsequent mercy. Before completing the Hajj each pilgrim must cut a lock of his hair and pay a final visit to Mecca.

Medina (City of Light) Saudi Arabia. The city became a sanctuary at the instigation of Muhammad, who spent the last ten years of his life there and whose tomb is in the Mosque of the Prophet. The tombs of Fatima, Abu Bakr and Omar are nearby. Frequently damaged and restored, the present building of the mosque was finished by the government in 1955.

Jerusalem (Arabic El Makuds—The Sanctuary) Israel. Jerusalem has become Islam's third holy city as it shelters the traditional site of Abraham's sacrifice and of the Ascension of Muhammad. Abraham's rock is enshrined in the magnificent Dome of the Rock Mosque, founded on the traditional site of Solomon's Temple on Mount Moriah by Abdel Malik in A.D. 691. The mosque whose restoration was only recently completed stands in the centre of the huge courtyard occupying the south east corner of the Old City.

Hebron: Israel. Occupied Jordan. The Mosque of Abraham is built upon the Cave of Machpelah which traditionally contains the tombs of Abraham and Sarah, Isaac and Rebecca, Jacob and Leah. This shrine is equally revered by Muslims and Jews, and is also important to Christians.

Kairouan: Tunisia. The city is regarded as a sanctuary and one of the gates to Paradise because of its Great Mosque of Sidi Okba, founded in A.D. 671 by Emir Okba on his camp site (*kairouan*) to be a "bulwark of Islam".

Chinguetti: Mauritania. An ancient centre of Islamic learning, which still possesses an important Islamic library.

THE SHI'IS

The Shi'is allow the obligatory Muslim pilgrimage to Mecca to be substituted by a pilgrimage to the tomb of a Shi'a saint. Saints have a far more important place in the religious life of the Shi'is than of other Muslims. The following shrines are especially important to this sect.

Meshed: Iran. The city contains the shrine of Imam Reza, eighth Imam of the Shi'is, for whom Meshed is the main centre, drawing some hundred thousand pilgrims each year. The tomb is surrounded by many buildings with religious associations, including tombs of Khajjah Rabi and Nader Shah, Gowarshad Mosque, and Do'Dareh, Parad and Bala-sar Theological Schools.

Qum: Iran. Venerated particularly for the shrine of Hazrat Masoomeh, sister of Imam Reza, the city holds tombs of several kings and hundreds of saints, notably including Shah Safi, Shah Abbas II, Imam Zadeh Ali ibn Jafar, and Imam Zadeh Shahzadeh Ibrahim.

Hajal: Iraq. The shrine containing the tomb of Ali, the son in law of Muhammad, draws many pilgrims.

Karbala: Iraq. The Mosque of Sayedina Hussain houses the mausoleum of Hussain, the son of Ali, killed here in A.D. 680. On the Feast of Ashura the Shi'is commemorate the anniversary of Hussain's death by passion plays and processions in which religious emotion reaches a high pitch.

Samarra: Iraq. The Great Mosque extending over ten acres with a famous tower surrounded by a spiralling outer staircase is a major shrine.

Baghdad: Iraq. The Kadhemen Mosque, whose minarets are covered with gold leaf, contains the tomb of Musa el-Kadhim, a descendant of Muhammad.

CHRISTIANITY

Bethlehem: Israeli-occupied Jordan. The traditional birthplace of Jesus is enclosed in the Basilica of the Nativity, revered also by Muslims. Christmas is celebrated here by the Roman and Eastern Rite Churches on December 25th, by the Greek Orthodox, Coptic and Syrian Orthodox Churches on January 6th and 7th, by the Ethiopian Church on January 8th, and by the Armenian Church on January 19th. The tomb of Rachel, important to the three faiths, is just outside the town.

Jerusalem: Israel. The most holy city of Christianity has been a centre for pilgrims since the Middle Ages. It is the seat of the patriarchates of the Roman, Greek Orthodox and Armenian Churches, who share the custodianship of the Church of the Holy Sepulchre and who each own land and buildings in the neighbouring area.

The Church of the Holy Sepulchre stands on the hill of Golgotha in the higher north-western part of the Old City. In the central chamber of the church is the Byzantine Rotunda built by twelfth century crusaders, which shelters the small shrine on the traditional site of the tomb. Here the different patriarchates exercise their rights in turn. Close by is the Rock of Calvary, revered as the site of the Crucifixion.

Most pilgrims devoutly follow the Way of the Cross leading from the Roman Praetorium through several streets of the Old City to the Holy Sepulchre. Franciscan monks, commemorating the journey to the Crucifixion, follow the course of this traditional route each Friday; on Good Friday this procession marks a climax of the Easter celebrations of the Roman Church.

Outside the Old City stands the Mount of Olives, the scene of Jesus' Ascension. At the foot of its hill is the Garden of Gethsemane which is associated with the vigil on the eve of the Crucifixion. The Cenaculum or traditional room of the Last Supper is situated on Mount Zion in Israel.

Nazareth: Israel. This town, closely associated with the childhood of Jesus, has been a Christian centre since the fourth century A.D. The huge, domed Church of the Annunciation has recently been built on the site of numerous earlier churches to protect the underground Grotto of the Annunciation. Nearby the Church of St. Joseph marks the traditional site of Joseph's workshop.

Galilee: Israel. Many places by this lake are associated with the life of Jesus: Cana, scene of the miracle of water and wine, which is celebrated by an annual pilgrimage on the second Sunday after Epiphany; the Mount of Beatitudes; Tabgha, scene of the multiplication of the loaves and fish; and Capurneum, scene of the healing of the Centurion's servant.

Mount Tabor: Israel. The traditional site of the Transfiguration, which has drawn pilgrims since the fourth century, is commemorated by a Franciscan Monastery and a Greek Basilica, where the annual Festival of the Transfiguration is held.

Jericho: Israeli-occupied Jordan. The scene of the baptism of Jesus; nearby is the Greek Monastery of St. John the Baptist.

Nablus (Samarra): Israeli-occupied Jordan. This old town contains Jacob's Well, associated with Jesus, and the Tomb of Joseph.

Qubeibeh (Emmaus): Israeli-occupied Jordan. It was near this town that two of the Disciples encountered Jesus after the Resurrection.

Azariah (Bethany): Israeli-occupied Jordan. A town frequented by Jesus, the home of Mary and Martha, and the scene of the Raising of Lazarus.

Mount Carmel: Haifa, Israel. The Cave of Elijah draws many pilgrims, including Muslims and Druses, who celebrate the Feast of Mar Elias on July 20th.

Ein Kerem: Israel. Traditional birthplace of John the Baptist, to whom a Franciscan church is dedicated; nearby is the Church of the Visitation.

Ephesus: Turkey. The city, formerly a great centre of pagan worship, where Paul founded the first of the seven Asian Churches. The recently restored Basilica, built by Justinian, is dedicated to John the Evangelist, who legend claims died here; a fourth century church on Aladağ Mountain commemorating Mary's last years spent here now draws an annual pilgrimage in August.

JUDAISM

Wailing Wall: Jerusalem, Israel. This last remnant of the western part of the wall surrounding the courtyard of Herod's Temple, finally destroyed by the Romans in A.D. 70, is visited by devout Jews, particularly on the Fast Day of the 9th of Av, to grieve the destruction of the First and Second Temples which had once stood on the same site.

Mount Zion: Israel. A hill south-west of the Old City of Jerusalem, venerated particularly for the tomb of David, acknowledged by Muslims as Nebi Daoud. (The Jebusite hill on which David founded his Holy City is now known as Mount Ophel, and is in Jordan, just to the east of the modern Mount Zion). Not far from the foot of the hill are the rock-cut tombs of the family of King Herod.

Cave of Machpelah: Hebron, Israeli-occupied Jordan. The grotto, over which was built a mosque, contains the tombs of Abraham and Sarah, Isaac and Rebecca, Jacob and Leah.

Bethlehem: Israeli-occupied Jordan. The traditional tomb of Rachel is in a small shrine outside the town, venerated also by Muslims and Christians.

Mount Carmel: Israel. The mountain is associated with Elijah, whose Cave in Haifa draws many pilgrims. (See Christianity section).

Safad: Israel. Centre of the mediaeval Cabbalist movement, this city contains several synagogues from the sixteenth century associated with these scholars, and many important tombs, notably that of Rabbi Isaac Louria.

Meiron: Israel. The town contains the tombs of Shimon bar Yohai, reputed founder in the second century of the mediaeval Cabbalist movement, and his son Eleazer. A yearly Hassidic pilgrimage is held to the tomb to celebrate Lag Ba'Omer with a night of traditional singing and dancing in which Muslims also participate.

Tiberias: Israel. An ancient city containing the tombs of Moses Maimonides and Rabbi Meir Baal Harness. Famous as an historical centre of Cabbalist scholarship, it is with Jerusalem, Safad and Hebron, one of the four sacred cities of Judaism, and once accommodated a university and the Sanhedrin.

THE HOLY PLACES

OTHER COMMUNITIES

ZOROASTRIANS

Yazd: Iran. This city was the ancient centre of the Zoroastrian religion and was later used as a retreat during the Arab conquest. It contains five fire temples and still remains a centre for this faith of which some 35 000 adherents live in Iran. The modern centre of Zoroastrianism is Bombay.

SAMARITANS

Mount Gerazim: Jordan. The mountain is sacred to this small sect, who celebrate Passover here. The Samaritan High Priest lives at Nablus.

DRUZES

Hittin: Israel. The traditional tomb of Jethro, known as Nebi Shueib, is by the Horns of Hittin. The Feast of Nebi Shueib is celebrated each year by a pilgrimage to the tomb, beginning on 25th April, followed by dancing and rejoicing.

BAHA'I

Haifa: Israel. Shrine of the Bab and Baha'i temple and gardens, world centre of the Baha'i faith. Pilgrims visit this centre, and one in Acre where Baha'ullah was imprisoned on the anniversaries of the birth and death of Bab and Baha'ullah.

THE TENETS OF ISLAM

Islam is more than a religion, i.e. a body of religious dogma and belief. It determines also the character of the Muslim state and of Muslim society, of Muslim law, thought and art—it is in fact a civilization in which religion is the fundamental and dominating factor, to a degree far greater than is true of Christianity in relation to the civilization of Europe and the New World. In its contact with the West, especially between the ninth and twelfth centuries, Islam made valuable contributions to science and philosophy and, by transmitting to the West, in the form of Arabic translations which were subsequently rendered into Latin, much of the legacy of ancient Greece, helped to foster some of the basic elements of Western civilisation.

Pre-Islamic Arabia. At the time of the prophet Muhammad—in the early part of the seventh century A.D.—the people of Arabia were given to paganism and idolatry.

The Prophetic Message. The essence of Muhammad's prophetic message can be discerned in his insistence on the oneness of God (Allah), on the wickedness of idolatry and on the imminence of divine judgement. He sought to bring to the Arabs an Arabic revelation such as other peoples had been granted earlier in their own languages—but a revelation which was also the final unveiling of the Word of God to mankind. He came with scripture and guidance to his people, and gave to them the Koran and a new way of life, thereby awakening and redirecting the hidden forces of an Arab "national" revival and expansion.

Essence of Islam. The essence of Islam can be divided into two parts: Faith and Practice. Faith consists of the six articles of belief:

- (1) The Unity of God.
- (2) The Angels.
- (3) The Inspired Books.
- (4) The Inspired Prophets.
- (5) The Day of Judgement.
- (6) The Decrees of God.

It is, however, true to say that the simplest and universally accepted formula of Islam is that "There is no god but God (Allah), and Muhammad is the Prophet of God". Practical religion consists in the observation of the five practical duties:

- (1) The recital of the Creed. (There is no god but God, and Muhammad is the Prophet of God.)
- (2) The five stated periods of prayer. (From dawn to sunrise, on the decline of the sun, between the decline of the sun and sunset, a few minutes after sunset, and when the night has closed in.)
- (3) The payment of the legal alms. (This payment is a religious tax mentioned in the Koran.)
- (4) The thirty days of fast in the month of Ramadan. (Ramadan is the ninth month in the year, observed as a month of fast from dawn to sunset on each day.)
- (5) The pilgrimage to Mecca. (The pilgrimage to Mecca in the twelfth month of the Muhammadan year is a religious duty of every Muslim, and constitutes one of the pillars of Islam.)

The Koran. The sacred book of Islam is written in the Arabic language and divided into 114 suras. The Prophet himself, through the revelation of Allah, divided the book into the suras and gave them their present titles. Only after Muhammad's death was a definitive redaction of the Koran made by order of the Caliph Othman (644-656).

SCHISMS, RELIGIOUS MOVEMENTS AND COMMUNITIES OF ISLAM

Greed for power, and tribal and personal jealousies together with genuine divergencies in viewpoint brought about discord in Islam, which resulted in its ultimate break-up into sects and schisms, of which some of the more notable are listed below:

Sunnis. The Sunnis hold that the first four elected Caliphs were the rightful successors of Muhammad, and they accept the practice and sayings of the Prophet as preserved in the recognised books of tradition. They follow one or other of the four schools of jurisprudence (madhahib) concerned with the interpretation of the Shari'a, i.e. the Sacred Law of Islam. These schools are called, after their respective founders, the Hanafi, Shafi'i, Maliki and Hanbali madhahib. The Sunnis form the largest sect in the world of Islam.

Shi'is. The Shi'is are those who maintain that Ali was the first and rightful Caliph or Imam of Islam and true successor of Muhammad. The orthodox Shi'is recognise the following as the rightful Imams:

- (1) Ali, son-in-law of the Prophet.
- (2) Hassan, son of Ali.
- (3) Hussein, second son of Ali.
- (4) Ali II, son of Hussein.
- (5) Muhammad al Bakir, son of Zainu.
- (6) Ja'far as Sadik, son of Muhammad al Bakir.
- (7) Abu'l Hassan Musa al-Kazim, son of Ja'far as Sadik.
- (8) Ali III, son of Abu'l Hassan Musa al-Kazim.
- (9) Abu Ja'far Muhammad, son of Ali III.
- (10) Ali IV, son of Abu Ja'far Muhammad.
- (11) Abu Muhammad al-Hassan Ibn Ali al-Askari, son of Ali IV.
- (12) Muhammad al-Mahdi, son of Abu Muhammad al-Hassan Ibn Ali al-Askari. (It is the belief of the Shi'is that he is still alive and is to reappear in the last days before the Day of Judgment.)

Up to the present the last Imam is represented on earth by the doctors of law, whose opinions are final in all spiritual matters and State affairs. The Shi'a faith is the national religion of Iran.

Isma'ilis. Like the orthodox Shi'is, the Isma'ilis profess loyalty to Ali, but do not agree to the accession of Abu'l Hassan Musa al-Kazim, son of Ja'far as Sadik, to the Imamship. They hold that Isma'il, the eldest son of Ja'far as Sadik, is the rightful person to succeed his father as Imam. The Isma'ilis recognise a series of visible Imams after Muhammad, the son of Isma'il. Some recognise the Aga Khan as the present Imam, others hold that the Imam went into concealment in the twelfth century.

Wahhabism. Wahhabism was a reform movement within Islam—a movement of rigid puritanism which, in the name of the pure and primitive Islam of the first Muslim century, deplored and condemned subsequent developments in belief and ritual as innovations alien to the true Islam. Its founder, Muhammad Abu'l Wahhab, born in 1703, urged the propagation of the true faith in an age when corruption, dissipation, and idolatry were prevalent. He and his followers adhered to the Hanbali school of jurisprudence. Later this movement came under

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THE TENETS OF ISLAM, THE BAHÁ'Í FAITH

the protection of the chief of the House of Saud in the person of Abdu'l Azíz under whose leadership Wahhabism spread throughout Arabia. Saud the son of Abdu'l Azíz led the Wahhabi army successfully against the Turks and later capturing Mecca held that city for nine years. On his death in 1814 his son was defeated by the forces of Ibrahim Pasha but the Wahhabist movement remained strong and spread to other Muslim countries. In recent times under the leadership of the Kings of Saudi Arabia Wahhabism has considerably increased in strength and importance and is now the keeper of the holy places of Islam.

Druzes. The Druzes are an heretical Isma'ili sect established in the Lebanon and Syria. Their name (Ar. Duruz) derives from the Persian missionary al Darazi who brought about their conversion to belief in the divinity of the Fatimid Caliph al Hakim who died in 1021. The origins of this quasi Muslim sect and the reasons for its subsequent expansion are still obscure. Hamza is the author of the religious books of the Druzes. This community acknowledges one God and believes that he has revealed himself to mankind on many occasions. His last appear-

ance was in the person of Hakim and he is finally expected to appear on earth in the person of Hamza, the only mediator between divinity and the people. The Druzes have played a valiant and notable part in the political and social life of their country and are renowned for their independence of character.

Sufism. With Sufism mysticism was introduced into Islam. The name is thought by some to have arisen from the Arabic word for wool (Suf) and the garments of this material that were worn by Eastern ascetics. Sufis are divided into numerous religious orders but all agree in the submission to the Inspired Guide. The principal religious doctrine of the Sufis is the belief in the existence of God in all things and that all beings are an animation from Him. God is the real author of all acts committed by man, therefore man is not free in his actions. The Sufis hold that the soul of man comes before the body and returns to the divinity after death. Sufism endeavours to inspire its followers to lead a good and just life to practice meditation and prayer to bring about the desired spiritual union with the divinity. Through its mysticism Sufism has been a source of inspiration to much literature.

THE BAHÁ'Í FAITH

Baha'ism made its appearance in Persia during the middle of the nineteenth century. It was founded by Baha'u'llah who after a revelation in Baghdad in 1863 declared himself to be the Promised One. A member of the Persian nobility he devoted his life to preaching against the corruption then endemic in Persian society and as a result spent many years in exile. He died at Acre in Palestine in 1892. The faith was administered by his descendants until 1957 the 56 national branches now elect the present governing body the Universal House of Justice.

Baha'ism claims complete independence from all other faiths. Its followers believe that the basic principles of the great religions of the world are in complete harmony and that their aims and functions are complementary. Other tenets include belief in the brotherhood of man, the abolition of racial and colour discrimination, the equality of the sexes, progress towards world government and the use of an international language, monogamy, chastity and the encouragement of family life. There is no Baha'i priesthood and asceticism and monasticism are discouraged. Most of the Middle Eastern adherents of the faith live in Iran or Israel.

ISLAMIC LAW

The Divine Law (Sharia) is the religious law of Islam, adhered to in all lands of the Muslims. In its practical application the Sharia enters into everything in the life of the faithful, from the humblest details of everyday life to the highest spiritual issues. Jurisprudence in Muslim law points towards theology as its ultimate base. The fundamentals of Islamic law are found in the word of God, the Traditions, the Consensus, and the Analogies. Among the Sunnis four schools of law—Hanafi, Maliki, Shafi'i, and Hanbali—exist.

The Hanafi School. Abu Hanifa and two of his disciples (Abu Yusuf Ya'qub al-Ansari and Muhammad as Shaibani) are the founders of the Hanafi doctrine. Followed by Muslims in Afghanistan, Central Asia, and other Islamic countries, this doctrine is practical and humane in its application and allows for changes of conditions in admitting that the requirements of law change with the times.

The Maliki School. The doctrines of this school are followed in North-West Africa and in the Sudan. This school recognises custom to the extent that customary usage has the power of law. Much power is vested by this school in the head of the family with regard to property of wife and children.

The Shafi'i School. Established mostly in Southern Arabia and in Egypt, the doctrine of this school is very conservative and uncompromising in its attitude to custom.

The Hanbali School. Operating mainly in Saudi Arabia, the tenets of this doctrine are well suited to the puritanical reform movement of Wahhabism.

Shi'a Schools. Rejecting the authority of the first three Caliphs after Muhammad, the Shi'is have their own traditions and give the authority of law-making to their doctors of law, who represent the authority of the Imam on earth.

Civil Courts. In the modern States of the Islamic world there exists, side by side with the Sharia court (judging cases of personal status, marriage, divorce, etc.), the secular court which has a wide jurisdiction (based on modern codes of law) in civil and criminal matters. This court is competent to give judgment irrespective of the creed or race of the defendant.

Islamic Law as Applying to Minorities. In cases of minorities (Christian or Jewish) residing as a community in Muslim countries, spiritual councils are established where judgment is passed according to the law of the community, in matters concerning personal status, by the recognised head of that community.

Tribal Courts. In desert areas of countries where a proportion of the population is still nomadic, tribal courts administer law and justice, working by ancient custom and tribal procedure.

Awqaf. In Muslim countries the law of Awqaf is the law applied to religious and charitable endowments, trusts and settlements. This important Islamic institution, found in all Eastern countries, is administered by the Sharia courts. Awqaf, or endowment, is a gift to God made by pious Muslims for the benefit of the community.

WOMEN UNDER ISLAM

"Of other women who seem good in your eyes, marry but two or three or four, and if you still fear that you shall not act equitably, then only one." This saying from the Koran explains Muhammad's awareness of the social undesirability of polygamy and his endeavour to discourage the practice, without antagonising the deep-rooted customs of his day.

Very often the custom of polygamy is held against Islam as a severe criticism of that religion. To understand the work of Muhammad one has to consider the customs prevailing in Arabia at the time of Muhammad's ministry. Polygamy, as among all Eastern nations of antiquity, was the recognised institution. Some members of pre-Islamic society carried their aversion to women so far as to destroy their female children at birth. Women were mere chattels, forming an integral part of their father's or their husband's estate. It was due only to the teaching of the Prophet that women were given an acknowledged status in the Islamic world. Already in the third year of the Hegira temporary marriages, the custom of the day, were forbidden and polygamy was restricted to four wives. Women were granted equality in exercising their right before the law.

The most outstanding of the rules enacted by early Islamic law to raise the status of women are the following:

On coming of age the law gives to women the same rights and liberties as apply to men.

On death of her parents a share in the inheritance is guaranteed to a woman.

No woman can be married against her will or consent.

Women on marriage do not lose their individuality.

On marriage, the contract gives no power to the husband above that defined by law in the marriage act.

A wife's property remains hers, and she can instigate divorce proceedings on her own account.

Muslim marriage is a civil act.

Polygamy still flourishes among the very conservative and rich as well as among the poorer and uneducated classes. With the latter the additional cost of a new wife is often balanced by the amount of labour she contributes towards her husband's estate.

The pressure of progressive thinking against the custom of polygamy due to modern education, combined with the economic difficulties prevailing in our times, makes it almost impossible for polygamy to be retained among the middle classes in the cities of the East. The fundamental change slowly taking place in Muslim lands is the transformation of the patriarchal system, and its polygamy, into the small independent family unit on the Western pattern.

Aided by education and modern legislation, the emancipated modern city woman of the East is beginning to take her place in the economic and public life of her country.

CALENDARS, TIME RECKONING AND WEIGHTS AND MEASURES

THE MUSLIM CALENDAR

The Muslim era dates from July 16th, A.D. 622, which was the beginning of the Arab year in which the Hijra, Muhammad's flight from Mecca to Medina, took place. The Muslim or Hijra Calendar is lunar, each year having 354 or 355 days, the extra day being intercalated eleven times every thirty years. Accordingly the beginning of the Hijra year occurs earlier in the Gregorian Calendar by a few days each year. The Muslim year 1391 A.H. began on February 27th, 1971.

The year is divided into the following months

1 Muharram	30 days	7 Rajab	30 days
2 Saphar	29 "	8 Shaaban	29 "
3 Rabi'a I	30 "	9 Ramadan	30 "
4 Rabi'a II	29 "	10 Shawwal	29 "
5 Jamada I	30 "	11 Dulkaada	30 "
6 Jamada II	29 "	12 Dulhagga	29 or 30 days

The Hijra Calendar is used for religious purposes throughout the Islamic world and is the official calendar in Saudi Arabia and the Yemen. In most Arab countries it is used side by side with the Gregorian Calendar for official purposes, but in Turkey and the U.A.R. the Gregorian Calendar has replaced it.

PRINCIPAL MUSLIM FESTIVALS

New Year: 1st Muharram. The first ten days of the year are regarded as holy, especially the tenth.

Ashoura: 10th Muharram. Celebrates the first meeting of Adam and Eve after leaving Paradise, also the ending of the Flood and the death of Hussain, grandson of Muhammad. The feast is celebrated with fairs and processions.

Mouloud (Birth of Muhammad) 12th Rabi'a I.

Leilat al Meiraj (Ascension of Muhammad) 27th Rajab

Ramadan (Month of Fasting) Begins 1st Muharram

Id ul Fitr or Id ul Saghir or Kūçuk Bayram (The Small Feast) Three days beginning 1st Shawwal. This celebration follows the constraint of the Ramadan fast.

Id ul Adha or Id al Kabir or Büyuk Bayram (The Great Feast, Feast of the Sacrifice) Four days beginning on 10th Dulhagga. The principal Muslim festival, commemorating Abraham's sacrifice and coinciding with the pilgrimage to Mecca. Celebrated by the sacrifice of a sheep, by feasting and by donations to the poor.

Hijra Year	1390	1391	1392
New Year	March 9th, 1970	Feb 27th, 1971	Feb 16th, 1972
Ashoura	March 18th, "	March 7th, "	Feb 25th, "
Mouloud	May 18th, "	May 7th, "	April 26th, "
Leilat al Meiraj	Sept 30th, "	Sept 19th, "	Sept 8th, "
Ramadan begins	Oct 31st, "	Oct. 20th, "	Oct 9th, "
Id ul Fitr	Nov 30th, "	Nov 19th, "	Nov 8th, "
Id ul Adha	Feb 6th, 1971	Jan 26th, 1972	Jan 15th, 1973

Note: Local determinations may vary by one day from those given here.

THE IRANIAN CALENDAR

The Iranian Calendar, introduced in 1925, is based on the Hijra Calendar, adapted to the solar year. Iranian New Year (*Nowruz*) occurs at the vernal equinox, which usually falls on March 21st Gregorian. The year 1350 began on March 21st, 1971.

The Iranian year is divided into the following months

1 Favaridine	31 days	7 Mehr	30 days
2 Ordabehcet	31 "	8 Aban	30 "
3 Khordad	31 "	9 Azar	30 "
4 Tir	31 "	10 Dey	30 "
5 Mordad	31 "	11 Bahman	30 "
6 Channer	31 "	12 Esfand	29 or 30 days

The Iranian Calendar is used for all purposes in Iran except the determining of Islamic religious festivals, for which the lunar Hijra Calendar is used.

THE ETHIOPIAN CALENDAR

The Ethiopian Calendar is solar, and is the traditional calendar of the Ethiopian Church. New Year (*1st Maskarem*) usually occurs on September 11th Gregorian. The Ethiopian year 1964 began on September 12th, 1971.

The year is divided into thirteen months of which twelve have thirty days each. The thirteenth and last month (*Pagumen*) has five or six days, the extra day occurring on leap years. The months are as follows

1 Maskarem	8 Maizra
2 Tikumit	9 Ginbat
3 Hidar	10 Sene
4 Tahsas	11 Hamle
5 Tir	12 Nahasse
6 Yekatit	13 Pagumen
7 Megabit	

The Ethiopian Calendar is used for all purposes, religious and secular, in Ethiopia.

THE HEBREW CALENDAR

The Hebrew Calendar is solar with respect to the year, but lunar with respect to the months. The normal year has 353-355 days in twelve lunar months, but seven times in each nineteen years an extra month of 30 days (*Adar II*) is intercalated after the normal month of *Adar* to adjust the calendar to the solar year. New Year (*Rosh Hashanah*) usually falls in September of the Gregorian Calendar, but the day varies considerably. The year 5732 begins on September 20th, 1971.

The months are as follows:

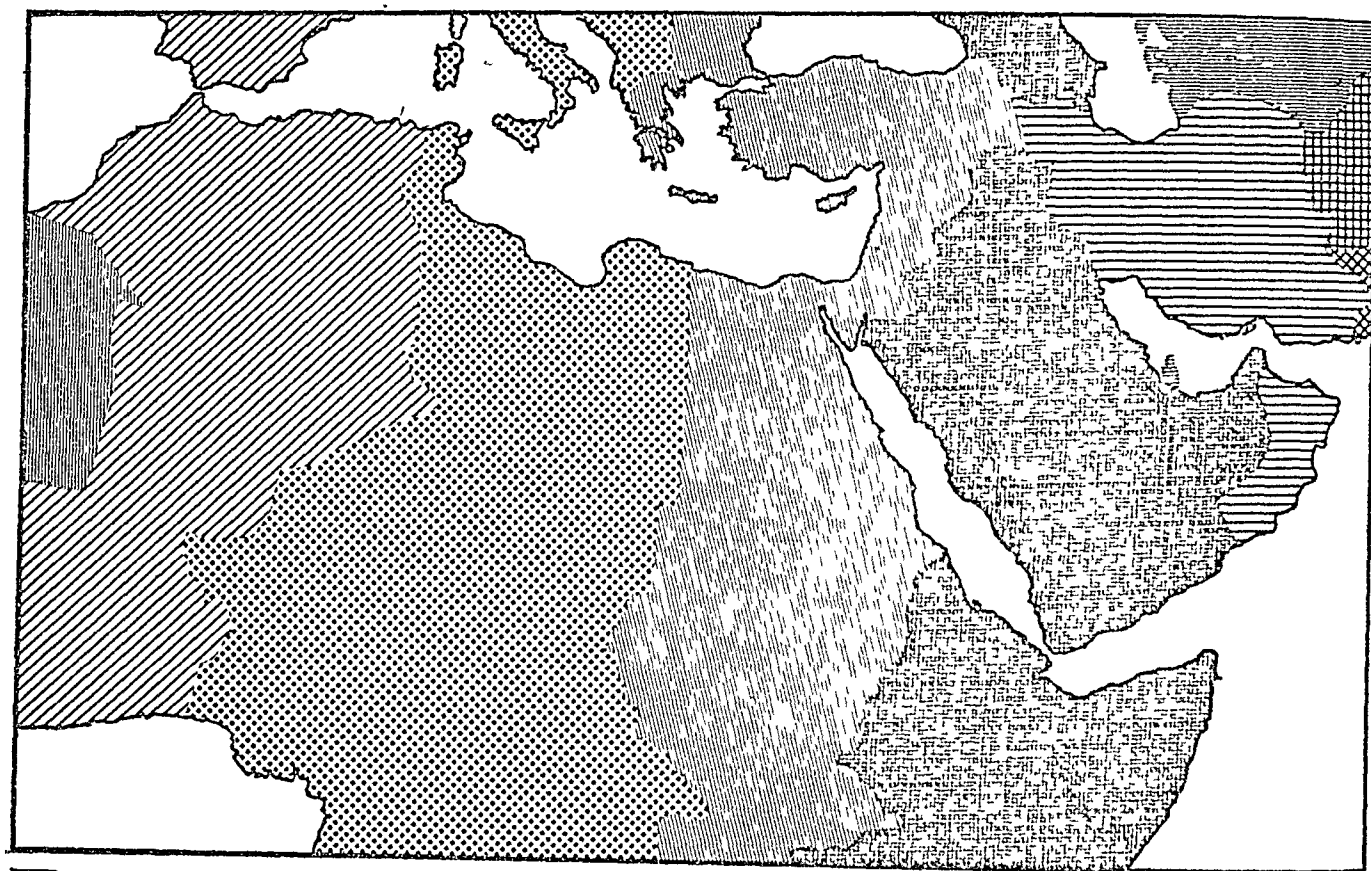
1. Tishri	30 days	7. Nisan	30 days
2. Marcheshvan	29 or 30 days	8. Iyyar	29 "
3. Kislev	29 or 30 "	9. Sivan	30 "
4. Tebeth	29 days	10. Tammuz	29 "
5. Shebat	30 "	11. Ab	30 "
6. Adar	29 "	12. Ellul	29 "
(Adar II)	30 "		










The Hebrew Calendar is used to determine the dates of Jewish religious festivals only.

STANDARD TIME

The map shows zones of standard time, relative to Greenwich Mean Time (G.M.T.). Many of the individual countries adopt daylight saving time at certain times of year.

Saudi Arabia has five time systems: Arab time, by which the day (12 o'clock) begins at sunset; Embassy time, six hours ahead of Arab time; Military time, three hours ahead of G.M.T.; Dhahran time, four hours ahead of G.M.T.; and Aramco time, used within the Company's operations to economise daylight hours.



								
-1 Spanish Sahara	G.M.T. Morocco Algeria	+1 (B.S.T.) Tunisia Libya	+2 Turkey Cyprus Syria Lebanon Jordan Israel U.A.R. Sudan	+3 Iraq Kuwait Saudi Arabia* Bahrain Trucial States Yemen A. R. Yemen P.D.R.	+3½ Iran Oman	+4 Qatar	+4½ Afghanistan	+5 Pakistan (West)

* See note above.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES

Principal weights and units of measurement in common use as alternatives to the Metric and Imperial systems.

WEIGHT

UNIT	COUNTRY	METRIC EQUIVALENT	IMPERIAL EQUIVALENT
Charak	Afghanistan	1 764 kilos	3 89 lb
Hogga	Iraq	1 27 kilos	2 8 lb
Kantar or Cantaro	{ Cyprus	228 614 kilos	504 lb
	{ U A R.	44 928 kilos	99 05 lb
Kharwar	Afghanistan	564 528 kilos	1 246 2 lb
Khord	Afghanistan	110 28 grammes	3 89 oz
Maund	{ Yemen P D R	37 29 kilos	82 28 lb
	{ Saudi Arabia		
Oke or Okka	{ Cyprus	1 27 kilos	2 8 lb
	{ U A R	1 245 kilos	2 751 lb
Ratel or Rotl	{ Saudi Arabia	0 449 kilo	0 99 lb
	{ U A R		
Seer	Afghanistan	7 058 kilos.	15 58 lb
Yeni Okka	Turkey	1 kilo	2 205 lb

LENGTH

UNIT	COUNTRY	METRIC EQUIVALENT	IMPERIAL EQUIVALENT
Busa	{ Saudi Arabia		
	{ Sudan	2 540 cm	1 in
Dirraa Dra or P c	Cyprus	60 96 cm	2 ft
Gereh gaz sha	Afghanistan	6 6 cm	2 6 in
Kadam or Qadam	Sudan	30 48 cm	1 ft

CAPACITY

UNIT	COUNTRY	METRIC EQUIVALENT	IMPERIAL EQUIVALENT
Ardeb	{ Saudi Arabia	} 198 024 litres	43 56 gallons
	{ Sudan		
	{ U A R.		
Kadah	{ Sudan	} 2 063 litres	3 63 pints
	{ U A R		
Keila	{ Cyprus	} 36 368 litres	8 gallons
	{ Sudan		
	{ U A R	} 16 502	3 63 gallons
Ratel	Sudan		
		0 568 litre	1 pint

AREA				
UNIT	COUNTRY	METRIC EQUIVALENT	IMPERIAL EQUIVALENT	
Donum or Dunum	Cyprus . . .	1,335·8 sq. metres	0·33 acre	
	Iraq . . .	2,500 sq. metres	0·62 acre	
	Israel . . .	1,000 sq. metres	0·2471 acre	
	Jordan . . .			
	Syria . . .	919·04 sq. metres	0·2272 acre	
	Turkey . . .			
Feddan . . .	Saudi Arabia	4,201 sq. metres	1·038 acres	
	Sudan . . .			
	U.A.R.			
Yeni Donum . . .	Turkey . . .	10,000 sq. metres (1 hectare)	2·471 acres	

METRIC TO IMPERIAL CONVERSIONS

METRIC UNITS	IMPERIAL UNITS	TO CONVERT METRIC INTO IMPERIAL UNITS MULTIPLY BY:	TO CONVERT IMPERIAL INTO METRIC UNITS MULTIPLY BY:
Weight			
Gramme	Ounce (Avoirdupois)	0·035274	28·3495
Kilogram (Kilo.)	Pound (lb.)	2·204622	0·453592
Metric ton	Short ton (2,000 lb.)	1·102311	0·907185
	Long ton (2,240 lb.)	0·984207	0·01605
(The short ton is in general use in the U.S.A., while the long ton is normally used in Britain and the Commonwealth.)			
Length			
Centimetre	Inch	0·393701	2·54
Metre	Yard (=3 feet)	1·09361	0·9144
Kilometre	Mile	0·62137	1·609344
Capacity			
Litre	Gallon (=8 pints)	0·219976	4·54596
	Gallon (U.S.)	0·264178	3·78533
Area			
Square metre	Square yard	1·19599	0·836127
Hectare	Acre	2·47105	0·404686
Square kilometre	Square mile	0·38610	2·58999

OIL IN THE MIDDLE EAST

INTRODUCTION

Middle East oil production in 1970 again improved on the record of the previous year. The region's output amounted to an estimated 712 million tons, enabling it to retain the place it had secured in 1966 as the world's largest oil producing area. As before, the U.S.A. was the second largest producer with 527 million tons and the Soviet East European area the third largest with 383 million tons.

All the main oil-producing countries of the Middle East border the Persian Gulf. Along the west side of the Gulf are Kuwait, Saudi Arabia, Qatar, Bahrain, Oman and Abu Dhabi, while to the east lies Iran and to the north Iraq. A consequence of this geographical location was that tankers accounted for more than two thirds of all merchant tonnage passing through the Suez Canal before its closure in 1967.

However, the long standing importance of the Canal in the transportation of Middle East oil has now appreciably declined owing to the building of the new giant tankers in the 150,000/200,000 deadweight tons category. While such vessels are too large to navigate Suez, the correspondingly bigger cargoes they carry make them attractive economic propositions on the longer Cape route. Indeed, the latest development in this field has been the building of six 326,000 deadweight ton tankers to carry oil from Kuwait to Gulf Oil's Western European main terminal at Bantry Bay, Southern Ireland. Even these giant tankers promise soon to be eclipsed by ships in the 400,000/500,000 deadweight tons category and as the size of individual tankers increases, so the importance of the Suez Canal as a vital oil artery inevitably decreases. While the oil industry, in common with all other shipping interests, would still welcome the reopening of the Canal, it can never again recover significance in world oil distribution.

(For details of the 1971 agreement between the Gulf States and the oil companies, see end of Introduction, P. 37)

IRAN

Iran was the first to establish commercial production following the discovery of oil in 1908 at Masjid i Sulaiman in the foothills of the Zagros Mountains. For a number of years this remained Iran's sole producing oilfield, but a second major discovery was made at Haft Kel and production was begun there in 1929. Subsequent discoveries were made at Gach Saran, Naft Safid, Agha Jari, Lali and elsewhere in southern Iran, bringing her output to over 30 million tons in 1951. Then came the expropriation of the oil industry by the Iranian government and virtual cessation of operations for three years. A new phase began in 1954 with the signing of the Agreement between Iran and a consortium of British, American, French and Dutch oil interests.

Once more production rose steadily—reaching 191 million tons in 1970. Most comes from the Agreement area,

operated on behalf of the Consortium companies and covering about 100,000 square miles of country in southern Iran. Its boundaries stretch from the vicinity of Bandar Abbas northwards along the Persian Gulf and the Iraqi border to near Kermanshah and it includes all the main Iranian oilfields, of which the largest producers are Agha Jari—already credited with a total output of over 500 million tons since its inception in 1938—Gach Saran and Marun. The latter, now Iran's third largest producer, only came on stream in 1964.

From the fields the oil is piped to the Persian Gulf. Until recently oil for export was taken to Bandar Mashur while that for refining went, as now, to the huge installation at Abadan. However the sustained growth in Iranian crude exports, plus an accompanying increase in the size of the individual tankers handling these cargoes, reached a point where Bandar Mashur could no longer satisfactorily serve as a crude-oil shipping terminal. Thus began the development of what is now among the most impressive engineering feats achieved by the oil industry anywhere in the world—the Kharg Island terminal. On this island—some 25 miles off the Iranian mainland and directly on the deepest water line of the Persian Gulf—has been built a magnificent ten-berth terminal whose enormous jetty can accommodate simultaneously five tankers of 100,000 dead weight tonnage, two in the 65,000 dwt range and three between 33,000 and 45,000 dwt. Moreover, Kharg has the necessary deep water facilities to enable the very large tankers to operate.

Submarine lines link Kharg with land trunk systems designed to handle the entire output of the producing fields in the Agreement area. The first phase of the Kharg Island scheme was commissioned in 1960 and the second phase was officially inaugurated early in 1966. The total cost of the project was estimated at over £65 million and a further phase—the third—was completed in 1969.

Outside the Agreement area, the national oil company has developed oil and gas reserves at Alborz and Sarajeh—about a hundred miles south of Teheran—and also operates a small field at Naft i Shah, on the Iraqi border. Additional oil has been discovered in the Persian Gulf, where U.S. and Italian concerns operate jointly with Iranian interests. Annual production in this zone is now at some 16 million tons and is steadily increasing.

It was well recognized that Iran's oilfields could support an appreciably higher output if markets were available, for her internal demand is relatively low, and the temporary dislocation of other Middle East supplies due to the Arab-Israeli crisis afforded Iran an opportunity. Her output in 1967 soared by almost 23 per cent, increased by a further 10 per cent in 1968, and rose yet again by over 18 per cent in 1969 and the 1970 increase was 14 per cent above the previous year reaching 191 million tons. Another good augury for the future has been the cordial relationship existing between the Iranian Government and the Iranian Oil Participants operating in the Agreement area. This

relationship was considerably strengthened by the recent undertaking on the part of I.O.P. (after a series of exceptionally tough negotiations) to pay Iran a guaranteed minimum annual royalty revenue of \$1,155 million, irrespective of how much crude is actually produced.

Perhaps the most important recent development in Iranian oil and gas projects was the conclusion of an agreement between Iran and the U.S.S.R. under which the Soviet Union will take natural gas from fields in southern Iran. The \$450 million Iranian Gas Trunkline (IGAT), which is 660 miles long, was completed in 1970. It will have an ultimate capacity of 1,650 million cubic feet per day. Gas will be drawn from the fields of Agha Jari, Karanj, Faris and Marun, with the possibility of drawing additional supplies at a later date from Gach Saran, Pazanan, Rag-e-Safid and Bibi Hakimi. The Iranian terminal is at Khairabad, near the town of Behbeban, and the Russian reception station is at Astara, just over the Iranian-U.S.S.R. border.

IRAQ

The next country to report success was Iraq. After the 1914-18 war a concession over much of the country was granted to joint British, U.S., French and Dutch interests who formed the Iraq Petroleum Company consortium and began drilling in 1927. In the same year a major field was discovered at Kirkuk, which has already yielded over 600 million tons of crude oil.

This field, still the mainstay of Iraqi production, lies deep in the interior and to move this output to a Mediterranean terminal meant building a 500-mile pipeline system—which originally connected with terminals at Tripoli (Lebanon) and Haifa. Political complications compelled the closing of the latter shipping point and currently there are three lines running from the Kirkuk area to Tripoli and one to Baniyas (Syria). The latter line handles around 30 million tons of oil per annum and cost £40 million. In 1970, these lines handled over 52 million tons of oil—about two-thirds of the country's total production. This was the highest quantity of oil moved by this system in any single year. Oil is also produced in southern Iraq at Zubair and Rumalia—within 100 miles of the Persian Gulf and connected by pipeline to tanker terminals at Fao and Khor Al-Amaya. Throughput in 1970 was 17 million tons.

Most of Iraq's production is maintained by the great international oil interests already mentioned. A small field on the Iran border is operated by a national company which also runs a refinery and distributes oil products in Iran. Early in 1964 a second Iraqi company, the Iraq National Oil Company (INOC), was formed with powers to engage in other oil operations. Consequently, this company concluded a deal in 1967 with the French state-owned company, *Entreprise des Recherches et d'Activités Pétrolières* (ERAP), for a major exploration venture. The terms of the agreement, which relates to a total area of 10,800 sq. km. (of which 2,280 sq. km. are offshore), are complicated, but in essence they cover a period of twenty years while ERAP operates as contractor for INOC, which retains ownership of any oil discovered and of all associated installations. All expenditure by the French concern is on behalf of INOC and repayable in crude oil, except initial bonuses amounting to \$15 million, which are non-repayable.

One decisive step just taken by the Iraq Government has ended any hope that the Iraq Petroleum Company might have cherished of having returned to it the immensely promising North Rumalia field. This field was among the 99.5 per cent of the undeveloped concessional areas held by the I.P.C., in 1961 and taken from the company in that year by the Iraq Government under new petroleum laws then introduced. Despite these measures, the I.P.C. never relinquished its claim to its legal rights concerning North Rumalia, but further legislation, introduced within the last year, has made it plain that all interests in this field have been irrevocably vested in the state-owned INOC. There is now no possibility of the concession ever being restored to the I.P.C.

Development of North Rumaila has involved the Iraq Government in undertakings with a number of foreign countries. The crude oil produced by INOC from the North Rumaila and other fields continues to be pledged to Soviet bloc countries in return for aid in various projects. An agreement between the U.S.S.R. and Iraq, signed on April 8th, provides for the construction by the Russians of a refinery at Mosul, with feeder crude line; a products pipeline from Baghdad to Basrah; two hydro-electric plants; a superphosphate fertilizer plant; two dairy products factories, and for the supply of equipment for the fishing industry, including vessels, and a cannery. The U.S.S.R. will make a loan for these projects of 200 million roubles (about \$225 million) which will bear interest at 2.5 per cent. Repayment of both the loan and the interest will be made in crude oil produced by INOC.

The U.S.S.R. had previously made a \$60 million loan to Iraq for assistance in oil projects, against repayment in crude oil, and other Eastern European states have also made loans wholly or partly repayable in oil: Czechoslovakia for a refinery at Basrah; Hungary for oil field drilling; Poland for assistance in developing sulphur and phosphates deposits; and Bulgaria and Eastern Germany for industrial goods.

Laying of a pipeline from Rumaila to Fao has begun; this very restricted port on the Persian Gulf will be used for the initial export of 100,000 b/d. But contract specifications are now being drawn up for the drilling of 20 wells and the construction of two gas/oil separators for the second stage of Rumaila development. This will provide for production of 360,000 b/d., for which INOC is studying export possibilities—discussing with international consultants the construction of a deep-water port on the Gulf, and with Syria the construction of a 1,200-km. pipeline to Tartous on the Mediterranean.

SAUDI ARABIA

Whilst Iran and Iraq were important oil producers in the 1930s, the oil industries of the other Persian Gulf states are almost entirely post-1945 developments. They originated with the finding of a small field on Bahrain Island in 1932. Exploration on the adjacent coast of Saudi Arabia followed; U.S. oil interests found oil at Dammam in 1936, and commercial production followed in 1938.

Normal development was slowed down by the 1939-45 war, but by the mid-1940s Saudi Arabia's production began to forge ahead. Over the past two decades there have been many notable discoveries. Among these is Ghawar, origin-

OIL IN THE MIDDLE EAST—(INTRODUCTION)

ally classified as five separate fields which are now known to be joined together it extends 130 miles in length and is the world's largest known oilfield

There is offshore production at Safaniya near the northern boundary of Saudi Arabia where a major oilfield came into production in 1957. More recent discoveries have been made at Manifa, Abu Safah, North Qatif and else where which have boosted both Saudi Arabian production and reserves. More recent offshore fields have been named as Majan, Karan and Jana.

Saudi Arabia's production in 1970 amounted to a record of almost 177 million tons, some 28 million tons more than in 1968. This put the country into second place in the Middle East production table behind the leader Iran who headed her by some 14 million tons. Nearly all Saudi Arabia's output is available for export in the form of crude oil, the remaining exports comprising finished products drawn from the mainland refinery at Ras Tanura and from the refinery on Bahrain Island.

Although the main oilfields lie close to the Persian Gulf so that the major proportion of exports can be routed via the Gulf terminal of Ras Tanura, about one fifth of Saudi Arabian crude oil is carried overland to the Mediterranean port of Sidon via the 1,000-mile £80 million Trans Arabian Pipeline System (TAP Line) owned and operated by the Arabian American Oil Company (ARAMCO), the major concessionaire. TAP Line runs from the various oilfields comprising the vast Ghawar complex on the Persian Gulf to Sidon, passing through Jordan and Syria en route.

The vexed ideological and political complications which have arisen from the Israeli/Arab confrontation last year led to TAP Line being cut at some point within the Syrian border but it is now fully operational.

Apart from enjoying a secure and ever rising income from production royalties, Saudi Arabia has for some time been increasingly eager to take a wider participation in oil industry operations generally and was one of the first countries to raise the issue of host governments securing modification of long standing concessions to permit the entry of national companies into partnership with the international groups. The State oil and minerals organization, Petromin, has concluded agreements for oil exploration with several foreign companies and is actively establishing interests in petroleum-chemical production. Undoubtedly among the main objectives of Petromin—and one which has already been announced—is eventual admission into the ramifications of ARAMCO.

KUWAIT

Sandwiched between Iraq and Saudi Arabia is the independent country of Kuwait whose population is still only around 400,000 and whose size is no more than that of the county of Yorkshire. Nevertheless Kuwait is another outstanding success story in the history of oil production. The first discovery was made there in 1938 by a joint British/US company at Burgan, southern Kuwait. The outbreak of war prevented any immediate development and activity was not resumed until 1946. So rapid was this renewed development that in 1953 Kuwait became the largest Middle Eastern oil producer with an output of

43.3 million tons—ousting Saudi Arabia from first place. She held this position until displaced in turn by Saudi Arabia in 1966. Owing to the disruption in her rate of output during the Arab-Israeli war, Kuwait's production in 1967 was surpassed by another competitor, Iran, and she finished third with an estimated 115 million tons. She kept that position in 1968, 1969, and again in 1970 when production amounted to 137.5 million tons.

Burgan—still by far the largest source of Kuwait oil and a field that has already furnished over 1,000 million tons—is an interesting phenomenon in itself in as much as its output is derived from an extremely porous sandstone whereas most of the other major Middle East producing fields have a limestone formation. Since local consumption is negligible, almost all the country's output is exported. The shipping terminal is at Mina-al Ahmadi where a refinery with an annual capacity of nearly 12 million tons has been built. The crude oil is handled by an ultra-modern offshore tanker terminal able to accommodate the largest tankers afloat at present, namely 326,000 dwt.

About half the concession originally granted to the British/US company has now been surrendered to the state and a national organization, the Kuwait National Petroleum Company, has been formed to engage in oil operations. This organization has since concluded an agreement with Hispanoil, a Spanish concern in which there is considerable participation by the Spanish Government. The agreement provides for the joint exploration of a 9,000 sq km concession, the cost of which prior to discovery of oil in commercial quantities will be borne by Hispanoil.

Kuwait has been the scene of several unsuccessful attempts to discover offshore oilfields. There is, however, underwater production in the Neutral Zone which is shared between Kuwait and Saudi Arabia where an important field has been developed by a Japanese company at Khafsi—now believed to link up with Safaniya. US companies are also producing oil from on land in the Neutral Zone, some of this is piped to Mina al Abdullah in Kuwait where a refinery has been established. One extremely important development in Kuwait's oil activities was the opening in 1968 of the 5 million tons a year all hydrogen refinery built for the Kuwait National Petroleum Company at Shuaiba—the first plant of its kind in the world. This installation, contains the world's largest hydrogen plant and produces high quality petroleum-chemical naphtha, gasoline, kerosene, automotive/marine diesel fuel, heavy fuel oils and sulphur. The crude oil feedstock comes from Burgan.

THE GULF SHEIKDOMS AND OMAN

Several other Middle East countries are now producing oil in important quantities. Qatar has an output of about 17 million tons a year, of which 9 million is at present derived from onshore fields. Of greater potential interest, however, are her offshore resources which yielded 8 million tons in 1970. Production is now well under way at the offshore field of Idd el Shargi discovered in 1960 and a second offshore field at Maydan Mazam, now the bigger of the two fields, Abu Dhabi on the Trucial Coast, is a recent producer with oil coming from Umm Shant—sixty miles out in the Gulf—since 1962 and Zakum since 1964.

OIL IN THE MIDDLE EAST—(INTRODUCTION)

and land production at Murban dating from the end of 1963. Production in Abu Dhabi rose from 9 million tons in 1964 to 33 million in 1970. In 1964 discoveries of commercial deposits were confirmed in Oman, another Trucial Coast Sheikdom, where production began in 1967 and totalled some 2 million tons by the end of that year. In 1970 production rose to 16.5 million tons. Yet another Trucial Coast country to join the ranks of oil producers in 1969 was Dubai—thanks to the offshore field of Fateh. This field—some 60 miles distant from Dubai's coast—has been developed without any onshore storage or tanker terminal facilities and represents a most interesting example of the oil industry's ingenuity in perfecting new production techniques. An underwater storage tank, with a capacity of 17 million gallons of crude oil, has been constructed on the seabed, and this receives the output from four multi-well platforms after this output has been passed through a central production platform containing separators and other treating equipment. This offshore storage and loading installation enables super-tankers far too large to approach any shore installation to tie up at the offshore terminal and load with crude even under adverse weather conditions. The whole offshore complex has been designed to withstand 40-ft. waves and 100-m.p.h. winds—conditions which are likely to occur only once in every hundred years—and the actual loading operation is carried out through means of a mono-buoy, anchored in 135 ft. of water, which can handle any size of tanker and load at the rate of 40,000 barrels an hour. Despite the elimination of what would have been far more costly onshore storage and tanker terminal facilities, the gross investment in Fateh's production, processing, storage and loading facilities has been put at over £20 million. Production in 1970 reached 4.3 million tons.

UNITED ARAB REPUBLIC

There have also been some recent extremely promising developments in the U.A.R. which are transforming that country's production potential. Apart from significant discoveries made in the El Alamein region of the Western Desert, where production began in August 1968, there have been a number of notable offshore finds achieved in the Gulf of Suez. The most important of these has been the underwater field of El Morgan, which came on stream just after the end of the fighting in 1967 and which is now producing at a rate equivalent to nearly 13 million tons a year.

These recent discoveries, which last year enabled the U.A.R. to produce some 21 million tons of oil, should more than compensate the Republic for the loss of those oilfields along the Sinai Peninsula, east of the Gulf of Suez, where Israeli troops are still in occupation. Indeed, the U.A.R. is now realizing her long-standing ambition to become an oil exporter. This is an interesting reversal of the position that existed for many years, when the U.A.R. was an importer of Soviet crude; however, it may well be that the U.S.S.R. will use the U.A.R. oil to fulfil commitments into which she was entered with a number of Far Eastern countries.

Other discoveries yet to be established as commercial have been made at Umbaraka and Abu Gharadig. The

U.A.R. Government is keen to attract more outside interests in exploration and has already agreed in principle with the Japanese North Sumatra Oil Development Co-operation Company for a search in the Gulf of Suez, south of Ras Gharib. Moreover, allocations for State investment in the oil industry under the 1970-75 five-year development plan are much higher than in previous budgets.

Among other objectives which her expanded oil activities will attain for the U.A.R., will be her entitlement to membership of the Organisation of Petroleum Exporting Countries (O.P.E.C.)—the body that has exercised the great influence on Arab oil affairs during recent years.

THE ISRAELI PIPELINE

The continuing closure of the Suez Canal—whose reopening seems as indefinite as to date as when it was blocked during the Arab/Israeli war of 1967—makes all the more interesting a development which appears to have attracted remarkably little attention in the world press. That is the construction of Israel's 160-mile 42-inch diameter crude oil trunk pipeline running from Eilat, on the Gulf of Aqaba, to a Mediterranean terminal at Ashkelon.

This £50-million conduit is Israel's current bid to play a larger role in the international oil industry's transport system. Capacity of the line—owned and operated by the Eilat-Ashkelon Pipeline Company, a subsidiary of the Canadian APC Holdings—is put at 22 million tons/year. Additional pumping stations could, it is claimed, raise this annual capacity to 60 million tons. The formidable extent of this projected ultimate capacity can be judged from the fact that the biggest Western European crude oil pipeline—the 40-inch diameter Trans-Alpine Line (TAL)—has a potential maximum annual capacity of 50 million tons (current rate of throughput is about 25 million tons).

Associated with the Eilat-Ashkelon pipeline are other ambitious plans for new refining and petroleum-chemical plants to be fed by the system. Israel is mindful of the advent of the new giant supertankers of 250,000 deadweight tons and is planning for the reception of such huge vessels at the Eilat reception terminal. However, it is expected that smaller vessels will collect the crude at Ashkelon, so that accommodation of ships of up to 125,000 d.w.t. will prove sufficient for the moment.

Whether Israel will ever be able to attract sufficient oil transit business to warrant an annual throughput of 60 million tons is something that is outside the scope of this article. All manner of political as well as petroleum considerations complicate the position and at the moment such prospects look remote. Much of the oil going through the line is from Iran and is destined for Eastern Europe. Nevertheless, the line is now a completed project and it gives Israel a fresh incentive to press for a stake in the sphere of transportation and refining of Middle Eastern Oil.

Other Middle East producers, though only on a minor level, include Turkey, and small-scale production began in 1968 in Syria.

OIL IN THE MIDDLE EAST—(INTRODUCTION)

The following table details oil production in the Middle East in 1970

000 Metric tons

Saudi Arabia	176 940
Kuwait	137 460
Iran	191 150
Iraq	76 630
Kuwait/Saudi Arabia Neutral Zone	26 460
Abu Dhabi	33 460
Qatar	17 150
U A R	20 750
Bahrain	3 820
Turkey	3 480
Oman	16 540
Israel	90
Syria	4 280
Dubai	4 290
TOTAL	712 500

With local consumption in almost every country at a comparatively low level the overwhelming bulk of this output was available for export. The main market for the Middle East is in Western Europe—which obtains about half of all its crude imports from the Persian Gulf. Oil is also shipped to Africa, Asia, Australasia and to the American continent. Exports consist mainly of crude oil but products are shipped from Abadan and the other very large refineries in the area. A number of smaller plants supply the local markets.

It is the truly tremendous reserves of the Middle East that are its special feature. Already credited with some 60 per cent of world *proven* resources, there remains a vast potential for future discoveries for as yet the surface has been barely scratched and fewer wells have been sunk than are drilled in the U.S.A. in a single month. As has been indicated in the text, particular significance attaches to the off shore search in the Persian Gulf which is still at a relatively early stage of development. Even allowing for probable increases in local demand, the Middle East is likely to have progressively more oil to spare for the world as a whole in the future.

AGREEMENT BETWEEN OIL COMPANIES AND GULF STATES

FEBRUARY 14th, 1971

The following statement was issued in Teheran on February 14th by the companies negotiating team led by Lord Strathalmond of British Petroleum and Mr. George Percy of Standard Oil New Jersey:

An Agreement was signed today Sunday February 14th 1971 at 3 p.m. in Teheran between six OPEC member States in the Gulf Region—Abu Dhabi, Iran, Iraq, Kuwait, Saudi Arabia and Qatar and representatives of the oil companies who have negotiated with these States since January 19th. The Agreement establishes security of supply and stability in financial arrangements for the five year period 1971-75 and will yield the Gulf States concerned an estimated additional revenue of over U.S. \$1,200 million in 1971 rising to about U.S. \$3,000 million in 1975.

Within recent months the oil companies have faced constantly escalating demands by the governments of the OPEC countries as a result of which each settlement in turn gave rise to further claims. As a result the oil companies felt compelled to seek longer term financial stability and to remove the threats of oil embargoes raised by some countries. The assurances given by the countries in the current settlement provide these protections.

Moreover the companies have gained assurances against any changes in major financial terms for five years as well as limitations during the period of the Agreement against new escalating demands by the OPEC producing countries. The settlement stabilizes at 55 per cent the tax rate for the Gulf exports of crude oil which have also

received a uniform increase in posted prices at Gulf terminals at 35 cents per barrel which includes 2 cents per barrel in settlement of freight disparities.

From the effective date of the Agreement, crude oils will be posted in the Gulf under a new system of Gravity differentials. For crude oils between 40 degrees and 30 degrees API Gravity, each present posted price will be increased by $\frac{1}{4}$ cent per barrel for each full degree.

Each of the companies will make a $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent upward adjustment of posted prices for inflation on June 1st 1971 and on the first of each of the years 1973-75.

In addition the companies will increase the crude posted prices by 5 cents per barrel on June 1st 1971. Thereafter an increase of 5 cents per barrel will be added on January 1st in each of the years 1973-75 to reflect increasing demand for crude oil during the Agreement.

The countries have agreed not to seek any further increases in the terms of the settlement or other similar financial obligations during the five-year period.

As a result of the resolution of major outstanding questions during the negotiations, a basis has been reached which should remove any obstacles to effective operation of the international oil industry, particularly with regard to assured availability of crude oil and stability of financial arrangements between governments and the companies. This stability coupled with the assurances obtained is of major benefit to all consuming areas.

OIL IN THE MIDDLE EAST—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

STATISTICAL SURVEY

In 1969 the Middle East is estimated to have produced over 29 per cent of the world's output of crude oil.

CRUDE OIL PRODUCTION ([']000 metric tons)

	1938	1967	1968	1969	1970
Saudi Arabia.	100	129,594	141,580	149,650	176,940
Kuwait.	—	115,203	122,000	129,430	137,460
Iran	10,400	129,345	141,990	168,400	191,150
Iraq	4,400	60,085	73,990	74,690	76,630
Kuwait/Saudi Arabia Neutral Zone	—	21,600	22,340	22,500	26,460
Abu Dhabi	—	18,339	24,080	28,870	33,460
Qatar	—	15,479	16,160	17,270	17,150
U.A.R.	200	7,000*	12,740	15,900	20,750
Bahrain	1,100	3,405	3,720	3,810	3,820
Turkey.	—	2,400*	3,050	3,530	3,480
Oman	—	2,000	11,990	16,400	16,540
Israel	—	135*	110	120	90
Syria	—	—	1,150	3,240	4,280
Dubai	—	—	—	500	4,290
TOTAL	16,200	504,585	574,900	634,310	712,500

* Estimated.

"PUBLISHED PROVEN" OIL RESERVES (million tons)

	END 1963	END 1969	END 1970	1970 % OF WORLD TOTAL
Iran	5,007	7,535	9,590	11.5
Iraq	3,421	3,767	4,384	5.2
Kuwait.	8,773	9,316	9,193	11.0
Neutral Zone.	1,460	1,781	3,521	4.2
Qatar	384	754	589	0.7
Saudi Arabia.	8,188	11,500	17,604	21.0
Other Middle East	1,348	4,042	2,942	3.5
TOTAL	28,581	38,695	47,823	57.1

OIL REFINING CAPACITY ([']000 metric tons)

	1963	1969	1970	1970 % OF MIDDLE EAST TOTAL
Aden	6,800	7,000	7,000	5.4
Bahrain	10,550	12,000	12,000	9.3
Iran	25,355	29,300	29,300	22.7
Kuwait.	17,125	21,000	21,000	16.3
Saudi Arabia.	12,500	18,850	18,850	14.6
Turkey	4,930	7,375	10,875	8.4
Other Middle East.	19,975	29,600	30,140	23.3
TOTAL	97,235	125,125	129,165	100.0

OIL IN THE MIDDLE EAST—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

OWNERSHIP OF REFINERY CAPACITY (000 metric tons—end 1970)

	BRITISH AND BRITISH DUTCH	U S A	OTHERS	TOTAL
Iran	—	—	29 300	29 300
Kuwait	5 625	10 625	4 750	21 000
Saudi Arabia	—	18 250	600	18 850
Bahrain	—	12 000	—	12 000
U A R	—	70	8 430	8 500
Turkey	2 080	5 340	3 455	10 875
Aden	7 000	—	—	7 000
Israel	—	—	6 000	6 000
Iraq	60	30	5 020	5 110
Neutral Zone	—	2 250	1 500	3 750
Lebanon	835	1 665	500	3 000
Syria	—	—	2 950	2 950
Jordan	—	—	800	800
Qatar	15	5	10	30
TOTAL	15 615	50 235	63 315	129 165

ANALYSIS BY PRODUCING INTERESTS (000 metric tons—end 1970)

	BRITISH AND BRITISH DUTCH	U S A	OTHERS	TOTAL
Iran	94 230	76 160	20 760	191 150
Saudi Arabia	—	176 940	—	176 940
Kuwait	68 730	68 730	—	137 460
Iraq	38 540	17 100	20 990	76 630
Abu Dhabi	18 380	4 865	10 215	33 460
Neutral Zone	—	8 260	18 200	26 460
Qatar	10 800	2 135	4 215	17 150
Oman	14 060	—	2 480	16 540
U A R	—	6 350	14 400	20 750
Bahrain	—	3 820	—	3 820
Turkey	1 960	490	1 030	3 480
Syria	—	—	4 280	4 280
Dubai	—	2 145	2 145	4 290
Israel	—	—	90	90
TOTAL	246 700	366 995	98 805	712 500

GOVERNMENT OIL REVENUES (million U S dollars)

	KUWAIT	SAUDI ARABIA	IRAN	IRAQ	OTHERS*	TOTAL MIDDLE EAST
1960	465	355	285	266	70	1 442
1961	464	490	301	266	70	1 592
1962	526	451	334	267	75	1 653
1963	557	502	398	325	83	1 865
1964	655	561	475	353	96	2 140
1965	671	655	534	375	110	2 354
1966	707	777	607	394	210	2 695
1967	718	850	754	361	227	2 910
1968	766	966	817	476	354	3 378
1969	812	1 008	938	483	431	3 673

* Qatar Abu Dhabi and Bahrain

MAJOR OIL CONCESSIONS

BAHRAIN

BAHRAIN PETROLEUM CO., LTD.

CONCESSION: Expires 2024.

AREA: All of Bahrain, including islands, waters and submerged lands over which the Sheikh has or may acquire dominion. Part of the area was later relinquished.

OWNERSHIP:

Standard Oil Co. of California	50%
Texaco Inc.	50%

CONTINENTAL OIL CO. OF BAHRAIN

CONCESSION: exploration permit for 45 years from 1965.

AREA: 2,430 square kilometres in the Persian Gulf, offshore from the north-east of Bahrain (relinquished by Bahrain Petroleum Co.).

OWNERSHIP:

Continental Oil Co. of Bahrain.	100%
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IRAN

DASHTESTAN OFFSHORE PETROLEUM COMPANY (DOPCO)

CONCESSION: 25 years from the start of commercial production.

AREA: 6,036 square kilometres in two locations in the Persian Gulf off the coast south of Bushehr.

OWNERSHIP:

National Iranian Oil Co.	50%
(Iranian Government.)	
Royal Dutch/Shell group	50%

ENTREPRISE DES RECHERCHES ET D'ACTIVITÉS PÉTROLIÈRES (ERAP)

AGREEMENT: between ERAP and Iran Government and National Iranian Oil Co. under which ERAP acts as contractor to the national entity. The contract covers both off- and on-shore areas.

OWNERSHIP:

French Government	100%
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FARSI PETROLEUM COMPANY (F.P.C.)

CONCESSION: 25 years from the start of commercial production.

AREA: 5,800 square kilometres in the Persian Gulf south of Bushehr.

National Iranian Oil Co.	50%
(Iranian Government).	
Bureau de Recherches de Pétrole	} 50%
Régie Autonome des Pétroles	
Société Nationale des Pétroles d'Aquitaine (all owned by French Government).	

IRAN CANADA OIL COMPANY (IRCAN)

CONCESSION: From 1958 to 25 years after date when the first 629,000 barrels of oil have been produced, sold and delivered, with three 5-year extensions.

AREA: Approximately 386 square miles near southern part of Iranian Consortium's area and bordering on Gulf of Oman, including certain offshore areas.

OWNERSHIP:

Sapphire Petroleums, Ltd.	50%
(A Canadian corporation.)	
National Iranian Oil Co.	50%
(Iranian Government.)	

IRAN PAN AMERICAN OIL COMPANY (IPAC)

CONCESSION: From June 5th, 1958 to 25 years after date when the first 629,000 barrels of oil have been produced, sold and delivered, with three 5-year extensions.

AREA: Approximately 6,176 square miles in Persian Gulf, including about 386 square miles north and 5,790 square miles south of SIRIP's area.

OWNERSHIP:

Pan American International Oil Co.	50%
(Standard Oil Co. (Indiana).)	
National Iranian Oil Co.	50%
(Iranian Government.)	

IRANIAN MARINE INTERNATIONAL OIL COMPANY (IMINOCO)

CONCESSION: 25 years from the start of commercial production.

AREA: 7,960 square kilometres in four off-shore locations in the Persian Gulf.

OWNERSHIP:

National Iranian Oil Co.	50%
(Iranian Government.)	
Phillips/AGIP/Indian Oil and Natural Gas Commission (through Hydrocarbons (India) Ltd.)	50%

IRANIAN OFFSHORE PETROLEUM COMPANY (IROPCO)

CONCESSION: 25 years from the start of commercial production.

AREA: 2,250 square kilometres in the Persian Gulf south of Bushehr.

OWNERSHIP:

National Iranian Oil Co.	50%
(Iranian Government.)	
Tidewater Group	50%
(Tidewater, Skelly, Superior, Sunray DX, Kerr McGee, Cities Service, Richfield.)	

IRANIAN OIL PARTICIPANTS (THE CONSORTIUM)
(Under Agreement with Government of Iran and National Iranian Oil Co.)

(Iranian Oil Exploration and Producing Co.—Operator)

AGREEMENT: 25 years from 1954, expires 1979; plus 15 years optional.

AREA: Approximately 100,000 square miles.

OWNERSHIP:

British Petroleum Co., Ltd.	40%
Royal Dutch/Shell group	14%
Compagnie Française des Pétroles	6%
Standard Oil Co. (N.J.)	7%
Standard Oil Co. of California	7%
Texaco Inc.	7%
Gulf Oil Corp.	7%
Socony Mobil Oil Co.	7%

OIL IN THE MIDDLE EAST—(MAJOR OIL CONCESSIONS)

Incon Agency, Ltd	5%
Richfield Oil Corp	1 250%
American Independent Oil Co	833%
Signal Oil and Gas Co	833%
Standard Oil Co (Ohio)	417%
Getty Oil Co	417%
The Atlantic Refining Co	417%
Tidewater Oil Co	417%
San Jacinto Petroleum Corp	417%

LAVAN PETROLEUM COMPANY (LAPCO)

CONCESSION 25 years from the start of commercial production

AREA 8,500 square kilometres in three off shore locations in the Persian Gulf

OWNERSHIP

National Iranian Oil Co (Iranian Government) 50%

Atlantic Group 50%
(Atlantic, Union of California, Murphy, Sun.)

PERSIAN GULF PETROLEUM CO. (PEGUPCO)

CONCESSION 25 years from date of commercial production

AREA one off shore location of 5,150 square kilometres in the Persian Gulf

OWNERSHIP

National Iranian Oil Co (Iranian Government) 50%

German Group 50%
(D E.A., Elwerath, Gelsenberg Preussag, Schatbau, Icholacn-Chemical, Wintershall)

SOCIÉTÉ IRANO-ITALIENNE DES PÉTROLES (SIRIP)

CONCESSION 25 years from the start of sales of petroleum, with three five-year extensions to be granted by right if requested

AREA Zones (8 839 square miles) along part of the northern Continental Shelf of the Persian Gulf, on the eastern slope of the Central Zagros, and on the coast of the Gulf of Oman

OWNERSHIP:

National Iranian Oil Co 50%
Agip Mineraria Co (ENI—Italian state corporation for oil and natural gas) 50%

IRAQ

BASRAH PETROLEUM CO., LTD.

CONCESSION 75 years from November 30th, 1938, expires 2013

AREA All of Southern Iraq, plus Iraq's undivided half-interest in the Iraqi-Saudi Arab Neutral Zone

OWNERSHIP:

Same as Iraq Petroleum Co., Ltd

ENTREPRISE DES RECHERCHES ET D'ACTIVITÉS PÉTROLIÈRES (ERAP)

CONCESSION 20 years from the start of commercial production

AGREEMENT between ERAP and Iraq National Oil Co under which ERAP acts as contractor to the national entity

AREA 10,800 sq km including 2 280 sq km offshore

OWNERSHIP

French Government 100%

IRAQ PETROLEUM CO., LTD.

CONCESSION 75 years from March 14th, 1925, expires 2000

AREA Provinces of Baghdad and Mosul east of the Tigris River (approximately 32,000 square miles) except for area covered by former Khanaqin concession, now owned by Iraq Government (Naft Khaneh field in eastern Iraq).

OWNERSHIP:

British Petroleum Co., Ltd 37 75%
Royal Dutch/Shell group 37 75%
Compagnie Française des Pétroles 37 75%
Near East Development Corp 37 75%
(Standard Oil Co (N J)—50%)
(Socony Mobil Oil Co—50%)
Participations and Explorations Corp (Partex) 5 00%
(C. S. Gulbenkian Estate)

MOSUL PETROLEUM CO., LTD.

CONCESSION 75 years from May 25th, 1932, expires 2007

AREA All of Iraq west of Tigris River and north of Latitude 33°N

OWNERSHIP:

Same as Iraq Petroleum Co., Ltd

ISRAEL

BELCO PETROLEUM CORPORATION

AREA Off shore concession near Haifa and on-shore concessions in the Negev and elsewhere

OWNERSHIP

U S company 60-100%
Israeli Government remainder

ISRAEL-AMERICAN OIL CORP.

AREA Holds two licences for areas in Israel, a total of 684 000 dunams

OWNERSHIP:

U S A interests, headed by X Federman

ISRAEL CONTINENTAL OIL CO. LTD.

AREA Holds four licences for four areas in Israel, a total of 1,400,500 dunams

OWNERSHIP:

Canadian interests, headed by B M Bloomfield

ISRAEL NATIONAL OIL CO. LTD

AREA Holds licences for nine areas in Israel, a total of 2,799 660 dunams

OWNERSHIP An Israel private capital company with the participation of the Government

LAPIDOTH-ISRAEL OIL PROSPECTORS LTD.

AREA Holds five licences and one lease for areas in Israel; a total of 1,396,920 dunams

OWNERSHIP:

An Israel Company, with the participation of Mekorot Ltd. and Ampal (American-Israel Corpn) and Solel Boneh

NAPHTA AND LAPIDOTH-ISRAEL OIL PROSPECTORS

AREA Holds licence for one area in Israel, a total of over 197,320 dunams

OWNERSHIP:

Solel-Boneh Ltd., Mekorot Ltd., and Ampal.

* One dunam = 1,000 sq metres = 0 2471 acre.

OIL IN THE MIDDLE EAST—(MAJOR OIL CONCESSIONS)

NAPHTA-ISRAEL PETROLEUM CO.

AREA: Holds five licences for areas in Israel; a total of 1,602,800 dunams.

OWNERSHIP:

Mekorot Ltd. and private Israel capital.

UNIVERSAL PETROLEUM CORPORATION

AREA: Holds licences for three areas in Israel; a total of 1,039,800 dunams.

OWNERSHIP: The Universal Petroleum Corporation of Denver, Colorado, U.S.A.

JORDAN

John Mecom has recently relinquished his exploration concession covering the whole of Jordan. A national oil company is to be formed to deal with all petroleum affairs.

KUWAIT

BP (KUWAIT) LTD. AND

GULF KUWAIT CO.

(KUWAIT OIL CO., LTD.—OPERATOR)

CONCESSION: 75 years from December 23rd, 1934. extended on December 1st, 1951; expires 2026.

AREA: All of Kuwait, including territorial waters to a six-mile limit. In May 1962 the Gulf Oil Corporation and British Petroleum voluntarily relinquished to the State of Kuwait 9,262 sq. km. and have also undertaken to relinquish at the end of five years not less than a further 1,000 sq. km. out of certain offshore areas.

OWNERSHIP:

BP (Kuwait) Ltd.	50%
(British Petroleum Co., Ltd.)	
Gulf Kuwait Co.	50%
(Gulf Oil Corp.)	

HISPÁNICA DE PETRÓLEOS S.A. (HISPANOIL)

CONCESSION: 35 years with a possible 5 years' extension.

AGREEMENT: Kuwait National Oil Co. to have a 51 per cent stake in exploration. Twenty-five per cent of Spain's total oil imports will be reserved by the Spanish Government for 15 years for Hispanoil's share of any oil produced from the concession.

AREA: 9,000 sq. km. relinquished by Kuwait Oil Co. in May 1962 (*see* BP (Kuwait) Ltd. and Gulf Kuwait Co., above), mainly in the eastern half of Kuwait.

OWNERSHIP:

Calvo Sotelo (100% Spanish Government)	40%
Repsa (52% Spanish Government)	40%
Petroliber (52% Spanish Government)	} 20%
Cepsa	
Fierro Banking Group	

KUWAIT—OFFSHORE

KUWAIT SHELL PETROLEUM DEVELOPMENT CO.

CONCESSION: 45 years from January 1961.

AREA: about 1,500 sq. miles offshore from Kuwait.

OWNERSHIP: Royal Dutch/Shell Group.

LEBANON

COMPAGNIE LIBANAISE DES PÉTROLES

CONCESSION: 75 years from August 24th, 1955; expires 2030.

AREA: Selected areas in the Lebanon.

OWNERSHIP:

Lebanese and French nationals	50%
Gewerkschaft Elwerath	50%

PETROLEUM DEVELOPMENT (OMAN), LTD.

CONCESSION: 75 years from 1937; expires 2012.

AREA: Muscat and Oman except the district of Dhofar.

OWNERSHIP:

The Shell Petroleum Co. Ltd.	85%
Participations and Explorations (Partex)	15%
(C. S. Gulbenkian Estate)	

NEUTRAL ZONE

AMERICAN INDEPENDENT OIL CO.

CONCESSION: 60 years from June 28th, 1948; expires 2008.

AREA: All of the Amir of Kuwait's undivided half-interest in Saudi Arab-Kuwait Neutral Zone, including islands and territorial waters.

OWNERSHIP:

Phillips Petroleum Co.	33.54%
Signal Oil and Gas Co.	30.16%
Ashland Oil and Refining Co.	12.70%
Ralph K. Davies	6.98%
J. S. Abercrombie	6.35%
Crescent Corp.	3.17%
Sunray Mid-Continent Oil Co.	2.65%
Globe Oil and Refining Co.	1.59%
Lario Oil and Gas Co.	1.59%
Pauley Petroleum Inc.	1.27%

GETTY OIL CO.

CONCESSION: 60 years from February 20th, 1949; expires 2009.

AREA: All of the King of Saudi Arabia's undivided half-interest in Saudi Arab-Kuwait Neutral Zone including islands and territorial waters.

OWNERSHIP:

J. Paul Getty interests	79%
Other Shareholders	21%

NEUTRAL ZONE—OFFSHORE

ARABIAN OIL COMPANY, LTD.

CONCESSION (1): 44½ years from July 5th, 1958.

AREA: Sheikh of Kuwait's undivided half-interest in offshore area of Saudi Arab-Kuwait Neutral Zone, extending from 6 miles off coast into Persian Gulf. Precise boundaries to be determined.

OWNERSHIP:

Arabian Oil Company, Ltd.	100%
(Japan Petroleum Trading Co., Ltd.)	

CONCESSION (2): 2-year exploration licence from 1958 with 2-year renewal option and 40-year exploitation lease from date of commercial production.

OIL IN THE MIDDLE EAST—(MAJOR OIL CONCESSIONS)

AREA. Saudi Arabia's undivided half interest in offshore area of Saudi Arab-Kuwait Neutral Zone extending from 6 miles off coast into Persian Gulf to median line between Iran and Neutral Zone including islands and adjacent waters

OWNERSHIP
Arabian Oil Company Ltd 100%
(Japan Petroleum Trading Co Ltd)

OMAN

Dhofar Cities Service Petroleum Corp.

CONCESSION 25 years from date of commercial production renewable for an additional 25 years. Granted January 17th 1953

AREA Province of Dhofar all land and territorial waters totaling 30 000 square miles

OWNERSHIP
John W Mecom }
Pure Oil Middle East Inc } 100%
(Continental Oil Co of America has a 33% working interest)

QATAR

QATAR PETROLEUM CO, LTD

CONCESSION 75 years from May 17th 1935 expires 2010

AREA The Qatar Peninsula and territorial waters but excluding an area of 1 737 sq miles in the north relinquished in December 1961

OWNERSHIP
Same as Iraq Petroleum Co Ltd

QATAR—OFFSHORE

SHELL COMPANY OF QATAR, LTD

CONCESSION 75 years from August 1952 expires 2027

AREA. Continental shelf offshore from Qatar beyond a 3 mile limit

OWNERSHIP
Royal Dutch/Shell group 100%

SAUDI ARABIA

ARABIAN AMERICAN OIL CO

CONCESSION Original area, 66 years from July 14th 1933 expires 1999 additional area 66 years from July 21st 1939 64 per cent of the acreage was returned to the Saudi Arabian Government by an agreement of March 24 1963

AREA Some 170 square miles of Saudi Arab including offshore areas Includes Saudi Arabia's undivided half interest in Iraqi Saudi Arabian Neutral Zone

OWNERSHIP
Standard Oil Co of California 30%
Texaco Inc 30%
Standard Oil Co (N J) 30%
Socony Mobil Oil Co 10%

SAUDI-ARABIAN/AUXERAP AGREEMENT

CONCESSION 30 years from the date when wells are discovered capable of producing 1 500 barrels daily for 30 days

AREA off-shore in the Red Sea zone

OWNERSHIP

Société Auxilaire de la Régie Autonome des Pétroles (AUXERAP) 60%
(French Government)
PETROMIN 40%
(Saudi Arabian Government)

SYRIA

SOCIÉTÉ DES PÉTROLES CONCORDIA S A R L

EXPLORATION PERMIT

AREA 49 rectangles with an area of 538 5 square miles in the Syrian Arab Republic.

OWNERSHIP
Deutsche Erdoel Aktiengesellschaft 80%
Geberhardt & Koenig—Deutsche Schachtbau G M B H 10%
Dea Schliemann Mineraloelgesellschaft G M B H 10%

TRUCIAL COAST

ABU DHABI PETROLEUM CO, LTD.

CONCESSION Concessions for 75 years from 1939 (Abu Dhabi)

AREA Land and territorial waters of Sheikdom of Abu Dhabi

OWNERSHIP
Same as Iraq Petroleum Co Ltd

BOCHUMER MINERALOEL G m b H.

CONCESSION Total land area and territorial waters of Sheikdom of Fujairah

OWNERSHIP
Borin Group (German Federal Republic) 100%

U S independents John W Mecom and Pure Oil began drilling in October 1963 the first well offshore from the Sheikdom of Sharjah Pure Oil acquired an interest at the end of 1962 in Mecom's concessions for Sharjah Ajman and Umm al Qaiwain and in the Dhofar province of the Sultanate of Muscat and Oman

DUBAI PETROLEUM COMPANY

CONCESSION 914 270 acres in the Sheikdom of Dubai

OWNERSHIP Continental Oil Co 100%

MITSUBISHI OIL DEVELOPMENT COMPANY

CONCESSION Agreement signed May 14th 1968 to last 35 years Not less than 25 per cent of the concession area must be relinquished within 3 years another 25 per cent within 5 years and a further 25 per cent within 8 years

AREA Three land areas in Abu Dhabi totalling 6 500 sq km

OWNERSHIP The Mitsubishi Oil Development Company is owned by a consortium of Mitsubishi Heavy Industries Mitsubishi Mining Mitsubishi Shoji Kaisha Mitsubishi Oil and Mitsubishi Petrochemical

PHILLIPS CONSORTIUM

CONCESSION Annual rental to be paid by the companies for exploration rights until the discovery of 15 000 b d crude

AREA 13 000 square kilometres on-shore in Abu Dhabi relinquished by the Abu Dhabi Petroleum Co

OIL IN THE MIDDLE EAST—(MAJOR OIL CONCESSIONS)

OWNERSHIP: Consortium consisting of:

Phillips Petroleum Co.
American Independent Oil Co.
AGIP.

TRUCIAL COAST—OFFSHORE

ABU DHABI MARINE AREAS, LTD.

CONCESSION: 65 years from March 1953; expires 2018.

AREA: Continental shelf area from Abu Dhabi beyond a 3-mile limit.

OWNERSHIP:

British Petroleum Co., Ltd.	66 $\frac{2}{3}$ %
Compagnie Française des Pétroles	33 $\frac{1}{3}$ %

ABU DHABI OIL COMPANY

CONCESSION: Agreement for 45 years, with 50 per cent participation option for the ruler of Abu Dhabi.

AREA: Two areas off Abu Dhabi totalling 4,416 sq. km.

OWNERSHIP: Abu Dhabi Oil is owned jointly by Maruzen Oil, Daikyo Oil and Nippon Mining.

DUBAI MARINE AREAS, LTD.

CONCESSION: 60 years from August 1952; expires 2012.

AREA: Continental shelf area offshore from Dubai beyond 3-mile limit.

OWNERSHIP:

British Petroleum Co., Ltd.	66 $\frac{2}{3}$ %
Compagnie Française des Pétroles	33 $\frac{1}{3}$ %

TURKEY

There are many oil companies with concessions in Turkey.
The largest exploration concessions are held by:

	Sq. Km.
Esso Standard (Turkey) Inc.: 33 concessions	15,805
Mobil Exploration Mediterranean Inc.: 32 concessions	15,082
Tidewater Oil Co., Atlantic Refining Co., Texaco Seaboard Inc.: 33 concessions	14,750
Turkish-Gulf Oil Co., D. D. Feldman Oil and Gas Inc.: 29 concessions	12,285
Texaco Overseas Petroleum (American Overseas): 25 concessions	12,120
N.V. Türkse Shell: 21 concessions	10,458
Turkish Petroleum Corp. (<i>Türkiye Petrolleri Anonim Ortaklığı</i>): 21 concessions.	8,661

UNITED ARAB REPUBLIC

COMPAGNIE ORIENTALE DES PÉTROLES DE L'ÉGYPTE (COPE)

AREA: Has developed three fields at Belayim, Wadi Feiran and Abu Rudeis in the Sinai Peninsula.

OWNERSHIP:

U.A.R. Government	49%
International Egyptian Oil Co.	51%

(Controlled mainly by E.N.I.)

GENERAL PETROLEUM ORGANIZATION

ORGANISATION: Took over seven companies in 1961.

OWNERSHIP:

U.A.R. Government	100%
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INTERNATIONAL EGYPTIAN OIL CO.

CONCESSION: 30 year exploration permit from 1963.
Proposed expenditure U.S. \$ 20 million in first twelve years.

AREA: 28,000 square kilometres in Delta territory between Suez Canal and Rosetta branch of the Nile, and at Khalig el Zeit on the Red Sea.

OWNERSHIP:

International Egyptian Oil Co. (I.E.O.C.) 100%
On the commercial discovery of oil the area will be developed by C.O.P.E., owned jointly by I.E.O.C. 50%, General Petroleum Corporation (U.A.R. Govt.) 30%, and Egyptian Petroleum Co-operative Society 20%.

NASR OILFIELDS CO.

(formerly Anglo-Egyptian Oilfields)

AREA: Operates fields on the Western side of the Gulf of Suez.

OWNERSHIP:

U.A.R. Government	55%
U.A.R. Nationals	16%
British and Dutch interests	29%

PAN AMERICAN U.A.R. CO.

CONCESSION: exploration permit from 1964.

AREA: 6,500 square kilometres off-shore south-east of Suez, including the El Morgan field.

OWNERSHIP:

Pan American U.A.R. (Standard Oil Co. of Indiana) 100%

On the discovery of commercial oil the Egyptian General Petroleum Corporation (U.A.R. Govt.) will participate 50% in a joint company, the Gulf of Suez Petroleum Co., to develop the area.

CONCESSION: 73,000 square kilometres in the western desert including Fayoum and Egeila.

OWNERSHIP:

Same as in above concession.

PHILLIPS PETROLEUM CO.

CONCESSION: 30 year exploration permit from 1963, renewable for a further 15 years. The company is bound to invest U.S. \$30 million in first ten years.

AREA: 96,000 square kilometres in the western desert between Nile and Libyan border, including coastal waters.

OWNERSHIP:

Phillips Petroleum Co. (operator) 100%
On the discovery of commercial oil the Egyptian General Petroleum Corporation (U.A.R. Govt.) will participate 50% in the joint exploitation company.

YEMEN ARAB REPUBLIC

MECOM OIL CO.

CONCESSION: 5 year exploration concession from 1962.
To be granted a further 30 years development concession upon the discovery of oil.

AREA: 10,000 square miles on the coastal plains and off-shore.

OWNERSHIP:

John W. Mecom Co.	100%
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YEMEN PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC

BP EXPLORATION CO., LTD.

AREA: Kamaran Islands and their territorial waters off the coast of Yemen.

OWNERSHIP:

British Petroleum Co., Ltd.	100%
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OIL IN THE MIDDLE EAST—(MAJOR CRUDE OIL LINES)

MAJOR CRUDE OIL AND NATURAL GAS LINES IN THE MIDDLE EAST

ROUTE	IN SERVICE	COMPANY	LENGTH (in miles)	DIAMETER (inches)	CAPACITY (Million Tons/Year)
Kirkuk-Tripoli . . .	1934	Iraq Petroleum Co	530	12	50
Kirkuk-Tripoli . . .	1950	"	530	16	
Kirkuk-Tripoli . . .	1961	"	530	30/32	
Kirkuk-Baniyas . . .	1952	"	554	30/32	
Zubair-Rumaiha-Fao . . .	1954/7	"	65	2 lines from 12-24	12
Dukhan-Ummi Said . . .	1949/54	Qatar Petroleum Co	53	2 lines 12-16	8
Agha Jari - Gach Saran - Bandar Mashur - Abadan . . .	1940/5	Iranian Oil Exploration & Production Co.	100	from 12-24	1
Gach Saran-Kharg Island . . .	1950	"	100	26/28/30	22
Gach Saran-Bibi Hakimeh-Kharg Island . . .	1965	"	100	26/30	22
Central Area-Abadan . . .	1911	"	133	10/12	16
Agha Jahn-Kharg Island . . .	1965	"	133	42	50
Abqaiq-Qasumah-Sidon . . .	1950	Tapline	1068	30/31	25
Karachok-Homs-Tartus . . .	1968	National Oil Co. of Syria	400	18	5
Natih/Fahud-Saif el Malih . . .	1967	Petroleum Development (Oman) Ltd	156	30/32/36	7
Zakum-Das Island . . .	1967	Abu Dhabi Marine Areas	56	30	10
Sassan-Lavan Island . . .	1963	Lavan Petroleum Co.	88	22	10
Batman-Dürtyol . . .	1967	Turkish Petroleum Co	310	18	3 5
Eilat-Haifa . . .	1960	Eilat Pipeline Co	257	16	5
Eilat-Ashkelon . . .	1969	Ashkelon Pipeline Co.	160	42	19
NATURAL GAS: Agha Jari Astara . . .	1970	Iranian Gas Trunklines	660	40/42	22*

* Million cubic metres/year.

OIL IN NORTH AFRICA

INTRODUCTION

Less than fourteen years ago, no major oil resources had been discovered in Africa, yet today the continent ranks among the chief oil producing regions of the world. Algeria, Libya, Morocco, Nigeria, Angola, Gabon, Congo and Tunisia all bear witness to the fact that oil is far more ubiquitous than at one time appeared likely. It is, however, essentially North Africa that has made an indelible mark on the world oil map.

Apart from Egypt, normally regarded as part of the Middle East, the first commercial production of any significance came from Morocco, where oil was discovered in 1936. Further exploration, before and after the Second World War, uncovered a number of oilfields in the north-east, in the Sidi Kacem region, but none of major importance. Combined output is now less than 50,000 tons a year.

However, like so many other countries, Morocco is today pinning her hopes of becoming a major oil producer upon the search now beginning off her coasts. A number of international petroleum companies are taking part in this search and in all but one of these programmes, Morocco's state-owned petroleum corporation, Bureau de Recherches et de Participations Minières (BRPM) is participating. Thus it could well be that the long history of disappointment on land will terminate in some major discovery offshore.

ALGERIA

Algeria can be divided into two parts. Between the Atlas Mountains and the Mediterranean lies a narrow strip containing nine-tenths of all Algeria's population. Very small quantities of oil were produced in this region, from hand-pits, during and after the 1914-18 war. In 1949 there was a more important discovery at Oued Gueterini, 70 miles south-east of Algiers, but output never exceeded 100,000 tons a year and after a few years fell off rapidly.

It was the Southern Territories of Algeria, which consist of a large part of the Sahara, that finally put Africa on the oil map. Patient exploration, extending over many years, was rewarded in 1956 by three major discoveries. The first was at Edjeleh, six hundred miles due south of Philippeville and very close to the borders of Libya. Later in the same year came a further discovery at Hassi Messaoud, north-west of Edjeleh and about 400 miles from the coast.

The third memorable event in that year was the finding of a great natural gas field, now known to be the third largest in the world, at Hassi R'Mel. This is almost due south of Algiers and about 200 miles away: it has for some time supplied industrial users in Northern Algeria, and is also the source of natural gas being shipped to the United Kingdom and France.

Development of the Saharan oil resources was amazingly rapid, bearing in mind that the distance of the fields from the coast necessitated the construction of major trunk pipelines. By 1960 Hassi Messaoud was connected by a 400-

mile line to Bougie, midway between Algiers and Philippeville, and during that year produced about 6,700,000 tons of crude oil. Large-scale production was also established at Edjeleh soon afterwards. Owing to the distance of this latter field from the Algerian coast, the pipeline constructed for it was taken to La Skhirra in Tunisia: this line was completed before the end of 1960.

Both fields produce a very light crude oil, with a high yield of petrol and low fuel oil content. Production at Edjeleh comes from a depth of about 5,000 feet but at Hassi Messaoud the oil lies below 10,000 feet—which adds to the task of drilling.

These major discoveries naturally gave an immense stimulus to oil exploration over a wide area, and during the past few years many new oil and natural gas deposits have been located in the Southern Territories of Algeria. In particular the region between and around Hassi Messaoud and Edjeleh has proved most prolific.

Ohanet, Tin Fouyé, Gassi Touil, Rhourde el Baguel and El Gassi are some of the places where oil and natural gas have been found in this desolate region. A closed pipeline system links the various fields together, and also joins Edjeleh to Hassi Messaoud.

Algerian crude oil, production of which amounted to some 45 million tons in 1970, is transported to the coast by three major pipeline systems. Apart from the two already mentioned in connection with Hassi Messaoud and Edjeleh, a third crude line has been built from Haoud el Hamra (close to Hassi Messaoud) to Arzew, a few miles to the east of Oran. This line, which was opened early in 1966, combined with other development projects is expected to enable Algeria to greatly increase her production rate within the next few years. Another major crude oil line links the fields in the Ohanet area to Haoud el Hamra for further transmission to the Mediterranean coast. It was expected that before 1970 a fourth major crude oil pipeline to the coast would be completed by the end of 1971. This will link the region of Mesdar (approximately 100 kilometres south-east of Hassi Messaoud) to the port of Skikda—a total length of 700 kilometres. This line will be Algeria's largest, with an eventual annual capacity of 30 million tons per year. Arzew is also the terminal of the separate natural gas line handling the output from Hassi R'Mel—this field being the source of the liquefied natural gas now being imported into Britain via a special reception terminal at Canvey Island, Thames Estuary, by the British Gas Council.

The natural gas resources of this region are also very substantial. Of paramount importance in this connection is the immense gas field of Hassi R'Mel, the third largest deposit of its kind in the world. Skikda is one of the shipping terminals associated with plans for further major developments relating to Hassi R'Mel. A 40-inch diameter, 360-mile pipeline is being built from the field to a liquefaction plant under construction at Skikda. This plant, due for

OIL IN NORTH AFRICA—(INTRODUCTION)

completion by mid 1971 will have an initial daily capacity of 17 million cubic metres and this will be doubled before the end of 1973 by the construction of five additional compressor stations

The annual output of Hassi R Mel is to be increased by more than tenfold from its present level of 2 500 million cubic metres to approximately 26 000 million cubic metres by 1973/74. This tremendous expansion will be necessary to fulfil the several international contracts entered into by the two companies responsible for Hassi R Mel: the State-owned S.N. Repal and the privately owned CFP. (A) Ownership is split between them in the ratio of 51 per cent and 49 per cent respectively with S.N. Repal acting as operator

(For the dispute with France over control of the oil industry see Algeria History and Economic Survey)

LIBYA

Libya is the other major oil producer of the African continent, for her output in 1970 was estimated at 159 million tons or treble that of Algeria. Its growth has been even more dynamic than that of Algeria's Saharan region. The first oil concessions were only granted in 1955 and it was necessary to clear the wartime legacy of minefields before it was safe to carry out ground exploration. Oil was first found towards the end of 1957 in the Fezzan area about 50 miles south-east of Edjeleh.

Subsequent finds have been numerous and a dozen important oilfields are now in operation representing between them a total of some 1 000 producing wells. The largest producing field is Zelten discovered in 1959 which lies about 200 miles from Benghazi and within a hundred miles of the coast and which in 1969 produced its thousand millionth barrel of crude oil.

Despite the shut-down of production for nearly a month due to the Arab/Israeli crisis in mid 1967 Libya maintained her position as the seventh largest world oil producer in 1968 a massive 50 per cent increase in production lifted her into sixth place in the world league and she kept this place in 1969 and 1970.

A major factor in this development has been the coming into service in January 1968 of a 40 inch diameter pipeline from the most recent major discovery—the Idris field now renamed Intisar and rivaling Zelten with its production—to a new terminal at Zueitina. This system when spur lines from neighbouring fields are completed will have an eventual annual throughput capacity of 50 million tons.

Libya possesses a considerable advantage in that her oilfields are all near to the coast and this has facilitated the construction of pipelines. There is already a formidable pipeline system linking Zelten with the terminal at Marsa el Brega and this system has been expanded to carry nearly 40 million tons of crude per annum. Other terminals have been set up at Ras Lanuf, Es Sider and Tobruk. The former terminal now handles production from Amal where out of the first twenty bore holes sunk eighteen were completed as producing wells. Remembering that on a global average only one well in six sunk in proven producing areas is likely to prove a commercial proposition the success ratio at Amal is almost incredible.

The remotest of the larger Libyan fields is in Cyrenaica, some 350 miles almost due south of Tobruk and is known as Sarir field. A pipeline—34 inches in diameter and 320 miles in length the longest in Libya—came into operation in 1967 to carry oil to the port of Tobruk. Initially this field began producing at a rate equal to 5 million tons annually but in less than twelve months the annual level of output had been raised to some three times its original volume. Output has now reached 20 million tons a year.

Besides intensive land operations there has been under water exploration off the Libyan coast but although the first offshore gas discovery was made in November 1966 no success has so far been achieved as far as oils concerned.

TUNISIA

Production began in Tunisia in 1966 after many years of exploration activities. The producing field is at El Borma which lies in the south west corner of Tunisia on the border with Algeria and the concession is held by a joint Government Italian ENI company. Reserves in the area have been estimated to be at least 30–40 million tons.

Although Tunisian production is yet running at only the very modest rate of some 4 million tons annually with no recent significant new discoveries resulting from the current search both the government and several international oil companies are plainly hoping for better results in the near future. Extensive new exploration permits were granted during 1968 construction of fresh refining capacity and a natural gas pipeline was put in hand and work began on a major petroleum complex being sited in the Gabes region.

Moreover Tunisia is yet another country looking seaward in the hope of finding richer petroleum deposits than have so far been found onshore. A number of substantial offshore exploration programmes have been carried out particularly in the Gulf of Gabes and the port of Gabes itself is being expanded into the largest in Tunisia including a two-pier tanker terminal able to accommodate vessels in the 200 000 dwt category.

One interesting development boding well for Tunisia's future petroleum product market was the agreement signed in March 1969 according to her partial association in the Common Market. Although the duty free quota for her refined petroleum products has been fixed *pro tem* at only 100 000 tons a year the agreement does provide for a reopening of negotiations with a view to full membership of the Common Market bloc within three years. This could well lead to the quota being raised.

North Africa has a relatively low oil consumption so the bulk of production is available for export to overseas markets. To cater for local needs there are a number of refineries. In Morocco there is a major plant at Mohamme dia near Casablanca. Algeria has a refinery at Maison Carrée near Algiers which came into operation at the beginning of 1964 and can handle about 2 million tons of crude annually. There is a much smaller refinery at Hassi Messaoud. Libya has three very small refineries one at Marsa el Brega, one at Dahra and the other at Waha. Their combined capacity is only in the region of 800 000 tons per annum. One other refinery in the area is a 1 000 000 ton a year plant situated at Bizerta in Tunisia.

OIL IN NORTH AFRICA—(INTRODUCTION, STATISTICAL SURVEY)

North African exports consist of crude oil, and the principal market lies in Western Europe. In 1970 the United Kingdom alone imported over 24 million tons of crude oil from Libya (about 25 per cent of U.K. crude oil imports).

Soaring production has meant, above all, an economic transformation for both countries—neither of which possesses large alternative sources of revenue. Incidentally, if only for this reason, neither Algeria nor Libya could themselves have found the immense capital and technical resources that have been needed to develop their oilfields. In the case of the former the French Government and French private interests have played the main role, and French companies still possess a privileged position following on the Evian agreements of 1962 in which Algeria acquired the position formerly held by France. U.S., British, and Dutch international oil interests also operate in Algeria. The latter have also been active in Libya, where U.S. companies are responsible for about 90 per cent of present production. In April 1971 the Libyan Government negotiated a new five-year agreement with the producing companies which will give the Government a greater revenue per ton than it had previously received.

The truly remarkable speed with which oil production has been expanded is indicated by the following table:

	'000 Metric Tons			
	1950	1960	1969	1970
Algeria (incl. Sahara) .	80	8,630	44,680	45,880
Libya .	—	—	149,550	159,320
Morocco .	100	90	70	45
Tunisia .	—	—	3,950	4,220
TOTAL .	180	8,720	198,250	209,465

Undoubtedly output will continue to rise though one problem is to find market outlets in face of the world oil supply position. Western Europe is extremely convenient, but the light North African crude is not ideally suited to the needs of this market which consumes a high proportion of heavy oils.

STATISTICAL SURVEY

CRUDE OIL PRODUCTION
(‘000 metric tons)

	1968	1969*	1970
Algeria .	42,890	44,680	45,880
Libya .	125,400	149,550	159,320
Morocco .	100	70	45
Tunisia .	3,250	3,950	4,220
TOTAL .	171,640	198,250	209,465

* Preliminary.

“PUBLISHED PROVEN” OIL RESERVES
(‘000 metric tons)

	END 1968	END 1969	END 1970	1970 SHARE OF WORLD TOTAL %
Algeria .	958,904	1,096,000	4,109,590	6.7
Libya .	4,109,589	4,795,000	4,000,000	6.6
Morocco .	1,096	1,025	125	—
Tunisia .	64,110	68,500	75,345	0.1
TOTAL .	5,133,699	5,960,525	8,185,060	13.4

OIL REFINING CAPACITY
(‘000 metric tons—at end of year)

	1960	1969*	1970
Algeria .	—	2,225	2,225
Morocco .	150	1,680	1,680
Tunisia .	—	1,000	1,000
Libya .	—	795	795
TOTAL .	150	5,700	5,700

* Preliminary.

OIL IN NORTH AFRICA—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

OWNERSHIP OF REFINERY CAPACITY

('000 metric tons—end 1970)

	BRITISH AND BRITISH-DUTCH	U S A	OTHERS	TOTAL
Algeria . . .	720	500	1,005	2 225
Morocco . . .	—	—	1,680	1,680
Tunisia . . .	—	—	1,000	1,000
Libya . . .	10	715	70	795
TOTAL .	730	1,215	3 755	5,700

ANALYSIS BY PRODUCING INTERESTS

('000 metric tons—end 1970)

	BRITISH AND BRITISH-DUTCH	U S A	OTHERS	TOTAL
Libya . . .	17,390	136 860	5 070	159 320
Algeria . . .	1 775	850	43 255	45 880
Morocco . . .	—	—	45	45
Tunisia . . .	—	—	4 220	4 220
TOTAL	19 165	137 710	52,590	209,465

GOVERNMENT OIL REVENUES

(million U S dollars)*

	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969
Algeria . . .	102	145	200	200	250
Libya . . .	371	476	625	945	1 132

* Estimates

MAJOR OIL CONCESSIONS

ALGERIA

COMPAGNIE DE RECHERCHES ET D'EXPLOITATION DE PÉTROLE AU SAHARA (CREPS)

AREA: Concessions cover 6,807,000 hectares in the Saharan part of Algeria. Oil has been struck at Edjeleh, Zarzaitine, Tiguentourine, El Adeb Larache, Tin Fouyé.

OWNERSHIP:

Royal Dutch Shell	35%
R.A.P. and S.O.G.E.R.A.P.	51%
Others	14%

COMPAGNIE D'EXPLORATION PÉTROLIÈRE (C.E.P.)

AREA: Production from the Ohanet field, in which the company holds a 38% interest, commenced in July 1961, following completion of a 320-mile pipeline to Haoud-el-Hamra which connects with the Hassi Messaoud-Bougie line. Productive wells have also been drilled at Tamadanet, Guelta and Askarene, E. of Ohanet.

OWNERSHIP:

B.R.P.	51.5%
Finance Companies	24.5%
Others	24.0%

COMPAGNIE DES PÉTROLES D'ALGÉRIE (C.P.A.)

AREA: Permits cover 52,000 sq. km. in the Sahara. Owns jointly with CREPS the Tin Fouyé field which has been brought to production.

COMPAGNIE DES PÉTROLES FRANCE-AFRIQUE (COPEFA)

AREA: Exploration and development in France, Algeria, Belgium and Portugal.

OWNERSHIP:

B.R.P.	67.0%
Finance Companies	20.5%
Pét. du Sud	12.5%

COMPAGNIE FRANÇAISE DES PÉTROLES (ALGÉRIE) (C.F.P.-A.)

AREA: The Company holds various permits in the Saharan zone of southern Algeria and develops jointly with S.N. REPAL the Hassi Messaoud oilfield (S.E. of Ouargla), and, through a subsidiary of S.N. REPAL and C.F.P.-A. the Hassi R'Me gasfield (S. of Laghouat).

OWNERSHIP:

C.F.P.	85%
Others	15%

SOCIÉTÉ DE RECHERCHES ET D'EXPLOITATION DE PÉTROLE (EURAFREP)

AREA: Holds directly or in association with other companies permits and producing concessions in both France and Algeria. Three fields are at present in production, in which EURAFREP holds the following interests: Tan Emellel 70% (operated by EURAFREP); Ohanet 11%; El Gassi-El Agreb 10%. The company also holds 18% in the Rhourde el Baguel field.

OWNERSHIP:

Finance Companies	29.5%
Others	70.5%

SOCIÉTÉ NATIONALE DE RECHERCHE ET D'EXPLOITATION DES PÉTROLES EN ALGÉRIE (S.N. REPAL)

AREA: At December 31st, 1962, held 14 exclusive permits, twelve in Algeria and two in France. Nine areas in northern Algeria cover 13,593 sq. miles; three concessions in Saharan Algeria cover 10,813 sq. miles.

OWNERSHIP:

B.R.P.	40.5%
Algerian Government	40.5%
Others	19.0%

SOCIÉTÉ NATIONALE DES PÉTROLES D'AQUITAINE (S.N.P.A.)

AREA: The company holds exploration permits over large areas in France, and in association with other companies is carrying out exploration in Saharan Algeria at El Gassi and El Agreb, S. of Hassi Messaoud, Bou Krenissa, El Baroud, Demrat-el-Acha, and other areas. In May 1961, production started from the El Gassi-El Agreb concession, in which the company holds a 51% interest; this concession covers 463 sq. km.

OWNERSHIP:

B.R.P. and S.N.I.P.	53.0%
C.F.P.	7.2%
Others	39.8%

SOCIÉTÉ NATIONALE POUR LE TRANSPORT ET LA COMMERCIALISATION DES HYDROCARBURES (SONATRACH)

CONCESSION: exploration agreement.

AREA: 180,000 sq. km. including Hassi Mazoula and Oued el Rharbi, south-west of Hassi R'Mel, and an area of 24,552 sq. km. outside this 180,000 sq. km. New permits cover north-central and eastern Sahara.

OWNERSHIP:

SONATRACH (Algerian Government).
SOPEFAL (French Government).

LIBYA

AMERICAN OVERSEAS PETROLEUM CO.

AREA: 9 concessions totalling 62,787 square kilometres.

OWNERSHIP:

American Overseas Petroleum Ltd. (AMOSEAS)	
Texaco Overseas Petroleum Co.	50%
California Asiatic Co.	50%

BRITISH PETROLEUM EXPLORATION CO.

AREA: 7 concessions totalling 91,552 square kilometres.

OWNERSHIP:

B.P. Exploration Co. (Libya) Ltd.	100%
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OIL IN NORTH AFRICA—(MAJOR OIL CONCESSIONS)

COMPAGNIE DES PÉTROLES TOTAL

AREA: 4 concessions totalling 21,800 square kilometres one neighbouring the Sirte Basin, three in western Libya

OWNERSHIP:

Compagnie des Pétroles Total (Libye) . . . 100%

ESSO SIRTE-GRACE-LIBYAN AMERICAN OIL CO.

AREA: 3 concessions totalling 8,968 square kilometres, in which lies the Raguba field

OWNERSHIP:

Esso Sirte (the operator)	50.0%
Libyan-American Oil Co.	25.5%
W. R. Grace	24.5%

ESSO STANDARD LIBYA CO.

AREA: 9 concessions totalling 52,730 square kilometres Most production comes from the Zelten field.

OWNERSHIP:

Esso Standard Libya Inc 100%

N.B. HUNT-BRITISH PETROLEUM CO.

AREA: one concession of 24,660 square kilometres in zone 3 near the Sanr field.

OWNERSHIP

British Petroleum Exploration Co (operator)	50%
Nelson Bunker Hunt	50%

MOBIL OIL GELSENBERG CO.

AREA: 11 concessions totalling 47,485 square kilometres Most production comes from the Hofra field.

OWNERSHIP:

Mobil Oil Libya Ltd. (operator)	75%
Gelsenberg Benzin AG	25%

THE OASIS GROUP

AREA: 12 concessions totalling 149,666 square kilometres Most production is obtained from the Sirte Basin, at the Dabara, Waha and Gialo fields

OWNERSHIP:

The Oasis Group (Oasis is the operator)		
Amerada	33 1/3%
Continental	33 1/3%
Marathon	33 1/3%

PAN AMERICAN LIBYA OIL CO.

AREA: 6 concessions totalling 75,996 square kilometres.

OWNERSHIP

Pan American Libya Oil Co 100%

MOROCCO

CANADIAN DELHI OIL CO.

CONCESSION: exploration permit granted in 1962

AREA: 2,230 square kilometres net, south of Atlas Mountains

OWNERSHIP

Canadian Delhi Oil Co. is operator for a group of companies.

The following companies also hold or participate in exploration concessions in Morocco:

Petrofina S.A.,
Ruchfield Oil Corporation,
Société Chénienne des Pétroles

PREUSSAG A.G.

CONCESSION: oil and gas exploration and development permit.

AREA: 4,246 square miles in the Doukkala plain

OWNERSHIP

Preussag A.G.	80%
Moroccan Bureau de Recherches et de Participa- tions Minières	20%

SOCIÉTÉ MAROCAINE ITALIENNE DES PÉTROLES (SOMIP)

CONCESSION: exploration permits for several areas throughout the state.

OWNERSHIP:

Ente Nazionale Idrocarburi	50%
Moroccan Government	50%

SUDAN

AGIP MINERARIA (SUDAN) LTD.

CONCESSION: exploration permit dating from 1959

AREA: 8,500 square kilometres on land and coastal waters in the Red Sea.

OWNERSHIP

Agp Mineraria (Sudan) Ltd. 100%

TUNISIA

SOCIÉTÉ ANONYME D'EXPLOITATION PÉTROLIÈRE

CONCESSION: exploration agreement signed Dec 1965

AREA: 12,000 square kilometres at Bir Aouine north of El Borma.

OWNERSHIP:

Ente Nazionale Idrocarburi	100%
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On the discovery of oil in commercial quantities the government will participate 50% with ENI in the joint exploitation company.

The following companies also hold or participate in exploration concessions in Tunisia.

Aquitaine,
Husky Oil Canada,
Société de Participations Pétrolières,
Société de Recherches et d'Exploitation des Pétroles en Tunisie

SOCIÉTÉ ITALO-TUNISIENNE D'EXPLOITATION PÉTROLIÈRE

CONCESSION: four exploration and development permits granted 1961 with an extension in 1963

AREA: Zarzis and El Borma with an extension of 16,000 square kilometres adjoining the southern boundary of El Borma.

OWNERSHIP:

Ente Nazionale Idrocarburi	50%
Tunisian Government	50%

MAJOR OIL AND GAS PIPELINES

ALGERIA
CRUDE OIL

ROUTE	IN SERVICE	COMPANY	LENGTH (miles)	DIAMETER (inches)	CAPACITY (tons/year)	REMARKS
Haoud el Hamra (Hassi Messaoud-Bougie)	Nov. 1959	SOPEG	396	24/22	14,000,000	4 pumping stations: Haoud el Hamra, Djamaa, Ferme Dufourg, and M'Sila.
Hassi Messaoud-Tougourt	June 1958	SOPEG	102	6	500,000	Used as a link with railhead before Bougie line completed. Still available for use if required.
In Amenas-La Skhirra	Sept. 1960	TRAPSA	470	24	12,910,000	Addition of four intermediate stations would raise annual capacity to 17.1 million tons.
Ohanet-PK66 (on the In Amenas-La Skhirra pipeline)	May 1962	TRAPES	29	24	200,000	Continued operation in doubt.
Ohanet-Haoud el Hamra	Nov. 1961	TRAPES	311	30	7,900,000	Second phase would raise annual capacity to 18.5 million tons with 3 stations. Third phase to 26.4 million tons with 5 stations.
El Gassi - El Agreb - Haoud el Hamra	April 1961	SPNA	73	8/10	1,600,000	Present capacity with one pump station.
Tin Fouye-In Amenas	Feb. 1963	TRAPSA	128	14	1,500,000	—
Rhourdes El-Baguel-Hassi-Messaoud	Aug. 1963	SOPEG	70	14	1,950,000	—
Haoud el Hamra-Arzew	1966	SONA-TRACH	500	28	20,000,000	Initial capacity of 10 million tons a year, doubled in 1967 by three pumping stations in addition to the original three. Project in hand to erect additional facilities to enable natural gasoline to be pumped from Hassi R'Mel to Arzew. Eventual capacity 2 million tons p.a.
<i>Gasoline:</i> Hassi R'Mel-Haoud el Hamra	Apr. 1961	SEHR	177	8	1,000,000	Present capacity with one pump station at Hassi R'Mel.
<i>Under Construction:</i> Mesdar-Skikda	1971	SONA-TRACH	450	34	30,000,000	—

NATURAL GAS

ROUTE	IN SERVICE	COMPANY	LENGTH (miles)	DIAMETER (inches)	CAPACITY (million cubic metre/year)	REMARKS
<i>Main Line:</i> Hassi R'Mel-Relizane Relizane-Damesne	Apr. 1961	SOTHTRA	{ 253 50	{ 24 20	2,300	Previous capacity was 1,500 million cu. metre/year. In July 1963, a pump station was added preparatory to the exports to Europe, and capacity was raised to its present level.
<i>Branch lines:</i> Relizane-Algiers Damesne-Oran	July 1963	Electricité et Gaz d'Algérie	{ 168 21	{ 16 14		
Damesne-Arzew			{ 2 20	{ 20		
<i>Projected:</i> Hassi R'Mel-Skikda	1971	SONA-TRACH	360	40	6,000	To be doubled by end 1975.

OIL IN NORTH AFRICA--(MAJOR PIPELINES)

LIBYA CRUDE OIL

ROUTE	IN SERVICE	COMPANY	LENGTH (miles)	DIAMETER (inches)	CAPACITY (tons/year)
Dahra-Sidra	June 1962	Oasis	88	30	13,000,000
Waha-Dahra	July 1963	Oasis	150	32	10,000,000
Zelten-Mersa el Brega	Aug 1961	Esso	104	36	40,000,000
Reguba-Zelten	Jan 1963	Esso	57	20	4,000,000
Gialo-Waha	Sept. 1963	Oasis	100	30	n.a.
Hofra-Ras Lanuf	Dec 1964	Mobil	175	24/30	8,000,000
Amal-Ras Lanuf	March 1966	Mobil	176	30	5,000,000
Sarr-Tobruk	March 1967	B P.	357	34	20,000,000
Idris-Zuetina	Jan. 1968	Occidental	135	40	35,000,000*
<i>Under Construction*</i>					
Waha-Es Sider	1970	Oasis	168	24	10,000,000

* To reach ultimately 50,000,000.

NATURAL GAS

ROUTE	IN SERVICE	COMPANY	LENGTH (miles)	DIAMETER (inches)	CAPACITY (million cu. metres/year)
Zelten-Mersa el Brega	1968	Esso	110	36	3,650

THE SUEZ CANAL

The Suez Canal joins the Mediterranean and Red Seas between Port Said and Suez, in the United Arab Republic. It has been closed since the war of June 1967, and now forms the demarcation line between the U.A.R. and the Israeli-occupied Sinai peninsula.

ORGANIZATION

Suez Canal Authority (*Hay'at Canal Al-Suess*): Ismailia, U.A.R.; Chair. and Man. Dir. Eng. M. A. MASHOUR.
The Suez Canal Authority manages the Canal on behalf of the Government of the U.A.R.

PRINCIPAL FACTS

Length: 107 miles including approach fairways.

Maximum Depth: 50 ft.

Maximum Width: 660 ft.

Minimum Width: 600 ft.

Transit Time: Average transit time was fifteen hours.

CHRONOLOGY

- 1854 Ferdinand de Lesseps granted building concession.
- 1859 Excavation began.
- 1869 Canal opened.
- 1875 Ismail Pasha of Egypt sold his shares in the French Suez Canal Company (44% of total to the British Government for nearly £4m.).
- 1888 Convention of Constantinople declared Canal open to vessels of all nations.
- 1956 President Nasser of Egypt nationalized Canal. Canal closed (October) following invasion of Egypt.
- 1957 Canal re-opened under the control of the Egyptian Suez Canal Authority (April).
- 1959 World Bank lend Authority U.S.\$56.5m.
- 1961 UN surcharge of 3% on transit dues, levied in 1958 to pay for clearing the Canal, was lifted (March).
- 1964 Loan of £E9.8m. granted by Kuwait Fund for Arab Development for dredging and widening operations.
Permissible draught increased to 38 ft.
- 1965 Transit rates increased 1%, July.
- 1966 Transit rates increased 1%, July.
- 1967 Canal closed (June) during war with Israel.

IMPROVEMENT SCHEMES

In the years following the opening of the Canal the depth of the channel was 26.2 ft. (8 m.) and its breadth at the bottom 72.2 ft. (22 m.), with a wet cross-sectional area of 3,272 sq. ft. (304 sq. m.). The average gross tonnage of transiting vessels was then 1,700 tons and the highest authorised draught was 24.6 ft. (7.5 m.). Navigation speed was 6.21 miles (10 km.) per hour.

NASSER PROJECT

Seven programmes of improvement were executed between 1876 and 1954. The eighth programme had started before nationalization, was modified thereafter to achieve better results and is now called the Nasser Project. Under this scheme the Canal was widened and deepened to take large tankers. New navigational aids and dockyard facilities were built and tug and salvage services improved. A new railroad bridge was completed crossing the Canal at km. 68,150 from Port Said. A Research Centre has been founded at Ismailia.

Under the first stage, finished in 1961, the Canal was widened and deepened to take vessels of 37 ft. draught. Under the second stage, finished in 1964, the Canal was widened and deepened to take vessels of 38 ft. draught. The installation of two salvage stations and a system of direct radio between vessels and the traffic control station at Ismailia were finished during 1962.

THE SUEZ CANAL

STATISTICS

SUEZ CANAL TRAFFIC

YEAR	SHIPS		MERCHANDISE (000 tons)		NUMBER OF PASSENGERS	TOTAL TRANSIT RECEIPTS (E £ 000)
	NUMBER	NET TONNAGE (000 tons)	NORTHBOUND	SOUTHBOUND		
1957 Apr /Dec	10 958	89 911	67 219	14 104	188 361	24 514
1958	17 842	154 479	114 430	24 943	342 404	42 157
1959	17 731	163 386	121 749	26 505	326 446	44 536
1960	18 734	285 322	139 630	29 253	366 562	50 408
1961	18 148	187 059	139 599	32 795	322 842	51 088
1962	18 518	197 837	151 190	31 207	269 685	53 958
1963	19 146	210 498	159 482	34 050	297 955	71 194
1964	19 943	227 991	172 463	38 518	269 569	77 697
1965	20 289	246 817	183 441	42 001	291 085	85 792
1966	21 250	274 250	194 168	47 725	299 557	95 187

NORTHBOUND GOODS TRAFFIC (000 tons)

	1964	1965	1966
Crude petroleum	132 685	143 664	154 092
Petroleum products	11 976	11 422	12 626
Ores and Metals	6 745	7 116	6 490
Cereals	2 601	2 665	1 787
Oil Seeds	1 587	1 367	1 588
Textile fibres	1 918	1 861	1 838
Rubber	1 289	1 417	1 387
Oil seed cake	1 559	1 436	1 484
Sugar	1 270	1 287	1 338
Fruits	850	973	941
Wood	980	949	891
Tea	430	435	397
Others	8 573	8 829	9 309
TOTAL	172 463	183 441	194 168

SOUTHBOUND GOODS TRAFFIC (000 tons)

	1964	1965	1966
Crude petroleum	2 255	2 140	2 893
Petroleum products	3 881	5 768	6 060
Fabricated metals	5 096	4 727	5 015
Fertilisers	3 897	5 168	6 748
Cereals	8 190	8 042	9 738
Cement	1 760	1 215	1 497
Machinery and parts	1 411	1 506	1 464
Chemical products	974	1 040	1 017
Wood pulp and paper	764	681	675
Sugar	1 122	1 695	1 231
Salt	606	544	412
Lubricating oils	579	493	577
Ores and Metals	n a	404	925
Others	7 973	8 578	9 563
TOTAL	38 518	42 001	47 725

DISTRIBUTION OF NORTHBOUND CRUDE OIL 1966 (000 tons)

COUNTRY OF ORIGIN	To EUROPE	To AMERICAN COUNTRIES	To AFRICA	To OTHERS
Kuwait	56 624	1 881	160	24
Saudi Arabia	33 052	1 819	392	53
Iran	28 535	5 168	415	125
Abu Dhabi	9 210	185	—	—
Iraq	6 781	823	—	—
Qatar	5 730	—	—	—
U A R.	1 148	211	59	—
Indonesia	225	—	—	—
Bahrain	188	—	—	—
Others	1 240	44	—	—
TOTAL	142 733	10 131	1 026	202

THE SUEZ CANAL

FLAG DISTRIBUTION OF NET TONNAGE ([']ooo tons)

	1965		1966	
	TANKERS	ALL VESSELS	TANKERS	ALL VESSELS
United Kingdom	26,881	41,494	31,301	45,580
Liberia	46,126	48,390	53,260	56,455
Norway	33,852	37,450	40,282	43,840
France	13,255	16,082	13,730	16,517
Italy	10,712	14,368	11,394	15,231
Greece	7,879	12,673	6,930	12,554
Netherlands	6,104	9,685	5,457	9,106
Germany	4,069	8,136	3,825	7,904
U.S.A.	2,168	6,908	1,816	6,686
Sweden	5,674	6,862	6,992	8,196
Panama	6,332	7,358	6,530	7,755
U.S.S.R.	4,327	8,619	5,335	10,156
Denmark	4,668	5,881	5,325	6,775
Japan	1,383	2,945	4,104	5,896
Others	9,765	19,876	9,851	21,599
TOTAL	183,195	246,817	206,132	274,250

CARGO BY DESTINATION AND ORIGIN

NORTH OF CANAL ([']ooo tons)

	1964	1965	1966
North and West Europe and U.K.	100,589	99,387	98,887
Baltic Sea	4,828	4,119	4,584
North Mediterranean	53,110	66,637	78,034
East and South Mediterranean	4,624	4,308	4,084
West and South Mediterranean	4,423	4,332	4,464
Black Sea	11,176	12,604	13,848
America	21,649	22,595	26,234
Other	10,582	11,460	11,758
TOTAL	210,981	225,442	241,893

SOUTH OF CANAL ([']ooo tons)

	1964	1965	1966
Red Sea	8,124	7,132	6,523
East Africa and Aden	5,835	6,107	6,295
India, Pakistan, Burma and Ceylon	23,400	24,722	26,263
Persian Gulf	139,191	151,184	163,105
South-East Asia	7,144	7,566	8,583
Far East	14,742	16,230	19,532
Australia	5,792	5,963	5,292
Other	6,753	6,538	6,300
TOTAL	210,981	225,442	241,893

PART TWO

Regional Organizations

UNITED NATIONS IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

UNITED NATIONS TRUCE SUPERVISION ORGANIZATION—UNTSO

Government House, Jerusalem

Set up to maintain the 1949 Armistice Agreements between Egypt, Lebanon, Jordan and Syria on the one hand, and Israel on the other. Following the cease fire agreement between Israel and the U A R in July 1967, UN Observers were stationed on each side of the Suez Canal. In October 1967, the number of observers was increased to 214. There are 98 observers posted in the Suez Canal Sector and 91 observers posted along the Syria/Israel cease fire line.

Chief of Staff: Col. E. SILLASVUO (Finland).

UNITED NATIONS MIDDLE EAST MISSION—UNMEM

P.O. B. 2324, Nicosia, Cyprus

Established by the UN Security Council in November 1967* to form and maintain contact with the States concerned in the 1967 Arab-Israeli conflict, in order to assist efforts to achieve a peaceful and acceptable settlement in the area.

ORGANIZATION

Secretary-General's Special Representative: GUNNAR V. JARRING (Sweden)

* For text of resolution see p. 66

UNITED NATIONS PEACE-KEEPING FORCE IN CYPRUS—UNFICYP

P.O. Box 1842, Nicosia, Cyprus

Set up in March 1964 by Security Council Resolution for a three month period subsequently extended to June 1971. The purpose of the Force is to keep the peace between the Greek and Turkish communities pending a resolution of outstanding issues between them.

Commander: Maj. Gen. D. PREM CHAND (India)

Special Representative of the Secretary-General: BIBIANO F. OSORIO TAFALL (Mexico)

COMPOSITION OF FORCE

(December 1970)

	Military	Police
Australia	—	50
Austria (medical unit)	55	45
Canada	577	—
Denmark	296	40
Finland	288	—
Ireland	428	—
Sweden	285	40
United Kingdom	1 078	—
TOTAL	3 007	175

40 civilians are attached to UNFICYP
Grand Total 3 222

FINANCE

Provisional estimate of cost for the period from March 1964 to December 1970 was \$122 605 000

UNITED NATIONS IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

ECONOMIC COMMISSION FOR AFRICA—ECA

Africa Hall, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

Telephone: 47200.

Initiates and takes part in measures for facilitating Africa's economic development. Member countries must be independent, be members of the UN and within the geographical scope of the African continent and the islands bordering it. ECA was founded in 1958 by a resolution of ECOSOC as the fourth UN regional economic commission.

MEMBERS

Algeria	Guinea	Senegal
Botswana	Ivory Coast	Sierra Leone
Burundi	Kenya	Somalia
Cameroon	Lesotho	South Africa*
Central African Republic	Liberia	Sudan
Chad	Libya	Swaziland
Congo (Brazzaville)	Madagascar	Tanzania
Congo (Kinshasa)	Malawi	Togo
Dahomey	Mali	Tunisia
Equatorial Guinea	Mauritania	Uganda
Ethiopia	Morocco	United Arab Republic
Gabon	Niger	Upper Volta
The Gambia	Nigeria	Zambia
Ghana	Rwanda	

* Suspended by ECOSOC since 1963.

ASSOCIATE MEMBERS

- (a) Non-Self-Governing Territories situated within the geographical scope of the Commission.
- (b) Powers other than Portugal responsible for the international relations of those territories (France, Spain and the United Kingdom).

Associate Members may take part in the Commission's activities but may not vote.

ORGANIZATION

COMMISSION

Executive Secretary: ROBERT K. A. GARDINER (Ghana).

The Commission has held nine sessions since its inception:

1958	December	Addis Ababa
1960	January	Addis Ababa
1961	February	Tangier
1962	February	Addis Ababa

1963	February	Léopoldville
1964	February	Addis Ababa
1965	February	Nairobi
1967	February	Lagos
1969	February	Addis Ababa
1971	February	Tunis

Sub-Regional Offices: Lusaka, Niamey, Tangier, Kinshasa.

ACTIVITIES

The work of the Commission is determined by decisions of its plenary sessions. The Commission is charged with the responsibility of promoting and facilitating concerted action for the economic and social development of Africa; to maintain and strengthen the economic relations of African countries, both among themselves and with other countries of the world; to undertake or sponsor investigations, research and studies of economic and technological problems and developments; to collect, evaluate and disseminate economic, technological and statistical information; and to assist in the formulation and development of co-ordinated policies in promoting economic and technological development in the region.

During 1969, ECA's ninth session recommended the setting up of new institutional machinery on the following pattern: (a) *Regular biennial sessions* to be held at ministerial level and called *ECA Conference of Ministers*. This would consist of Ministers of Member States responsible for economic affairs, and it would, among other things, review the programme of the preceding two years; (b) *Technical Committee of Experts* to meet once a year. It would be composed of senior officials of Member States concerned with economic affairs, and it would examine studies prepared by the ECA Secretariat and assist in the formulation of the work programme aimed at ensuring co-operation between the Secretariat and member govern-

UNITED NATIONS IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

ments and (c) an *Executive Committee* to meet twice a year. This includes officers of the Conference of Ministers plus two representatives from each sub-region, two African members of the Economic and Social Council and two African members of the Governing Council of the United Nations Development Programme representing English and French speaking countries. The Committee provides a link between the ECA Secretariat Member States and sub-regions. It also fosters co-operation between the Commission, United Nations bodies and international agencies concerned with development in Africa. It met twice during 1969 and twice during 1970 (May and October).

WHO maintains a liaison office at ECA in co-operation with ITU work has begun on a pan African telecom

munications system. ECA also runs a Joint Agricultural Division in conjunction with FAO.

Co-operation between ECA and the Organization of African Unity started with the signing of a UN/OAU agreement by the Secretary General of the United Nations U Thant and the Secretary General of the OAU Diallo Telli on November 15th 1965.

During 1970 the following joint meetings took place: Fifth Joint Meeting of the ECA Working Party on Intra African Trade and the OAU Expert Committee on Trade and Development (Geneva August); Joint ECA/OAU Meeting of African Members of IBRD/IMF (Copenhagen September).

PUBLICATIONS

Economic Bulletin for Africa (twice yearly)
The Statistical Newsletter (quarterly)
Foreign Trade Newsletter (quarterly)
Agricultural Economic Bulletin (twice yearly)
Social Welfare Services in Africa (thrice yearly)
Natural Resources Science and Technology Newsletter (quarterly)
Foreign Trade Statistics for Africa Series A Direction of Trade (quarterly)

Foreign Trade Statistics for Africa Series B Trade by Commodities (thrice yearly)
African Target (quarterly)
Planning Newsletter (bi monthly)
Quarterly Statistical Bulletin
Social Work Training Newsletter (quarterly)
Training Information Notice (quarterly)

AFRICAN INSTITUTE FOR ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT AND PLANNING

Dakar, Senegal

An autonomous organ of the ECA opened in 1963 with Special Fund assistance to train senior African officials in techniques of development planning and to serve as a

clearing house and documentation centre on all African development questions.

Director: DAVID CARNEY (Sierra Leone)

UNITED NATIONS RELIEF AND WORKS AGENCY FOR PALESTINE REFUGEES IN THE NEAR EAST—UNRWA

Museibeh Quarter, Beirut, Lebanon

Founded in 1950 to provide relief, health, education and welfare services for needy Palestine refugees in the Near East.

(For full details of UNRWA see chapter Refugees in the Middle East)

UNITED NATIONS IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

UNITED NATIONS DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME—UNDP

New York City, U.S.A.

Established in 1965 to replace the Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance and the UN Special Fund.

Aden: Resident Rep. of UNDP in the Democratic People's Republic of Yemen, P.O.B. 1188, Tawahi, Aden, Yemen P.D.R.

Algiers: Resident Rep. of UNDP in Algeria, B.P. 803 B.P., Algiers, Algeria.

Amman: Resident Rep. of UNDP in Jordan, P.O.B. 565, Amman, Jordan.

Ankara: Resident Rep. of UNDP in Turkey, P.K. 407, Ankara, Turkey.

Baghdad: Resident Rep. of UNDP in Iraq, P.O.B. 2048, Alwiyah Post Office, Baghdad, Iraq.

Beirut: Resident Rep. of UNDP in Lebanon, P.O.B. 3216, Beirut, Lebanon.

Cairo: Resident Rep. of UNDP in the U.A.R., P.O.B. 982, Cairo, United Arab Republic.

Damascus: Resident Rep. of UNDP in the Syrian Arab Republic, P.O.B. 2317, Damascus, Syrian Arab Republic.

Jerusalem: Resident Rep. of UNDP in Israel, 39 Jabotinsky St., Komemiut (Talbieh), Jerusalem, Israel.

Kabul: Resident Rep. of UNDP in Afghanistan, P.O.B. 5, Kabul, Afghanistan.

Khartoum: Resident Rep. of UNDP in the Sudan, P.O.B. 913, Khartoum, Sudan.

Kuwait: Resident Rep. of UNDP in Kuwait, P.O.B. 2993, Kuwait.

Nicosia: Resident Rep. of UNDP, P.O.B. 1835, Nicosia, Cyprus.

Rabat: Resident Rep. of UNDP in Morocco, B.P. 524, Rabat, Morocco.

Riyadh: Resident Rep. of UNDP in Saudi Arabia, P.O.B. 558, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.

Sana'a: Resident Rep. of UNDP in the Yemen Arab Republic, P.O.B. 551, Sana'a, Yemen.

Teheran: Resident Rep. of UNDP in Iran, P.O.B. 1555, Teheran, Iran.

Tripoli: Resident Rep. of UNDP in Libya, P.O.B. 358, Tripoli, Libya.

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**CURRENT MAJOR PROJECTS OF UNDP IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA,
AND EXECUTING AGENCIES**

Afghanistan: Allocation of \$1,109,900 for assistance to the Afghan Air Authority (ICAO).

Algeria: Allocation of \$1,109,800 for forestry development and management (FAO).

Cyprus: Allocation of \$1,038,400 for Higher Technical Institute, Nicosia (UNESCO).

Iran: Allocation of \$1,058,900 for Research Centre for Industrial and Trade Development (UNIDO).

Iraq: Allocation of \$1,046,300 for Animal Health Institute (FAO).

Israel: Allocation of \$730,900 for an electrodialysis pilot plant at Mashabei Sade.

Jordan: Allocation of \$1,068,600 for dryland farming (FAO).

Kuwait: Allocation of \$568,400 for Water Resources Centre (UN).

Lebanon: Allocation of \$1,011,100 for hydro-agricultural development (FAO).

Libya: Allocation of \$1,520,500 for National Institute of Public Administration, Tripoli (UN).

Morocco: Allocation of \$1,051,700 for forestry education and training (FAO).

Saudi Arabia: Allocation of \$930,600 for Farm Engineering Centre, Riyadh (FAO).

Sudan: Allocation of \$877,700 for Higher Teacher Training Institute, Omdurman (Phase II) (UNESCO).

Syria: Allocation of \$1,313,900 for agricultural development of the Ghab region (FAO).

Tunisia: Allocation of \$1,162,500 for training of farm managers and farm accountants (FAO).

Turkey: Allocation of \$1,041,700 for mineral exploration in two areas (UN).

United Arab Republic: Allocation of \$1,053,600 for Demonstration Pesticide Production Plant based on Chlorine and Bromine resources (UNIDO).

Yemen Arab Republic: Allocation of \$914,300 for survey of agricultural potential of the Wadi Zabid (FAO).

The following regional project is also in progress:

Centre for Industrial Studies for the Maghreb: Allocation of \$1,454,900. Participating countries: Algeria, Morocco, Tunisia. (UNIDO.)

UNITED NATIONS IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA
INTERNATIONAL BANK FOR RECONSTRUCTION AND
DEVELOPMENT--IBRD (WORLD BANK)

1818 H Street, N W , Washington, D C 20433, U S.A

Aims to assist the economic development of member nations by making loans in cases where private capital is not available on reasonable terms to finance productive investments. Loans are made either direct to governments or to private enterprise with the guarantee of their governments

LOANS TO MIDDLE EASTERN AND NORTH AFRICAN COUNTRIES (U S \$ 000)

Total Loans
(1947 June 1970)

COUNTRY	AMOUNT
Algeria	80 500
Cyprus	34 568
Iran	453 238
Iraq	29 293
Israel	134 412
Lebanon	27 000
Morocco	143 049
Sudan	134 000
Tunisia	76 835
Turkey	144 184
U A R.	56 500
TOTAL	1 313 579

(July 1969-June 1970)

COUNTRY	PURPOSE	AMOUNT
Cyprus	Power	5 000
Iran	Roads Agriculture	48 500
Israel	Industry	25 000
Morocco	Roads Agriculture Industry	68 300
Tunisia	Industry	10 000

UNITED NATIONS IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT ASSOCIATION—IDA

1818 H Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20433, U.S.A.

The International Development Association began operations in November 1960. Affiliated to the World Bank, IDA advances capital on more flexible terms to developing countries.

DEVELOPMENT CREDITS TO MIDDLE EASTERN AND NORTH AFRICAN COUNTRIES (U.S. \$'000)

TOTAL CREDITS (1960-June 1970)	
COUNTRY	AMOUNT
Afghanistan	13,500
Jordan	10,015
Morocco	18,300
Sudan	21,500
Syria	8,500
Tunisia	42,862
Turkey	92,452
U.A.R.	26,000
TOTAL	207,129

(July 1969-June 1970)		
COUNTRY	PURPOSE	AMOUNT
Afghanistan	Agriculture	5,000
Morocco	Roads	7,300
Tunisia	Water Supply	10,500
U.A.R.	Agriculture	26,000

INTERNATIONAL FINANCE CORPORATION—IFC

1818 H Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20433, U.S.A.

Founded in 1956 as an affiliate of the World Bank to encourage the growth of productive private enterprise in its member countries, particularly in the less-developed areas.

IFC INVESTMENTS IN MIDDLE EASTERN
AND NORTH AFRICAN COUNTRIES

(up to June 30th, 1969)

(U.S.\$)

COUNTRY	OPERATIONAL INVESTMENTS	STANDBY AND UNDERWRITING COMMITMENTS
Iran	4,173,980	—
Morocco	2,884,260	—
Sudan	688,893	—
Tunisia	13,980,688	—
Turkey	4,968,611	—
TOTAL	56,448,176	3,715,527

UNITED NATIONS IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

OTHER UN ORGANIZATIONS

ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COUNCIL—ECOSOC

New York City, U.S.A.

UN Economic and Social Office in Beirut: P O B 4656, Beirut Lebanon

FOOD AND AGRICULTURE ORGANIZATION—FAO

Rome, Italy

FAO Regional Office for the Near East: FAO Regional Rep, P O B 2223 Agricultural Credit Bank Building 110 Kasr el Emu St, Garden City Cairo, United Arab Republic

FAO Regional Office for Africa: FAO Regional Rep, P O Box 1628, UN Agency Building North Maxwell Road, Accra Ghana

UNITED NATIONS EDUCATIONAL, SCIENTIFIC AND CULTURAL ORGANIZATION—UNESCO

Paris, France

UNESCO Regional Centre for Science and Technology for the Arab States: 8 Sh el Salamik, Garden City, Cairo, U A R., f 1947 as the UNESCO Middle East Science Co-operation Office, name changed 1967, promotes regional co-operation and assists members in the following fields: planning of scientific development, activities to promote advancement of science (basic science teaching, scientific and technical documentation, earth sciences, biological sciences research on natural resources, marine sciences), activities aimed at promoting the application of science to economic development (technical education, applied research in engineering science and agriculture)

WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION—WHO

Geneva, Switzerland

WHO Regional Office for the Eastern Mediterranean: The Director, P O Box 1517, Alexandria, United Arab Republic

WHO Regional Office for Africa: The Director, P O Box 6, Brazzaville, Republic of Congo

INTERNATIONAL CIVIL AVIATION ORGANIZATION—ICAO

Montreal, Canada

ICAO Regional Office for the Middle East and Eastern Africa: 16 Hassan Sabri, Zamalek, Cairo, U.A.R.

ICAO Regional Office for Africa: P O B 2356, 15 boulevard de la République Dakar, Senegal

INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANIZATION—ILO

Geneva, Switzerland

ILO Regional Office for Africa: Chamber of Commerce Building Mexico Square, P O B 2788, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

ILO Area Office in Algiers: 19 avenue Claude Debussy, B P 216, Algiers, Algeria

ILO Area Office in Beirut: B P. 4656, Beirut, Lebanon

ILO Area Office in Cairo: 9 Sharia Wilcocks Zamalek, Cairo, U A R

ILO Area Office in Istanbul: Gümüşsuyu Caddesi 96, Ayazpaşa Istanbul, Turkey

UNITED NATIONS CHILDREN FUND—UNICEF

New York City, U.S.A.

UNICEF Field Office for the Eastern Mediterranean: Office of the Director, UNESCO Building P O B 5902, Beirut, Lebanon (covers Cyprus, Israel, Jordan, Lebanon Saudi Arabia and Syria)

Cairo: UNICEF Rep, 7 Sharia Lazoghli, Garden City Cairo, United Arab Republic (covers Libya Southern Yemen, Sudan U A R. and Yemen)

Teheran: UNICEF Rep, P O B 1314 Teheran Iran (covers Iran and Iraq)

UNICEF Field Office for Europe and North Africa: Office of the Director, 20 rue Pauline Borghese, Neuilly sur-Seine 92, France

Algiers: UNICEF Rep B P 585 R P, Algiers Algeria (covers Algeria, Morocco and Tunisia)

Ankara: UNICEF Rep, P K 76, Yenisehir, Ankara Turkey

Kabul: UNICEF Rep, P O B 54, Kabul, Afghanistan

UNITED NATIONS INFORMATION CENTRES

Algiers: B P 803, 19 avenue Claude Debussy, Algiers, Algeria

Athens: 36 Amalia Ave, Athens 119 Greece (covers Cyprus Greece, Israel and Turkey)

Baghdad: P O B 2048 (Alwiyah), 27 J2/1 Abu Nouwas St, Bataween Baghdad, Iraq

Beirut: P O B 4656, Bir Hassan, Beirut Lebanon (covers Jordan Kuwait Lebanon and Syria)

UNITED NATIONS IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Cairo: B.P. 262 Sharia Osoris, Tagher Building, Garden City Cairo, United Arab Republic (covers Saudi Arabia, U.A.R. and Yemen).

Kabul: P.O.B. 5, Shah Mahmoud Ghazi Watt, Kabul, Afghanistan.

Khartoum: P.O.B. 1992, House No. 9, Block 6.5.D.E., Nejumi St., Khartoum, Sudan.

Rabat: B.P. 524, Angle ave. Urbain Blanc et rue de Nimes, Rabat, Morocco.

Teheran: P.O.B. 1555, Off Takhte-Jamshid, 12 Kh. Bandar Pahlavi, Teheran, Iran.

Tunis: B.P. 863, 61 Blvd. Bab Benat, Tunis, Tunisia. (covers Libya and Tunisia).

TEXT OF UN SECURITY COUNCIL RESOLUTION OF NOVEMBER 22nd, 1967

"The Security Council,

Expressing its continued concern with the grave situation in the Middle East,

Emphasizing the inadmissibility of the acquisition of territory by war and the need to work for a just and lasting peace in which every state in the area can live in security,

Emphasizing further that all Member States in their acceptance of the Charter of the United Nations have undertaken a commitment to act in accordance with Article 2 of the Charter.

1. Affirms that the fulfilment of the establishment of a just and lasting peace in the Middle East which should include the application of both the following principles:

- (i) withdrawal of Israeli armed forces from territories occupied in the recent conflict;
- (ii) termination of all claims or states of belligerency and respect for and acknowledgement of the sovereignty, territorial integrity and political independence of every State in the

area and their right to live in peace within secure and recognized boundaries free from threats or acts of force.

2. Affirms further the necessity

- (a) for guaranteeing freedom of navigation through international waterways in the area;
- (b) for achieving a just settlement of the refugee problem;
- (c) for guaranteeing the territorial inviolability and political independence of every State in the area, through measures including the establishment of demilitarized zones;

3. Requests the Secretary-General to designate a Special Representative to proceed to the Middle East to establish and maintain contacts with the States concerned in order to promote agreement and assist efforts to achieve a peaceful and accepted settlement in accordance with the provisions and principles in this resolution.

4. Requests the Secretary-General to report to the Security Council on the progress of the efforts of the Special Representative as soon as possible."

AFRICAN DEVELOPMENT BANK—AfDB

R P. 1387, Abidjan, Ivory Coast

Established September 1964 under the aegis of the UN Economic Commission for Africa the Bank began operations in July 1966

MEMBERS

Total Membership 31 African countries

ORGANIZATION

BOARD OF GOVERNORS

Composed of one representative from each member state

BOARD OF DIRECTORS

Consists of nine members responsible for the general operations of the Bank

President and Chairman of Board of Directors ABDELWAHEB LAIDI (Tunisia)

Vice Presidents Sheikh M. A. ALAMOODY (Kenya) LOUIS NEARE (Mali) OLA VINCENT (Nigeria)

FINANCIAL STRUCTURE

The initial authorized capital stock of the Bank consisting of 250 000 shares is equivalent to \$250 million. It is to be subscribed solely by African countries. Half of the capital stock will be paid up the other half remains callable. Each member must subscribe equally to both paid up shares and callable shares. The paid up capital stock was to be paid in gold or convertible currency in six instalments over a period of five years ending March 1969.

At December 31st 1968 the equivalent of \$217.8 million had been subscribed of which \$65.3 million had been paid in by May 31st 1970.

COUNTRY	SUBSCRIPTIONS (million US \$)
Algeria	24.5
Burundi	1.2
Cameroon	4.0
Chad	1.6
Congo (Brazzaville)	1.5
Congo (Democratic Republic)	13.0
Dahomey	1.4
Ethiopia	10.3
Ghana	12.8
Guinea	2.5
Ivory Coast	6.0
Kenya	6.0
Liberia	2.6
Malawi	2.0
Mali	2.3
Mauritania	1.1
Morocco	15.1
Niger	1.6
Nigeria	24.1
Rwanda	1.2
Senegal	5.5
Sierra Leone	2.1
Somalia	2.2
Sudan	10.1
Tanzania	6.3
Togo	1.0
Tunisia	6.9
Uganda	4.6
United Arab Republic	30.0
Upper Volta	1.3
Zambia	13.0
TOTAL	217.8

AIMS AND ACTIVITIES

The Bank seeks to contribute to the economic and social development of members either individually or jointly. To this end it aims to promote investment of public and private capital in Africa to use its normal capital resources to make or guarantee loans and investments and to provide technical assistance in the preparation, financing and implementation of development projects. The Bank may grant direct or indirect credits; it may operate alone or in concert with other financial institutions.

A Pre Investment Unit has been established within the Bank. For the purpose of identification, evaluation and preparation of projects in member countries the UNDP is to provide \$2.7 million and the Bank \$2.2 million over a

five year period. A coordinating committee for the identification of multinational projects in the field of power, transport and telecommunications has been established with ECA, IBRD and UNDP under the chairmanship of the African Development Bank. The Bank has entered into an agreement of co-operation with FAO and UNESCO and it is now in the process of establishing formal working relationships and co-operation with other specialized agencies of the United Nations. It is one of the executing agencies for UNDP projects in Africa.

In order to increase its capital resources and raise money for lending at concessionary terms, the Bank has promoted the establishment of an African Development Fund at

AFRICAN DEVELOPMENT BANK

special fund within the meaning of its Agreement. Contributions to the proposed fund are open to industrialized countries. From the contacts already made, very promising reactions have been received.

Together with a number of private banks, AfDB is promoting the International Financial Corporation for Investment and Development in Africa (Société internationale financière pour les investissements et le développement en Afrique—SIFIDA), registered in Luxembourg in July 1970, with a capital of \$12.5 million.

Other activities of the Bank are in the field of co-operation with national finance institutions, by joint

financing of projects, equity participation in national finance institutions by the Bank, joint financing and appraisal of projects and the granting of technical assistance.

The Bank is participating in a study regarding possible economic co-operation between Ghana and its neighbours, the Entente States (*see* chapter on Conseil de l'Entente), which would assist the promotion of trade between the six countries and also facilitate the establishment of larger industries which for their economic viability need a large market.

In association with UN, the Bank has also undertaken a survey on tourism in fourteen west African countries.

LOANS

DATE	COUNTRY	PURPOSE	AMOUNT (million U.S. \$)
April 1967 . . .	Kenya	Improvement of two international highways	2.3
June 1968 . . .	Tunisia	Medjerda Valley irrigation scheme	2.75
July 1968 . . .	Sierra Leone	Investment in Sierra Leone National Development Bank	0.12
Sept. 1968 . . .	Uganda	Water supply and sewerage schemes	0.23
July 1969 . . .	Liberia	Foreign exchange costs of 15 MW gas turbine for Monrovia electric power system	1.35
	East African Development Bank	Participation in equity capital	1.0
		Line of credit	2.0
1969	Sierra Leone	To Guma Valley Water Co. to increase water supply capacity	1.5
	Malawi	Electricity Supply Commission project	3.0
	Morocco	Construction of high frequency power transmission and telecommunications lines	2.8
	Mali	Construction of textile plant	0.54
	Upper Volta	Line of Credit to National Development Bank of Upper Volta	2.0

PRINCIPAL EVENTS

1961		Feasibility studies on the setting up of a regional development bank by multinational panel of experts.	1966 July	Second annual meeting of Board of Governors.
1962		UN Economic Commission for Africa sets up Special Committee of nine member states to begin making arrangements to form Bank.	1967 Aug.	Topographical and soil survey on section of proposed TanZam railway commissioned.
				Third annual meeting of Board of Governors, Abidjan.
1963 Aug.		Conference of African Finance Ministers approves formation agreements.	Oct.	Co-operative programme agreed with FAO.
			1968 Aug.	Fourth annual meeting of Board of Governors, Nairobi.
1964 Sept.		Formation agreement comes into force; 65 per cent of authorized capital stock subscribed.	1969 June	Co-operation agreed with UNESCO.
			Aug.	Fifth meeting of Board of Governors, Freetown.
Nov.		Inaugural meeting of Board of Governors, Lagos.	1970 Aug.	Sixth annual meeting of Board of Governors, Fort-Lamy.
1964 Nov.		Lagos. Officials elected, Abidjan chosen as headquarters.		

PUBLICATIONS

Annual Report.
Quarterly Statements.

THE ARAB LEAGUE

Midan Al Tahrir, Cairo, U A R

The League of Arab States is a voluntary association of sovereign Arab states designed to strengthen the close ties linking them and to co-ordinate their policies and activities and direct them towards the common good of all the Arab countries.

MEMBERS

Algeria
Iraq
Jordan
Kuwait
Lebanon

Libya
Morocco
Saudi Arabia
Sudan
Syria

Tunisia
United Arab Republic
Yemen Arab Republic
Yemen People's Democratic Republic



ORGANIZATION

THE COUNCIL

The supreme organ of the Arab League. Meets in March and September. Consists of representatives of the fourteen member states each of which has one vote, and a representative for Palestine.

PERMANENT COMMITTEES

There are ten Permanent Committees for Political, Cultural, Economical, Social, Military, Legal Affairs, Information, Health, Communications and Arab Human Rights.

SECRETARIAT

Secretary General MUHAMMAD ABDEL-KHALEK HASSOUNA (U A R.)

Assistant Secretaries General Dr S NOFAL (U A R.) AREF ZAHER (Iraq) ASSAD EL ASSAD (Lebanon) SELIM EL YAFI (Syria)

Military Assistant Secretary Gen SAAD EL DIN EL SHAZLY (U A R.)

Economic Assistant Secretary AREF ZAHER (Iraq)

THE ARAB LEAGUE

The Secretariat has departments of Economic, Political, Legal, Cultural, Social and Labour affairs, and for Petroleum, Finance, Palestine, Health, Press and Information, Secretariat, Communications, and Protocol.

ECONOMIC COUNCIL

Established in 1950; first meeting 1953; composed of the Ministers of Economic Affairs or their representatives.

COUNCIL OF ARAB ECONOMIC UNITY

In June 1957 the Economic Council approved a Convention for Economic Unity; the Economic Unity Agreement has been signed by Jordan (1962), Syria (1962), U.A.R. (1962), Kuwait (1962), Morocco (1962), Iraq (1963), Yemen (1963) and Sudan (1968). It has been ratified by Kuwait (1962), U.A.R. (1963), Syria (1964), Iraq (1964), Jordan (1964), Yemen (1967) and Sudan (1969). After ratification by five members a *Council of Arab Economic Unity* was set up in June 1964: the aims of the Arab Economic Unity Agreement include removal of internal tariffs, establishing common external tariffs, freedom of movement of labour and capital, and adoption of common economic policies; Sec.-Gen. ABDEL MUNEIM EL BANNA (see below: text of Arab Economic Unity Agreement, and further details).

In August 1964 U.A.R., Iraq, Kuwait, Syria and Jordan ratified a resolution establishing the *Common Market of Arab States*, to operate from January 1st, 1965. Kuwait's National Assembly voted against implementation of the agreement in July 1965.

SPECIALIZED AGENCY

Arab Educational, Cultural and Scientific Organization: Cairo; proposed by Charter of Arab Cultural Unity, Baghdad 1964; aims to promote the ideals of Arab Cultural Unity (see below) and particularly to establish specialized institutes propagating Arab ideals and preparing research workers specializing in Arab civilization.

Director-General: Dr. ABDEL-AZIZ EL SAYED.

An Arab League Permanent Delegation has been established at UNESCO, and may act on behalf of Arab states not having delegates at UNESCO.

Each member state submits an annual report on progress in education, cultural matters, and science.

First session of General Conference was held in Cairo, July-August 1970.

The Organization includes:

Arab Regional Literacy Organization: Cairo.

Institute of Arab Research and Studies: Cairo.

Institute of Arabic Manuscripts.

Permanent Bureau for Co-ordination of Arabization in the Arab World: Rabat.

Museum of Arab Culture: Cairo.

OTHER BODIES

Joint Defence Council: Established in 1950 to implement joint defence; consists of the Foreign Ministers and Defence Ministers, or their representatives.

Permanent Military Commission: Established 1950; composed of representatives of army General Staffs; main purpose: to draw up plans of joint defence for submission to the Joint Defence Council.

Arab States Broadcasting Union: Cairo.

Federation of Arab News Agencies: Beirut; f. 1965; this Federation will work on the establishment of an Arab Central News Agency.

Arab Financial Institution for Economic Development: A resolution was passed in 1957 to establish an Arab Development Bank; U.A.R., Yemen, Saudi Arabia, Jordan, Lebanon, Libya, Iraq and Kuwait signed the resolution; capital £20 million in gold; Kuwait has declared she will contribute a further £E 5 million.

Arab Postal Union: 28 Adly Street, Cairo, U.A.R.; f. 1954; Aims: to establish more strict postal relations between the Arab countries than those laid down by the Universal Postal Union, to pursue the development and modernization of postal services in member countries; Dir. Dr. ANOUAR BAKIR. Publs. *Bulletin* (monthly), *Review* (quarterly), *News* (annual) and occasional studies.

Arab Telecommunications Union: 83 Ramses Street, Cairo, U.A.R.; f. 1958; to co-ordinate and develop telecommunications between member countries; to exchange technical aid and encourage research. Mems.: Arab League countries; Pres. MAHMOUD MUHAMMAD RIAD.

Permanent Commission for the Problems of the Arab Gulf Emirates: Established in 1965 to assist the economic development of the Gulf states; Chair. KHALED AL BADR.

Arab Labour Organization: Arab League Building, Midan Al Tahrir, Cairo; established in 1965 for co-operation between member states in labour problems; unification of labour legislation and general conditions of work wherever possible; research; technical assistance; social insurance; training, etc.; Dir. of Social and Labour Affairs of the Arab League Dr. ABDEL-WAHAB EL-ASCHMAOUI.

Palestine Liberation Organization: Amman; f. 1964; this organization is separate from the Arab League, which provides it with funds and support; Chair. YASIR ARAFAT; Chief of Staff Palestine Liberation Army Col. OSMAN HADDAD.

Arab Board for the Diversion of the Jordan River: Cairo; f. 1964 to co-ordinate engineering aspects of diverting the headwaters of the River Jordan, to deprive Israel of water; main projects include the Mukhaiba Dam on the River Yarmuk (Jordan), to be linked by tunnel to the East Ghor Irrigation Scheme, and to serve as a storage dam for water diverted from rivers farther north (Litani, Hasbani, Wazzani and Banias); the activities of the Board have been interrupted by the Arab-Israeli hostilities.

Arab Unified Military Command: Cairo; f. 1964 to co-ordinate military policies with regard to the liberation of Palestine.

Arab Organization for Standardization and Metrology (ASMO): 11 Mohamed Marashly St., Zamalek, P.O.B. 690, Cairo, U.A.R.; f. 1968 to assist in the establishment of national standardization and metrology bodies in the Arab States, co-ordinate and unify specifications and standards; to unify technical terms and symbols, methods of testing, analysis, measurements, calibration and quality control systems; and to co-ordinate Arab activities in these areas with corresponding international efforts. Mems.: Algeria, Iraq, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Libya, Morocco, Saudi Arabia, Sudan, Syria, U.A.R. Sec.-Gen. Dr. MAHMOUD

THE ARAB LEAGUE

MOHAMAD SALAMA (U A R.) *Publs Annual Report* (in French and English) *Standardization and Metrology* (in Arabic) reports recommendations and information pamphlets

Arab Council for Civil Aviation 10 El Nil St Cairo f 1967 to control and co-ordinate the technical aspects of aviation between member countries

Arab Air Carriers' Organization (AACO) 707 South Bloc STARCO rue George Picot Lebanon f 1955 to co-ordinate and promote co-operation in the activities of Arab airline companies Pres (1970-71) Gen ZOUHEIR AKKEL Sec Gen SALIM A SALAM

Arab Union of Automobile Clubs and Tourist Societies 8 Kasr El Nil St Cairo f 1965

Arab Engineering Union 81 Ramses St Cairo co operates with the Arab League in matters concerning the engineering profession holds a conference on scientific engineering studies every two years

Arab Cities Organization P O B 4954 Kuwait f 1967 deals with the scientific cultural and social aspects of town development planning administration, etc holds conferences every two years—next Conference Tunis summer 1971 the main Arab Town Councils are members 44 were represented at the First Conference in Beirut Dir TALEB AL-TAHER

Arab Organization for Administrative Sciences 8 Salaheldin St Cairo f 1969 to develop administrative sciences and improve administrative machinery and

financial affairs related to administration Pres Dr HASSAN TEWFIK

Administrative Tribunal of the Arab League Cairo f 1964 began operations 1966

SPECIAL BUREAUX

Bureau for Boycotting Israel, Damascus Commissioner General MUHAMMAD MANGOUR

Pan Arab Organization for Social Defence against Crime Arab League Bldg Midan Al Tahrir Cairo Sec Gen Dr ABDEL WAHHAB EL-ASCHMAOUI

The International Arab Bureau for Narcotics Cairo Dir Gen. Gen AHMAD AMEN ALHADIDAN (U A R.)

The International Arab Bureau for Defence against Crime Baghdad Dir Gen AMER AL-MONTAR (Iraq)

The International Arab Bureau for Police dealing with Crime Damascus Dir Gen ASHRAF ELDERY (Syria)

Arab Students Hostel, for women Cairo

SPECIAL INSTITUTE

Library Cairo

Information Offices New York (with branches at Washington Chicago San Francisco Dallas) Geneva Bonn Rio de Janeiro London New Delhi Rome Ottawa Buenos Aires Tokyo Paris, Dakar and Nairobi Offices are planned in Addis Ababa Ankara Lagos, Copenhagen and Madrid

BUDGET

CONTRIBUTIONS (%)

(1970)

U A R.	15 16	Tunisia	4 67
Kuwait	15 00	Sudan	4 25
Saudi Arab a	12 47	Lebanon	3 00
Iraq	12 20	Jordan	1 50
Morocco	7 25	Libya	13 30
Syria	3 00	Yemen A R.	1 00
Algeria	6 20	Yemen P D R.	1 00
			100 00

EXPENDITURE 1969-70

	£	\$
<i>General Secretariat</i>	758 739	3 238 750
<i>Institute of Arab Research and Studies</i>	79 073	18 500
<i>Pan Arab Organization for Social Defence against Crime</i>	18 329	66 112
<i>Permanent Bureau for Co-ordination of Arabizat on in the Arab World</i>	—	226 378
<i>Industrial Development Centre</i>	139 175	617 260
<i>Arab Regional Literacy Organization</i>	69 365	180 760
TOTAL	1 064 681	4 347 760

THE ARAB LEAGUE

RECORD OF EVENTS

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| <p>1945 Pact of the Arab League signed, March.</p> <p>1946 Cultural Treaty signed.</p> <p>1950 Joint Defence and Economic Co-operation Treaty.</p> <p>1952 Agreements on extradition, writs and letters of request, nationality of Arabs outside their country of origin.</p> <p>1953 Formation of Arab Telecommunications and Radio Communications Union.
Agreements for facilitating trade between Arab countries.
Founding of Institute of Advanced Arab Studies, Cairo.</p> <p>1953 Convention on the privileges and immunities of the League.
First Conference of Arab Education Ministers, Cairo, December.</p> <p>1954 Formation of Arab Postal Union.
Nationality Agreement.</p> <p>1956 Agreement on the adoption of a Common Tariff Nomenclature. Establishment of the Arab Potassium Company.</p> <p>1957 Agreement on the creation of Arab Financial Institution for Economic Development, June.</p> <p>1957 Cultural Agreement with UNESCO signed, November.</p> <p>1958 Co-operation Agreement between the Arab League and the International Labour Organisation.</p> <p>1959 First Arab Oil Congress, Cairo, April.</p> <p>1960 Inauguration of new Arab League HQ at Midan Al Tahrir, Cairo, March.
Second Arab Petroleum Congress, Beirut, October.
Co-operation Agreement between the Arab League and the Food and Agriculture Organization of the UN.</p> <p>1961 Agreement to establish a Universal Arab Airline.
Third Arab Petroleum Congress, Alexandria.
Kuwait joins League.
Arab League force sent to Kuwait.
Syrian Arab Republic rejoins League as independent member.</p> <p>-- Agreement on the establishment of the Arab Organization for Administrative Sciences.
Agreement with WHO on exchange of medical information, May.</p> <p>1962 Agreement to establish economic unity (<i>see below: sections on Council of Arab Economic Unity and on Arab Economic Unity Agreement</i>).
Council Meeting at Shtoura, Lebanon in August, to hear Syrian complaints against the U.A.R.</p> | <p>U.A.R. announced intention of leaving Arab League.
Council Meeting re-convened at Cairo in September to reappoint Secretary-General. Boycotted by U.A.R.</p> <p>1963 Arab League decides to withdraw troops from Kuwait, leaving only token force, January-February.
U.A.R. resumes active membership of League, March.
Agreement to establish an Arab Navigation Company, December.
Agreement on establishment of an Arab Organization on Social Defence against Crime.
Fourth Arab Petroleum Congress, Beirut, November.</p> <p>1964 Cairo conference of Arab leaders on the exploitation by Israel of the Jordan waters, January.
Second Conference of Arab Education Ministers, Baghdad, February.
First session of the Council of Arab Information Ministers, Cairo, March.
Arab Common Market approved by Arab Economic Unity Council, August.
Second meeting on Jordan waters, September.
First Conference of Arab Ministers of Communications, Beirut, November.</p> <p>1965 Arab Common Market established, January.
Emergency meeting on German recognition of Israel, March.
Fifth Arab Petroleum Congress, Cairo, March.</p> <p>1965 Second session of the Council of Arab Information Ministers, Amman, April.
Third Meeting on Jordan waters, May. Tunisia absent.
Casablanca Conference of Arab leaders, September. Tunisia absent.
Establishment of Arab Air Carriers' Organization.
Agreement on Arab Co-operation for the Peaceful Uses of Atomic Energy.
Establishment of Arab Union of Automobile Clubs and Tourist Societies, October.</p> <p>1966 Third Session of the Council of Arab Information Ministers, Damascus, February.
Cairo Conference of Arab leaders, March. Tunisia absent.
Cairo Conference of Arab leaders, June.
Cairo Conference of Arab Foreign Ministers, September. Tunisia absent.
First session of Arab League Administrative Court, September.</p> |
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THE ARAB LEAGUE

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| 1967 | <p>Fourth session of the Council of Arab Information Officers February</p> <p>Sixth Arab Petroleum Congress Baghdad March</p> <p>Meeting of Arab Foreign Ministers Kuwait June</p> <p>Cairo meeting of Heads of State of Algeria Iraq Sudan Syria U A R July</p> <p>Meeting of Arab Foreign Ministers Khartoum August. Topics discussed included Arab oil embargo against U S A and U K and preparations for a meeting of Arab leaders</p> <p>Conference of Arab leaders in Khartoum August It was decided to resume oil supplies to the West Syria absent</p> <p>Extraordinary Session of the Council of Arab Information Ministers Bizerta September</p> <p>Meeting of Arab Economic Ministers Algiers November</p> <p>Meeting of Arab Foreign Ministers Cairo December</p> <p>Establishment of Civil Aviation Council for Arab States</p> <p>Agreement to establish an Arab Tanker Company December</p> | 1969 | <p>First Session of the Arab States Broadcasting Union (ASBU) Khartoum February</p> <p>Fifth session of the Council of Arab Information Ministers Cairo February</p> <p>Emergency meeting of Foreign Ministers Cairo August Planned response to the Al Aqsa mosque fire and called for an Islamic Summit Conference to be held in September</p> |
| | <p>Meeting of Joint Defence Council November Discussed acceleration of military mobilization against Israel</p> <p>Summit Meeting held in Rabat December Heads of State unable to agree on the question of member states commitments to a joint military contingency plan</p> <p>Establishment of the Industrial Development Centre for the Arab States</p> <p>First Conference of Arab Health Ministers Cairo</p> | | |
| | <p>1970</p> <p>Sixth session of the Council of Arab Information Ministers Cairo January</p> <p>Establishment of the Arab Organization for Agricultural Development</p> <p>Establishment of the Arab Educational Cultural and Scientific Organization</p> <p>Seventh Arab Petroleum Congress Kuwait March</p> | | |
| 1968 | <p>First Conference of Arab Tourist Ministers Cairo February</p> <p>Third Conference of Arab Education Ministers Kuwait February</p> <p>Meeting of Arab Foreign Ministers Cairo September Tunisia absent</p> <p>Establishment of an Arab Fund for Economic and Social Development</p> | 1971 | <p>Seventh session of the Council of Arab Information Ministers Cairo February</p> <p>First Arab Conference on the Teaching of Administrative Sciences Cairo February</p> <p>First Conference for Arab Social Affairs Ministers Cairo March</p> |
| 1969 | <p>Permanent Council of Co operation Experts established to promote co-operative movement in Arab States January</p> | | |

PUBLICATIONS

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| <p>Daily and fortnightly <i>Bulletin</i> (Arabic and English)</p> <p>New York Office <i>Arab World</i> (monthly) and <i>News and Views</i></p> <p>Geneva Office <i>Le Monde Arabe</i> (monthly) and <i>Nouvelles du Monde Arabe</i> (weekly)</p> <p>Buenos Aires Office <i>Arabia Review</i> (monthly)</p> | <p>Rio de Janeiro Office <i>Oriente Arabe</i> (monthly)</p> <p>Rome Office <i>Rassegna del Mondo Arabo</i> (monthly)</p> <p>London Office <i>The Arab</i> (monthly)</p> <p>New Delhi Office <i>Al Arab</i> (monthly)</p> <p>Bonn Office <i>Arabische Korrespondenz</i> (fortnightly)</p> <p>Ottawa Office <i>Spotlight on the Arab World</i> (fortnightly)</p> <p style="padding-left: 40px;"><i>The Arab Case</i> (monthly)</p> |
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THE ARAB LEAGUE

THE PACT OF THE LEAGUE OF ARAB STATES

(March 22nd, 1945)

Article 1

The League of Arab States is composed of the independent Arab States which have signed this Pact.

Any independent Arab state has the right to become a member of the League. If it desires to do so, it shall submit a request which will be deposited with the Permanent Secretariat-General and submitted to the Council at the first meeting held after submission of the request.

Article 2

The League has as its purpose the strengthening of the relations between the member states; the co-ordination of their policies in order to achieve co-operation between them and to safeguard their independence and sovereignty; and a general concern with the affairs and interests of the Arab countries. It has also as its purpose the close co-operation of the member states, with due regard to the organization and circumstances of each state, on the following matters:

- (a) Economic and financial affairs, including commercial relations, customs, currency, and questions of agriculture and industry.
- (b) Communications: this includes railways, roads, aviation, navigation, telegraphs and posts.
- (c) Cultural affairs.
- (d) Nationality, passports, visas, execution of judgments, and extradition of criminals.
- (e) Social affairs.
- (f) Health problems.

Article 3

The League shall possess a Council composed of the representatives of the member states of the League; each state shall have a single vote, irrespective of the number of its representatives.

It shall be the task of the Council to achieve the realization of the objectives of the League and to supervise the execution of agreements which the member states have concluded on the questions enumerated in the preceding article, or on any other questions.

It likewise shall be the Council's task to decide upon the means by which the League is to co-operate with the international bodies to be created in the future in order to guarantee security and peace and regulate economic and social relations.

Article 4

For each of the questions listed in Article 2 there shall be set up a special committee in which the member states of the League shall be represented. These committees shall be charged with the task of laying down the principles and extent of co-operation. Such principles shall be formulated as draft agreements, to be presented to the Council for examination preparatory to their submission to the aforesaid states.

Representatives of the other Arab countries may take part in the work of the aforesaid committees. The Council shall determine the conditions under which these representatives may be permitted to participate and the rules governing such representation.

Article 5

Any resort to force in order to resolve disputes arising between two or more member states of the League is

prohibited. If there should arise among them a difference which does not concern a state's independence, sovereignty, or territorial integrity, and if the parties to the dispute have recourse to the Council for the settlement of this difference, the decision of the Council shall then be enforceable and obligatory.

In such a case, the states between whom the difference has arisen shall not participate in the deliberations and decisions of the Council.

The Council shall mediate in all differences which threaten to lead to war between two member states, or a member state and a third state, with a view to bringing about their reconciliation.

Decisions of arbitration and mediation shall be taken by majority vote.

Article 6

In case of aggression or threat of aggression by one state against a member state, the state which has been attacked or threatened with aggression may demand the immediate convocation of the Council.

The Council shall by unanimous decision determine the measures necessary to repulse the aggression. If the aggressor is a member state, his vote shall not be counted in determining unanimity.

If, as a result of the attack, the government of the State attacked finds itself unable to communicate with the Council, that state's representative in the Council shall have the right to request the convocation of the Council for the purpose indicated in the foregoing paragraph. In the event that this representative is unable to communicate with the Council, any member state of the League shall have the right to request the convocation of the Council.

Article 7

Unanimous decisions of the Council shall be binding upon all member states of the League; majority decisions shall be binding only upon those states which have accepted them.

In either case the decisions of the Council shall be enforced in each member state according to its respective basic laws.

Article 8

Each member state shall respect the systems of government established in the other member states and regard them as exclusive concerns of those states. Each shall pledge to abstain from any action calculated to change established systems of government.

Article 9

States of the League which desire to establish closer co-operation and stronger bonds than are provided by this Pact may conclude agreements to that end.

Treaties and agreements already concluded or to be concluded in the future between a member state and another state shall not be binding or restrictive upon other members.

Article 10

The permanent seat of the League of Arab States is established in Cairo. The Council may, however, assemble at any other place it may designate.

THE ARAB LEAGUE

Article 11

The Council of the League shall convene in ordinary session twice a year in March and in September. It shall convene in extraordinary session upon the request of two member states of the League whenever the need arises.

Article 12

The League shall have a permanent Secretariat General which shall consist of a Secretary-General, Assistant Secretaries and an appropriate number of officials.

The Council of the League shall appoint the Secretary General by a majority of two-thirds of the states of the League. The Secretary General with the approval of the Council shall appoint the Assistant Secretaries and the principal officials of the League.

The Council of the League shall establish an administrative regulation for the functions of the Secretariat General and matters relating to the Staff.

The Secretary General shall have the rank of Ambassador and the Assistant Secretaries that of Ministers Plenipotentiary.

The first Secretary General of the League is named in an Annex to this Pact.

Article 13

The Secretary General shall prepare the draft of the budget of the League and shall submit it to the Council for approval before the beginning of each fiscal year.

The Council shall fix the share of the expenses to be borne by each state of the League. This share may be reconsidered if necessary.

Article 14

The members of the Council of the League as well as the members of the committees and the officials who are to be designated in the administrative regulation shall enjoy diplomatic privileges and immunity when engaged in the exercise of their functions.

The building occupied by the organs of the League shall be inviolable.

Article 15

The first meeting of the Council shall be convened at the invitation of the head of the Egyptian Government. Thereafter it shall be convened at the invitation of the Secretary-General.

The representatives of the member states of the League shall alternately assume the presidency of the Council at each of its ordinary sessions.

Article 16

Except in cases specifically indicated in this Pact a majority vote of the Council shall be sufficient to make enforceable decisions on the following matters:

- Matters relating to personnel
- Adoption of the budget of the League
- Establishment of the administrative regulations for the Council, the Committees and the Secretariat General
- Decisions to adjourn the sessions

Article 17

Each member state of the League shall deposit with the Secretariat General one copy of every treaty or agreement concluded or to be concluded in the future between itself and another member state of the League or a third state.

Article 18

If a member state contemplates withdrawal from the League it shall inform the Council of its intention one year before such withdrawal is to go into effect.

The Council of the League may consider any state which fails to fulfil its obligations under this Pact as having become separated from the League, this to go into effect upon a unanimous decision of the states not counting the state concerned.

Article 19

This Pact may be amended with the consent of two-thirds of the states belonging to the League especially in order to make firmer and stronger ties between the member states, to create an Arab Tribunal of Arbitration and to regulate the relations of the League with any international bodies to be created in the future to guarantee security and peace.

Final action on an amendment cannot be taken prior to the session following the session in which the motion was initiated.

If a state does not accept such an amendment it may withdraw at such time as the amendment goes into effect without being bound by the provisions of the preceding article.

Article 20

This Pact and its Annexes shall be ratified according to the basic laws in force among the High Contracting Parties.

The instruments of ratification shall be deposited with the Secretariat General of the Council and the Pact shall become operative as regards each ratifying state fifteen days after the Secretary General has received the instruments of ratification from four states.

This Pact has been drawn up in Cairo in the Arabic language on this 8th day of Rabi' II thirteen hundred and sixty four (March 22nd 1945) in one copy which shall be deposited in the safe keeping of the Secretariat General.

An identical copy shall be delivered to each state of the League.

Annex Regarding Palestine

Since the termination of the last great war the rule of the Ottoman Empire over the Arab countries among them Palestine which had become detached from that Empire has come to an end. She has come to be autonomous not subordinate to any other state.

The Treaty of Lausanne proclaimed that her future was to be settled by the parties concerned.

However even though she was as yet unable to control her own affairs the Covenant of the League (of Nations) in 1919 made provision for a regime based upon recognition of her independence.

Her international existence and independence in the legal sense cannot therefore be questioned any more than could the independence of the other Arab countries.

Although the outward manifestations of this independence have remained obscured for reasons beyond her control this should not be allowed to interfere with her participation in the work of the Council of the League.

The states signatory to the Pact of the Arab League are therefore of the opinion that considering the special circumstances of Palestine and until that Country can effectively exercise its independence the Council of the League should take charge of the selection of an Arab representative from Palestine to take part in its work.

THE ARAB LEAGUE

Annex Regarding Co-operation with Countries which are not Members of the Council of the League

Whereas the member states of the League will have to deal in the Council as well as in the committees with matters which will benefit and affect the Arab world at large;

And whereas the Council has to take into account the aspirations of the Arab countries which are not members of the Council and has to work toward their realization;

Now therefore, it particularly behoves the states signatory to the Pact of the Arab League to enjoin the Council of the League, when considering the admission of those countries to participation in the committees referred to in the Pact, that it should do its utmost to co-operate with them, and furthermore, that it should spare no effort to learn their needs and understand their aspirations and hopes; and that it should work thenceforth for their best interests and the safeguarding of their future with all the political means at its disposal.

SUMMARY OF CHARTER OF ARAB CULTURAL UNITY

The Charter of Arab Cultural Unity supersedes the Cultural Treaty of 1945.

It was drawn up in Baghdad on February 29th, 1964.

PREAMBLE

Concerning the common basis of the cultural and intellectual heritage of the Arab States and the value of co-operation in education, culture and science to the insurance of Arab human rights and the building and advancement of human civilization.

Article 1. The aims of education in bringing up a generation in Arab ideals.

Article 2. Agreement between Member States for co-operation and exchange of personnel, organization of conferences and co-ordination of activities in educational and technical matters.

Article 3. Agreement to develop and merge the Cultural Department, Institutes of Arabic Manuscripts and the Institute of Higher Arabic Studies to be included in framework of Arab League and to be called The Arab Educational, Cultural and Scientific Organization.

Article 4. On standardization of education methods and qualifications, teacher training and administration of educational institutes.

Article 5. On co-ordination in higher education; aim to establish a federation of Arab Universities.

Article 6. On co-operation in the endeavour to make primary education compulsory and improve secondary education.

Article 7. On exchange of specializations.

Article 8. On the endeavour to bring up the younger generation adherent to religious principles.

Article 9. On promoting the education of women.

Article 10. Arabic to be the common language of instruction wherever possible.

Article 11. On the endeavour to spread knowledge of all aspects of the Arab countries among member states.

Article 12. On the production of a "master book" as main reference book for education in Arab history, etc.

Article 13. On the spiritual, national, professional and scientific basis for the education of teachers.

Article 14. On the establishment of a teachers' association.

Article 15. On revival, safeguarding and dissemination of Islamic Arab culture, language and script.

Article 16. On translation of ancient and foreign books, and encouragement of intellectual production.

Article 17. On the unification of scientific and civilization terms to assist Arabization.

Article 18. On the establishment of a council for Academics.

Article 19. On the endeavour to improve relations between public libraries, museums and art galleries, and on archaeological co-operation.

Article 20. On co-operation in the arts and mass media.

Article 21. On co-operation to issue special literary, scientific and artistic copyright laws for Arab League Countries.

Article 22. On the establishment of a publication registration centre in each country; bibliographical information to be sent to the Arab Educational, Cultural and Scientific Organization.

Article 23. On regulations governing the exchange of professors, teachers and experts.

Article 24. On the interchange of pupils and students and interim agreements on the equality of certificates pending implementation of Article 4.

Article 25. On general co-operation.

Article 26. On encouraging travel for cultural, scouting, and sporting purposes in the Arab countries.

Article 27. On bringing closer together and unifying where possible separate legislative trends; and on introducing comparative legal studies of Arab countries in schools and universities.

Article 28. On co-operation in the co-ordinating of efforts internationally and especially with UNESCO.

Articles 29-32. On procedures for ratification, membership of non-Arab League countries, and method of withdrawal.

THE ARAB LEAGUE

ARAB ECONOMIC UNITY AGREEMENT

The Economic Unity Agreement between the member states of the Arab League was drawn up in Cairo on June 6th 1962 and subsequently came into effect on April 30th 1964. The Agreement was signed in 1962 by Jordan, Kuwait, Morocco, Syria and U.A.R. in 1963 by Iraq and Yemen and in 1968 by Sudan. It has been ratified by Kuwait (1962), U.A.R. (1963), Iraq, Jordan and Syria (1964), Yemen (1967) and Sudan (1969). The Unity Council held its first meeting in Cairo on June 3rd 1964.

The Agreement is summarized below

OBJECTS

Preamble

The Governments of the member states of the Arab League desirous of organizing between them and unifying their relations on bases accommodating to the natural and historical ties between them and for the purpose of creating the best conditions for the growth of their economy for promoting their riches and for ensuring the prosperity of their peoples have agreed on creating a complete unity between them to be achieved gradually with the maximum possible speed ensuring the transition to the desired situation without causing harm to their essential interests

Article 1

The main objective of the Agreement is to attain complete Arab Economic Unity. The Arab State will thus

have a unified integrated proportionate Arab economy guided by one single economic policy for all the component parts. The member states and their nationals are guaranteed equality in the following

- (1) Freedom of movement of persons and capital
- (2) Freedom of exchange of domestic and foreign goods and products
- (3) Freedom of residence, work, employment and exercise of economic activities
- (4) Freedom of transport and transit and of using means of transport, ports and civil airports
- (5) Rights of ownership of making one's will and of inheritance

METHODS

Article 2

The Arab states are required to work for accomplishing the following

(1) The Arab states should be made one customs zone subject to a single administration. Customs tariffs, legislations and regulations applied in these states should be standardized. This is to be achieved by gradual abolition of customs duties between the Arab states for ensuring the exchange of Arab-made goods and the eventual removal of duties altogether. In addition customs duties should be adjusted between the Arab states so as to arrive at standard rates in respect of the outside world. In this way the Arab states would be converted into one market where both home-produced and imported goods could move without being subject to any duties other than those imposed in respect of the outside world.

(2) The Arab states should work for standardizing their import-export policies and all relevant regulations. It is a prerequisite for the creation of one Arab market to have import-export policies and regulations unified and co-ordinated.

(3) Standardizing transport and transit systems. As the means of transport will enjoy freedom of movement between all parts of the Arab homeland, they should necessarily become subject to standard regulations.

(4) Trade agreements and payments agreements with outside countries are to be concluded collectively by the Arab states. The creation of one Arab market makes it necessary to have such agreements concluded jointly. Relations with the outside world will be unified.

(5) Policies related to agriculture industry and internal trade should be co-ordinated. Economic legislation should be standardized in a manner ensuring equal terms to all nationals of the contracting countries in respect of work in

agriculture industry or any other calling. The co-ordination of these policies and legislations is an inevitable sequence to the creation of the United Arab Market where Arab nationals are to be guaranteed the right of taking up any profession or any economic activity anywhere in the Arab world.

(6) Steps should be taken to co-ordinate labour and social legislation. In so far as Arab workers are to enjoy the freedom of working anywhere they please in the Arab homeland, it is necessary to make them all subject to one labour law and to the same social security rules.

(7) (a) Steps should be taken to co-ordinate legislation concerning government and municipal taxes and duties and all other taxes pertaining to agriculture industry, trade, real estate and investments in a manner ensuring equal opportunities.

(b) Measures should be taken to prevent the duplication of taxes and duties levied on the nationals of the contracting countries.

(8) The monetary and fiscal policies and all relevant regulations of the contracting countries should be co-ordinated before the standardization of currency.

(9) Standardizing the methods of the classification of statistics.

(10) All necessary measures should be taken to ensure the attainment of the goals specified in Articles 1 and 2 of the Agreement.

It is however possible to bypass the principle of standardization in respect of certain circumstances and certain countries—this being made with the approval of the Arab Economic Unity Council.

THE ARAB LEAGUE

ORGANIZATION

Articles 3-10

Article 3 provides for the establishment of a body with the name of "The Arab Economic Unity Council". This Council will have its centre in Cairo and will be composed of a full member from each of the contracting parties. Decisions are taken by a two-thirds majority. Each state has one vote.

The Council has been vested with all necessary powers for implementing the rules of the Agreement and its protocols, for running the subsidiary committees and establishments and for appointing members of staff and experts.

Branching from the Unity Council are a number of permanent and provisional committees.

The permanent committees are:

(1) The Customs Committee, whose task will be to handle customs technical and administrative affairs and transit affairs.

(2) The Monetary and Financial Committee. This Committee will undertake the handling of affairs pertaining to monetary matters, banking taxes, duties and other financial affairs. Two Sub-Committees have been formed:

(a) Sub-Committee on Financial and Taxation Affairs;

(b) Sub-Committee on Monetary Affairs.

(3) The Economic Committee. It will be the duty of this Committee to handle matters pertaining to agriculture,

industry, trade, transport, communications, labour and social affairs. Five Sub-Committees have been formed:

(a) Agricultural Growth Sub-Committee; (b) Industrial Co-ordination and Mineral Wealth Development Sub-Committee; (c) Planning and Trade Co-ordination Sub-Committee; (d) Planning and Transport and Communications Co-ordination Sub-Committee; (e) Social Affairs Sub-Committee.

The Council and its subsidiaries enjoy financial and administrative autonomy. The Council will have a special budget to which the member-states will subscribe at the rate of their subscriptions to the budget of the Secretariat-General of the Arab League. The Council has been entrusted with the tasks of formulating regulations and legislations aiming at the creation of a unified Arab customs zone and at co-ordinating foreign trade policy. The conclusion of trade agreements and of payments agreements has been made subject to the approval of the Council. The Council is also entrusted with the task of co-ordinating economic growth, laying down programmes for the attainment of common economic development plans, co-ordinating policies for agriculture, industry and external trade, working out transport and transit regulations and unification of regulations on labour and social security, and harmonizing financial and monetary policies with the purpose of standardizing currency. It will also formulate all other legislation necessary for the achievement of the purposes of the Agreement.

IMPLEMENTATION

Articles 11-20, Protocols

The implementation of the Agreement is to take place in successive stages and in the shortest possible time. The Council has been required to draw up a practical plan for the stages of implementation and to define the legislative, administrative and technical measures necessary for each stage taking into consideration the appendix concerning the necessary steps for the realization of Arab Economic Unity, which is attached to the Agreement and constitutes an integral part of it. Article 15 stipulates that any two or more of the contracting parties have the right to conclude agreements for economic unity wider than that provided for under the Agreement.

The Council shall exercise its powers in accordance with resolutions which it will pass, which will be executed by the member-states in accordance with their constitutional rules.

The Governments of the contracting parties have pledged not to promulgate any laws, regulations or administrative decisions of a nature which might conflict with the Agreement or its Protocols. However, the contracting parties have been given the freedom, under the Agreement's First Protocol, to conclude bilateral economic agreements, for extraordinary political or defensive purposes, with outside parties, provided that such bilateral agreements contain nothing prejudicial to the objectives of this Agreement.

The Agreement's Second Protocol places limitations on the powers of the Arab Economic Unity Council. In the course of an initial period not exceeding five years (but which can be renewed for up to ten years) the Council is required to study the necessary steps for co-ordinating

the economic, financial and social policies and for the attainment of the following objectives:

(a) The freedom of the movement of persons and the freedom of work, employment, residence, ownership, making one's will, and inheritance.

(b) Giving unrestricted and unqualified freedom to the movement of transit goods without any restrictions in respect of the type or nationality or the means of transport.

(c) Facilitating the exchange of Arab goods and Arab products.

(d) The freedom of exercising economic activities—it should be understood that this should cause no harm to the interests of some of the contracting parties at this stage.

(e) The freedom of using ports and civil airports in a manner guaranteeing activation and development.

At its first session held in Cairo from June 3rd-6th, 1964, the Economic Unity Council decided to interpret the time periods suggested in the Second Protocol in such a manner as to speed up the accomplishment of the various phases. Thus the Council considered the five-year period proposed as a maximum limit for the completion of the necessary studies. The Council also resolved to benefit from the rule established in Article 4 of the Protocol, which provided for the following:

"Two parties or more can, if they so desire, agree on ending the introductory stage or any other stage, and move directly to comprehensive economic unity."

THE ARAB LEAGUE

The Council has therefore begun by studying the practical steps to be taken for the achievement of economic unity. It was decided that the Arab Common Market project should be accomplished as quickly as possible. A Technical Committee was assigned with the study of the subject, and its detailed report was debated and approved by the Council at its second meeting on August 7th, 1964.

The resolution passed at that meeting called for exempting from customs duties all agricultural and animal products as well as natural resources and industrial goods exchanged between the members of the Arab Market. This exemption will be either complete or gradual. It was also resolved that in the case of gradual exemption the rate should be ten per cent in respect of industrial goods and twenty per cent for agricultural products to be effective from the beginning of 1965.

The Arab Common Market came into operation on January 1st 1965, with U.A.R., Iraq, Syria, Jordan and Kuwait as members. However, the Kuwait National Assembly voted against ratification of the Agreement in July 1965. The four remaining members of the Council met again in Amman in November 1965.

In mid 1966 the Economic Unity Council adopted a resolution calling for the creation of an *Arab Payments Union*. The purpose of the projected Union is to reduce or eliminate non tariff restrictions imposed by national governments for balance of payments reasons.

In May 1968 at a meeting of the Economic Unity Council it was agreed that free movement of industrial products between member states should be achieved by 1971, and tariffs on agricultural products were to be completely abolished during 1969.

CENTRAL TREATY ORGANIZATION—CENTO

Old Grand National Assembly Building, Ankara, Turkey

The Central Treaty Organization aims to provide mutual security and defence for member countries and seeks the peaceful economic development of the region through co-operative effort. CENTO replaced the Baghdad Pact Organization after the withdrawal of Iraq in March 1959.

MEMBERS

Iran

Pakistan

Turkey

United Kingdom

The United States is a member of the Organization's Military, Economic, and Counter-Subversion Committees, and signed bilateral agreements of military and economic co-operation with Iran, Pakistan and Turkey in Ankara in March 1959.

ORGANIZATION

THE COUNCIL

Ministerial Level: Meets normally once each year in rotation at CENTO country capitals. Attended by Foreign Ministers or senior Cabinet Ministers.

Deputies Level: Meets in Ankara under the Chairmanship of the Secretary-General. Attended by Ambassadors resident in Ankara, and a senior representative from the Turkish Ministry of Foreign Affairs. The United States is represented at the Council meetings, both at Ministerial and Deputy level, by an observer who participates fully in the discussions.

Committees of the Council: (1) Military Committee, (2) Counter-Subversion Committee, (3) Liaison Committee, (4) Economic Committee.

SECRETARIAT

Eski Büyük Millet Meclisi Binası, Ankara, Turkey

Secretary-General: H.E. TURGUT MENEMENCIOĞLU (Turkey). The Secretariat is divided into four divisions: Political and Administration, Economic, Public Relations, and Security,

PERMANENT MILITARY DEPUTIES GROUP

The Military Committee is represented in Ankara by the Permanent Military Deputies Group comprising five senior officers of the rank of Lieutenant-General or its equivalent.

COMBINED MILITARY PLANNING STAFF

Chief of Staff: Maj.-Gen. R. H. ANTHIS, U.S.A.F. (United States); has international staff of officers from three services of the five member nations of the Military Committee.

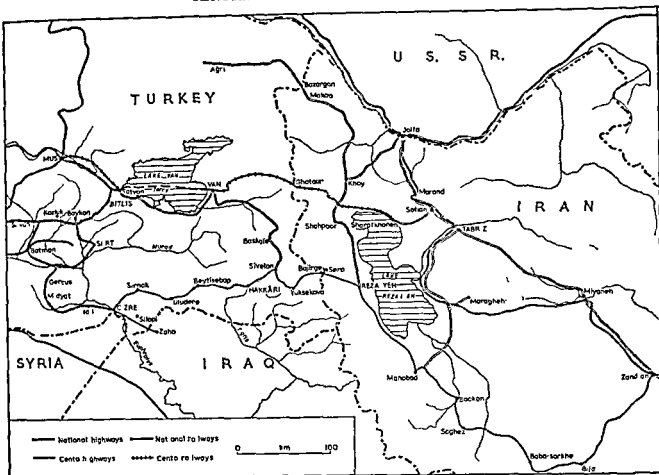
TRAINING AND RESEARCH INSTITUTES

CENTO Institute of Animal Reproduction: Set up 1961 at Malir, West Pakistan, with equipment and an Adviser provided by the United Kingdom.

CENTO Scientific Co-ordinating Board: P.O.B. 1828, Teheran; f. 1966; operates regional scientific programmes for Council of Scientific Education and Research; Scientific Sec. Dr. M. L. SMITH.

Regional Research Centre for Virus Diseases: f. 1962 at the Razi Institute in Teheran with equipment valued at £50,000 supplied by the United Kingdom.

CENTRAL TREATY ORGANIZATION



Map shows projected Turkey - Iran road and rail developments For progress to date see below

ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

Pakistan-Iran road link joining Karachi Lasbella Quetta Zahidan and Kerman in progress.

Pakistan-Iran road link joining Lasbella, Pishin and Bandar Abbas in progress

Turkey-Iran road link joining Baghli, Rezaieh and Tabriz-Teheran main road at Zanjan completed

Turkey-Iran road link joining Cizre Hakkari and Baghli under construction

Turkey-Iran rail link (including a ferry across Lake Van) joining Mus Tatvan Khoi and Sharafchaneh under construction, Mus-Tatvan section completed 1964, remainder scheduled for completion by 1971

Pakistan-Iran rail link joining Bad to Zahidan and Quetta under construction.

Development of the ports of Trabzon and Iskenderun Trabzon project completed in 1963 First stage of Iskenderun project finished in 1969 The second stage is under construction.

CENTO Airway, U.S.A. and the United Kingdom have

contributed considerable amounts towards improved navigational and other aids for regional air traffic Now virtually completed

High frequency radio telecommunication links between London and key regional stations, i.e Istanbul, Ankara, Teheran, Karachi and Dacca First stage completed in 1964, in full operation 1968

Ankara-Teheran-Karachi microwave links project, involving 88 relay stations and 13 air navigation stations opened 1965 completed 1966 Teheran Control Centre opened 1969

Development of public health in the CENTO region—eradication of malaria, control of smallpox, teaching of preventive medicine, environmental sanitation, hospital administration, health education, family planning etc

Scientific co-operation—development of science and technology and the peaceful uses of atomic energy CENTO Scientific Co-ordinating Board provides courses and undertakes research.

CENTRAL TREATY ORGANIZATION

Agriculture: increased production, development policy, banking and credit, forestry, pest control, land classification and soil survey, irrigation systems.

Animal production and health: improved annual breeding and control of virus and parasitic diseases of livestock.

Advisory Group on Minerals Development: covering work on border geological surveys, training in geological mapping techniques, stratigraphic surveys and investigations of possible exploitation of phosphate deposits.

Technical Assistance Programme: training fellowships in specialized subjects in all three countries, visits and

tours of experts, working and travelling seminars and conferences of experts, financed by the Multi-lateral Technical Co-operation Fund (MTCF) at current level of U.S. \$315,000 per year.

A Senior Industrial Development Advisor was appointed in 1970 to examine industrial development in Pakistan, Iran and Turkey.

SECRETARIAT BUDGET

(1970-71)

U.S. \$1,000,000 (approx.)

RECORD OF EVENTS

1955 Turkey and Iraq signed Baghdad Pact, February. United Kingdom acceded to the Pact, April. Pakistan acceded to the Pact, September. Iran acceded to the Pact, November. International Secretariat established, December.

1956 United States joined Economic and Counter-Subversion Committees of the Pact.

1958 Pact's Headquarters and staff moved to Ankara.

1959 Bilateral defence agreements signed between the United States, Turkey, Pakistan and Iran, March. Iraq withdrew from the Pact, March. Opening of Nuclear Centre in Teheran, June. Name of Organisation changed to CENTO, August.

1960 Establishment of new Permanent Military Deputies Group in Ankara, January. Development Loan Fund agreed to loan \$6 million to Turkey to help build Turkey-Iran Railway.

1961 First stage of High-Frequency Telecommunication link opened between London, Istanbul, Ankara and Teheran, June. Contract for \$16,490,000 awarded by U.S. Government to build microwave telecommunications system.

1962 Visit to CENTO Headquarters of Vice-President of the United States, Mr. Lyndon Johnson, August. Visit to CENTO Headquarters of His Imperial Majesty the Shahanshah of Iran, October.

1963 CENTO project for the development of the Turkish port of Trabzon completed, aided by a grant of £180,000 from the United Kingdom.

1964 United States Development Loan Fund agreed to loan over \$18 million to meet foreign exchange requirements for completion of CENTO Turkey-Iran railway. CENTO Permanent Military Telecommunication System linking Ankara, Teheran and Rawalpindi officially inaugurated at cost of over \$2 million provided by U.S. United Kingdom announced increased financial aid to CENTO: from April 1965 £1 million annually. First section of Turkey-Iran railway, Muş to Tatvan (100 km.) completed and put into service.

1965 CENTO Microwave Telecommunications system handed over for operation to governments of Turkey, Iran and Pakistan (June).

1966 CENTO Microwave Telecommunications System officially dedicated (April). Section of CENTO Turkey-Iran Road between Sivelan (Turkey) and Rezaiyeh (Iran) officially dedicated (June).

1967 CENTO Conference on National and Regional Agricultural Development Policy.

1968 CENTO Conference on Earthquake Hazard Minimization met in Ankara, and called for the establishment of an Association for Earthquake Studies (July). CENTO Family Planning Study Tour visited family planning centres and clinics in a round the world tour (November-December).

1969 Decision to set up an Industrial Development Wing within the CENTO Secretariat (May). An Industrial Planning Board will act as co-ordinator for technical assistance. The Jinnah Post-Graduate Medical Centre in Karachi was adopted as a CENTO-supported regional institution (May). Reduction achieved in telegraph and telephone rates over the CENTO Microwave System.

1970 Seventeenth session of Council of Ministers held in Washington (May).

1971 Workshop on Clinical and Applied Research on Family Planning visited the CENTO Region (February). Regional Co-ordinating Board on Communicable Diseases met in Ankara to discuss a cholera surveillance plan (March). Symposium on Central Banking, Monetary and Economic Development, held in Izmir (April). 18th Session of the Council of Ministers held in Ankara (April-May).

CENTRAL TREATY ORGANIZATION

PACT OF THE CENTRAL TREATY ORGANIZATION

(February 24th, 1955)

Article 1

Consistent with Article 51 of the United Nations Charter the High Contracting Parties will co-operate for their security and defence. Such measures as they agree to take to give effect to this co-operation may form the subject of special agreement with each other.

Article 2

In order to ensure the realization and effect application of the co-operation provided for in Article 1 above the competent authorities of the High Contracting Parties will determine the measures to be taken as soon as the present Pact enters into force. These measures will become operative as soon as they have been approved by the Governments of the High Contracting Parties.

Article 3

The High Contracting Parties undertake to refrain from any interference whatsoever in each other's internal affairs. They will settle any dispute between themselves in a peaceful way in accordance with the United Nations Charter.

Article 4

The High Contracting Parties declare that the dispositions of the present Pact are not in contradiction with any of the international obligations contracted by either of them with any third state or states. They do not derogate from and cannot be interpreted as derogating from the said international obligations. The High Contracting Parties undertake not to enter into any international obligation incompatible with the present Pact.

Article 5

This Pact shall be open for accession to any member state of the Arab League or any other state actively concerned

with the security and peace in this region which is fully recognized by both of the High Contracting Parties. Accession shall come into force from the date of which the instrument of accession of the state concerned is deposited with the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Iraq.

Any acceding State Party to the present Pact may conclude special agreements in accordance with Article 1, with one or more states Parties to the present Pact. The competent authority of any acceding State may determine measures in accordance with Article 2. These measures will become operative as soon as they have been approved by the Governments of the Parties concerned.

Article 6

A Permanent Council at Ministerial level will be set up to function within the framework of the purposes of this Pact when at least four Powers become parties to the Pact.

The Council will draw up its own rules of procedure.

Article 7

This Pact remains in force for a period of five years renewable for other five year periods. Any Contracting Party may withdraw from the Pact by notifying the other parties in writing of its desire to do so six months before the expiration of any of the above mentioned periods, in which case the Pact remains valid for the other Parties.

Article 8

This Pact shall be ratified by the Contracting Parties and ratifications shall be exchanged at Ankara as soon as possible. Thereafter it shall come into force from the date of the exchange of ratifications. The three texts of the Pact in Arabic, Turkish and English are equally authentic except in the case of doubt when the English text shall prevail.

THE MAGHREB PERMANENT CONSULTATIVE COMMITTEE

(COMITÉ PERMANENT CONSULTATIF DU MAGHREB)

47 ave. Habib Bourguiba, Tunis, Tunisia

A permanent committee established in 1964 for economic co-ordination, meeting four times a year.

MEMBERS

Algeria

Libya

Morocco

Tunisia

ORGANIZATION

Secretariat: 1 rue de Grèce, Tunis, Tunisia; f. 1965; each member country is represented by one delegate who exercises his functions permanently at the Headquarters of the Committee; Delegates MOHAMMED LARBI (Algeria), ABDELKADER BENSLIMANE (Morocco), CHADLI TNANI (Tunisia); Sec. MUSTAPHA EL KASRI; budget U.S. \$100,000, provided by equal donations from the member states.

Centre for Industrial Studies: Tangier, Morocco; f. 1968 to co-operate with industrial development plans in the member states and to carry out studies and research relevant to these plans; annual budget U.S. \$2 million, to be provided by the UNDP and the Maghreb states; Dir. MOHAMED DAYA (Tunisia); Project Dir. STEPHAN KLINGHOFFER (Austria).

Maghreb Committee on Tourism: Tripoli; f. 1966.

Maghreb Committee on Postal and Telecommunications Co-ordination: Libya; f. 1965.

Maghreb Esparto Bureau: Algiers; f. 1965.

Commission on Transport and Communications: Tunis, Tunisia; f. 1968 to integrate the transport systems of the Maghreb countries; four subsidiary committees have been set up:

Maghreb Committee on Air Transport: Rabat.

Maghreb Committee on Railways: Algiers.

Maghreb Committee on Shipping: Tunis.

Maghreb Committee on Roads: Algiers.

Maghreb Committee on Insurance and Reinsurance: Rabat.

RECORD OF EVENTS

1964

October

First meeting of the Economic Ministers of the four Maghreb countries, Tangier. Two bodies to be set up: the permanent consultative committee, which would implement decisions on economic co-ordination; and an institute of industrial studies, which would harmonize joint industrial planning.

The four countries should work towards the establishment of a tariff union and towards joint negotiation with outside institutions and organizations.

November

Second Conference of Ministers.

1965

March

First meeting of the Permanent Consultative Committee, Algiers. Inner organization and operation of the Committee: three commissions appointed: one to draw up a schedule of the economies of the four countries, in order to be able eventually to establish relations with the important economic communities; a foreign trade commission to consider means of co-ordinating the export of citrus fruits, wines, esparto and olive oil, and to study the problems of duty-free trade within the

May

Maghreb; and a commission to study the co-ordination of industry and energy, and to seek markets for Maghrebi industrial products.

Third meeting of the Maghreb Economic Ministers, Tripoli. Plans agreed for the co-ordination of exports of citrus fruits, wines, esparto and olive oil. An esparto bureau established in Algiers to handle the exports of all four countries. Special commissions set up for statistics, accounting, and the steel industry, and it was agreed to study improvement of telecommunication links. Secretariat for the Consultative Committee established.

October

Meeting of Maghreb Committee on Tourism, Algiers. Meeting of Commission on Transport and Communications, Tunis.

November

Signing of convention setting up Committee on Railways.

December

Meeting of Consultative Committee, Algiers. Studied reports on co-ordination of transport and tourism in the Maghreb, and on industry and postal and telecommunications agreements.

THE MAGHREB PERMANENT CONSULTATIVE COMMITTEE

1966			1968		
February	Fourth annual meeting of the Maghreb Economic Ministers Algiers Plans agreed for establishment of a permanent secretariat in Tunis under direction of MOHAMED CHERKAOU with budgetary and administrative responsibilities to aid the Consultative Committee MOHAMED CHERKAOU appointed Director of Consultative Committee agreement on co-ordination of commercial statistics in Maghreb budget approved for 1966		January (<i>co it</i>)	First meeting of the Administrative Council of the Centre for Industrial Studies Tripoli Approval of study programmes on fertilizers desalinization of seawater and training of skilled manpower	
			April	Meeting of Commission on Transport and Communications Tunis Recommendation for a master plan to be drawn up of transport in the Maghreb region	
July	Meeting of Commission on Trading Relations Tunis Discussion of liberalisation of Maghreb reciprocal trade relations		May	Meeting in Tunis of Mixed Commission on Frontier Formalities Recommendations were made on facilitating the movement of travellers between Maghreb countries by road and rail	
August	Robert Gardiner Exec Sec of UN ECA announced that the proposed Maghreb Secretariat with additional UN staff was to replace the Consultative Committee		July	Meeting of representatives of Insurance Companies of the Maghreb countries Decision to create a Maghreb Committee on Insurance and Re-insurance	
September	Permanent Maghreb Committee on Tourism created in Algiers			Meeting in Tunis of trade union leaders of the Maghreb countries Decis on to hold annual meetings and to organize joint seminars	
November	Meeting of Maghreb Air Transport Committee Algiers agreement for study group to examine constitution of a Maghreb Airlines Company		October	Meeting of experts in Tunis to examine reports on problems of customs commerce and external payments	
1967			November	Meeting of experts in Rabat on agricultural exchanges Ordinary session of Committee on Railways	
January	Meeting of Permanent Consultative Committee Rabat discussion of possible negotiations with EEC and inter Maghreb trade relations				
March	Indefinite postponement of Maghreb Economics Ministers meeting originally planned for May 1966		1969		
July	Meeting of the Advisory Committee on Education Algiers		March	Meeting of experts in Algiers to examine study on industry	
October	Agreement between presidents of National Airlines to form a single company to be called Air Maghreb		May	Second extraordinary session of Centre for Industrial Studies Meeting of government delegates to study synthesis report on economic co-operation	
November	Fifth meeting of Economic Ministers in Tunis Decision to draft a new agreement on general economic co-operation A Maghreb Bank is to be created and a multinational system of payments is envisaged		1970		
1968			March	Sixth meeting of Economic Ministers postponed because of absence of Libya	
January	Meeting of Maghreb Air Transport Committee Rabat Agreement on the creation of Air Maghreb and on other co-operation projects concerning air transport.		July	Meeting held without participation of Libya who later in summer announced withdrawal from organization Programme for 1970-71 drawn up studies on co-operation in tourism national infrastructures transport export policies etc Mauritania attended meeting as an observer	

THE MAGHREB PERMANENT CONSULTATIVE COMMITTEE

STATUTES

Signed at Tunis, October 1st, 1964, by the Economic Ministers of the four member states.

Article 1. The Permanent Consultative Committee is an organism in which representatives of the four countries of the Maghreb are brought together. It is composed of a President and eight members, of whom four are titular representatives and four are deputies.

Article 2. The President of the Permanent Consultative Committee must have the rank of Minister. The Presidency is entrusted to each of the member states in turn for the duration of one year.

Article 3. The President may arrange to be assisted by a Vice-President who will be the titular representative of the country which is holding the Presidency.

Article 4. The Government of each of the countries of the Maghreb will appoint a deputy titular member with the rank of Director of Central Administration.

The representatives of each country will be able to command the help of these experts in case of need.

Article 5. The Permanent Consultative Committee is provided with a Permanent Secretariat headed by an Administrative Secretary appointed by the President.

The location of the Secretariat will vary according to the location of the Presidency.

Article 6. The Permanent Consultative Committee will have correspondents in each member state appointed by

the government concerned. These correspondents must establish a Central Administration, and preferably some organizations and services with the object of planning economic programmes.

Article 7. Meetings of the Permanent Consultative Committee will be held at least once every three months when called by the President. At the same time as the President calls members of the Committee to meetings, he will present them with a programme embodying the proposals which he has received from the member countries.

Article 8. The proceedings of every session of the Permanent Consultative Committee must be recorded in Minutes drawn up by the President in office. These minutes must receive the unanimous approbation of the members of the Committee.

Article 9. The President will supply each of the members of the Committee with a copy of all documents brought to his attention, as well as any document likely to be of value to the Committee.

Article 10. The President will submit the budget planned to cover the expenses of the Permanent Consultative Committee for the approbation of the Maghreb Council of Economic Ministers.

ORGANIZATION OF AFRICAN UNITY—OAU

P.O. Box 3243, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

Founded 1963 at Addis Ababa to promote unity and international co-operation among African states and to eradicate all forms of colonialism in Africa. Members 41 African states



MEMBERS

Algeria	Malawi
Botswana	Mali
Burundi	Mauritania
Cameroon	Mauritius
Central African Republic	Morocco
Chad	Niger
Congo (Brazzaville)	Nigeria
Congo (Democratic Republic)	Rwanda
Dahomey	Senegal
Equatorial Guinea	Sierra Leone
Ethiopia	Somalia
Gabon	Sudan
The Gambia	Swaziland
Ghana	Tanzania
Guinea	Togo
Ivory Coast	Tunisia
Kenya	Uganda
Lesotho	United Arab Republic
Liberia	Upper Volta
Libya	Zambia
Madagascar	

HISTORICAL INTRODUCTION

There were various attempts at establishing an inter African organization before the OAU Charter was drawn up. In November 1958 Ghana and Guinea (later joined by Mali) drafted a Charter which was to form the basis of a Union of African States. In January 1961 a conference was held at Casablanca, attended by the heads of state of Ghana, Guinea, Mali, Morocco and representatives of Libya and of the provisional government of the Algerian Republic (GPRA). Tunisia, Nigeria, Liberia and Togo declined the invitation to attend. An African Charter was adopted and it was decided to set up an African Military Command and an African Common Market.

Between October 1960 and March 1961 three conferences were held by French speaking African countries at Abidjan, Brazzaville and Yaoundé. None of the twelve countries which attended these meetings had been present at the Casablanca Conference. These conferences led eventually to the signing in September 1961 at Tananarive of a charter establishing the *Union africaine et malgache* which was succeeded in 1965 by the *Organisation commune africaine et malgache*.

In May 1961 a conference was held at Monrovia, attended by the heads of state or representatives of nineteen countries: Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Congo Republic (ex French), Dahomey, Ethiopia, Gabon,

Ivory Coast, Liberia, Madagascar, Mauritania, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Somalia, Togo, Tunisia and Upper Volta. They met again (with the exception of Tunisia and with the addition of the ex Belgian Congo Republic) in January 1962 at Lagos and set up a permanent secretariat and a standing committee of Finance Ministers and accepted a draft charter for an Organization of Inter African and Malagasy States.

It was the Conference of Addis Ababa, held in 1963, which finally brought together African states despite the regional, political and linguistic differences which divided them. The Foreign Ministers of thirty African states attended the Preparatory Meeting held in May. Algeria, Burundi, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Congo (Brazzaville), Congo (Léopoldville), Dahomey, Ethiopia, Gabon, Ghana, Guinea, Ivory Coast, Liberia, Libya, Madagascar, Mali, Mauritania, Morocco, Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Somalia, Sudan, Tanganyika, Tunisia, Uganda, United Arab Republic, Upper Volta.

The topics discussed by the meeting were: (1) creation of the Organization of African States; (2) co-operation among African states in the following fields: economic and social, education, culture and science, collective defence; (3) decolonization; (4) apartheid and racial discrimination.

ORGANIZATION OF AFRICAN UNITY

(5) effects of economic groupings on the economic development of Africa; (6) disarmament; (7) creation of a Permanent Conciliation Commission; (8) Africa and the United Nations.

The Heads of State Conference which opened on May 23rd drew up the Charter of the Organization of African

Unity, which was then signed by the heads of thirty states on May 28th, 1963. The Charter was based essentially on the concept of a loose association of states favoured by the Monrovia Group, rather than the federal idea supported by the Casablanca Group, and in particular by Ghana.

ORGANIZATION

ASSEMBLY OF HEADS OF STATE

The Assembly of Heads of State and Government meets annually to co-ordinate policies of African States. Resolutions are passed by a two-thirds majority, procedural matters by a simple majority. Last meeting June 1971; next meeting June 1972, Rabat.

Chairman (1971): President MOKTAR OULD DADDAH (Mauritania).

COUNCIL OF MINISTERS

Consists of Foreign and/or other Ministers and meets twice a year, with provision for extraordinary sessions. Each session elects its own Chairman. Prepares meetings of, and is responsible to, the Assembly of Heads of State. By September 1969 thirteen Ordinary Meetings and six Extraordinary Sessions had been held.

ARBITRATION COMMISSION

Commission of Mediation, Conciliation and Arbitration: Addis Ababa; f. 1964; consists of 21 members elected by the Assembly of Heads of State for a five-year term; no state may have more than one member; has a Bureau consisting of a President and two Vice-Presidents, who shall not be eligible for re-election; to hear and settle disputes between member states by peaceful means; Pres. M. A. ODESANYA (Nigeria).

SPECIALIZED COMMISSIONS

The Assembly of Heads of State and Government at its third ordinary session at Addis Ababa in November 1966

ratified the recommendations for the regrouping of the Six Specialized Commissions into the following three:

Economic and Social Commission (also in charge of Transport and Communications).

Educational, Cultural, Scientific and Health Commission.

Defence Commission.

LIBERATION COMMITTEE

Co-ordinating Committee for Liberation Movements in Africa: Dar es Salaam, Tanzania; f. 1963; to provide financial and military aid to nationalist movements in dependent countries; Sixteenth Session was held in February 1970; Sec. M. MAGOMBE (Tanzania).

SECRETARIAT

P.O. Box 3243, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

The General Secretariat is a permanent and central organ of the OAU. It carries out functions assigned to it in the Charter of the OAU and by other agreements and treaties made between member states. Departments: Political, Legal, Economic and Social, Educational and Cultural, Press and Information, Protocol, Administrative.

Secretary-General: DIALLO TELLI BOUBACAR (Guinea).

Assistant Secretaries-General: H. B. MUSA (Nigeria), GRATIEN L. POGNON (Dahomey), MOHAMED SAHNOUN (Algeria), J. D. BULIRO (Kenya).

AIMS AND PURPOSES

To promote unity and solidarity among African States.
To co-ordinate and intensify their efforts to improve living standards in Africa.
To defend their sovereignty, territorial integrity, and independence.

To eradicate all forms of colonialism from Africa.
To promote international co-operation, having due regard to the Charter of the United Nations and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

BUDGET

Member states contribute in accordance with their United Nations' assessment. No member state shall be assessed for an amount exceeding 20 per cent of the yearly regular budget of the Organization.

ORGANIZATION OF AFRICAN UNITY

PRINCIPAL EVENTS

1963			June	Extraordinary session of Council of Ministers, Lagos Five member committee set up to examine allegations of subversion in Ghana Five-member committee appointed to assist nationalist movements in Rhodesia
May	Conference of Independent African States at Addis Ababa agreed to set up OAU Co-ordinating Committee for Liberation Movements set up in Addis Ababa			
Aug	First meeting of Council of Ministers, Dakar Recognition of the Angolan government in-exile of Holden Roberto		Oct.	Second Assembly of Heads of State, Accra Chad, Dahomey Gabon Ivory Coast Madagascar, Niger, Togo and Upper Volta were absent Establishment of an African Defence Organization recommended Committee of five on Rhodesia was set up
Nov	First extraordinary meeting of Council of Ministers, Addis Ababa on the Algerian Moroccan Border Dispute <i>Ad hoc</i> Commission set up, to arbitrate in the dispute, consisting of Ethiopia Ivory Coast, Mali, Nigeria, Senegal, Sudan and Tanganyika		Nov	First meeting of Committee of Five, Dar es Salaam
Dec	Meeting of the OAU <i>ad hoc</i> Commission in Abidjan Idrissa Diarra (Mali) appointed President Bamako designated headquarters of the Commission		Dec	Sixth extraordinary session of Council of Ministers convened at Addis Ababa to discuss Rhodesia's declaration of independence Resolutions adopted to combat the illegal government in Rhodesia
1964			1966	
Feb	Second extraordinary meeting of Council of Ministers Dar es Salaam, to consider army mutinies in East Africa Recommends replacement of British troops by detachments from other African states Discussion of Ethiopian Somali border dispute Second regular meeting of Council of Ministers Lagos Resolution to refuse aircraft and ships going to and from South Africa overflight of transit facilities Appeal to apply strict economic military, political and diplomatic sanctions against South Africa The Council called on the British Government to prevent the threat of unilateral independence by the minority regime in Southern Rhodesia		Jan	Meeting of Committee of Five on Rhodesia in Accra
July	First meeting of Assembly of Heads of State, Cairo Permanent Secretariat and Headquarters established at Addis Ababa, Diallo Telli to be Secretary General Decision to incorporate the Commission for Technical Co-operation in Africa (CCTA) as an organ of OAU from January 1965		Feb	Sixth Ordinary Session of Council of Ministers was held in Addis Ababa Committee of solidarity with Zambia established
Sept.	Third extraordinary meeting of Council of Ministers Addis Ababa, to discuss the Congolese situation. <i>Ad hoc</i> Commission set up, consisting of Cameroon, Ethiopia, Ghana, Guinea, Nigeria, Somalia Tunisia U.A.R. and Upper Volta, with Jomo Kenyatta as effective Chairman, to support the Congolese government in its policy of national reconciliation and seek to bring about normal relations between the Congolese government and its neighbours		Sept	Meeting of <i>ad hoc</i> Commission on Refugees in Addis Ababa It was reported that there are about 480 000 African refugees from Angola Congo (Democratic Republic), Mozambique Portuguese Guinea, Rwanda and Sudan
1965			Nov	Seventh Ordinary Session of Council of Ministers met in Addis Ababa Meeting of Heads of State in Addis Ababa. Resolutions passed on Rhodesia and the border dispute between Ethiopia and Somalia
Jan.	CCTA incorporated as the Scientific, Technical and Research Commission of OAU		1967	
Feb	Meeting of Council of Ministers at Nairobi proposes establishment of an African Defence Organization		Jan	Meeting of the <i>Ad Hoc</i> Commission on the Algerian Moroccan border dispute in Tangiers Meeting of the Consultative Committee on Budgetary and Financial matters
			Feb - March	Eighth Ordinary Session of the Council of Ministers held in Addis Ababa
			April	Meeting of the Scientific Council for Africa in Addis Ababa
			Sept.	Ninth Ordinary Session of the Council of Ministers met in Kinshasa Fourth meeting of the Assembly of Heads of State and Governments met in Kinshasa Seventeen Heads of State attended Appointment of Mission of Six Heads of State to find solution for Nigerian conflict. Agreement reached on border dispute between Somalia and Kenya
			Oct.	Conference in Addis Ababa on the problems of the 750 000 refugees in Africa, jointly organized by OAU, Economic Commission for Africa, UN High Commissioner for Refugees and the Dag Hammarskjöld Foundation. Recommendation

ORGANIZATION OF AFRICAN UNITY

- made that each African country should absorb a number of refugees. A bureau for the education and placement of refugees is to be established within the framework of the OAU Secretariat.
- 1968
- Feb. Tenth ordinary session of the Council of Ministers held in Addis Ababa.
- July Meeting of Consultative Committee on Nigeria in Niamey. Discussions attended by both Nigerian and Biafran leaders.
- Sept. Fifth Meeting of Heads of State in Algiers. Twenty-two Heads of State attended. Resolution passed supporting Nigerian Federal Government's efforts to reunify the country. Resolution passed calling for withdrawal of foreign troops from Arab territory. Diallo Telli re-elected Secretary-General for a further four-year term.
- Dec. Conference of African nationalist organizations called by the OAU Liberation Committee was held at Morogoro, Tanzania. Recommendation made that in future, all guerrilla training should be carried out in Africa, and that military and technical instructors from countries outside Africa should not be allowed to lecture on politics or ideology. Seven leading nationalist organizations were represented.
- 1969
- Feb. 14th Session of the OAU Liberation Committee. STEPHEN MHANDO (Tanzania) elected Chairman. Meeting of OAU Ministerial Council called on both sides in the Nigerian war to implement an immediate cease-fire and then negotiate.
- March Conference of African Ministers of Labour in Algiers. Ministers of 35 countries resolved to establish a single central trade union. Resolution passed calling for reform of the structure and programmes of the International Labour Organisation and for greater participation of African countries in its administration.
- April Meeting of OAU Consultative Committee on Nigeria in Monrovia, Liberia.
- June Agreement signed with UN High Commissioner for Refugees providing for close co-operation and regular consultations concerning refugee problems in Africa and measures to solve them.
- July OAU Conference on the peaceful use of atomic energy, Kinshasa.
Pan-African Cultural Festival held in Algiers.
- Aug.-
Sept. Thirteenth Ordinary Session of Council of Ministers held in Addis Ababa.
- Sept. Sixth Meeting of Heads of State held in Addis Ababa. Resolution passed appealing for a cease-fire and peace talks to end the Nigerian civil war, on the basis of a united Nigeria. Gabon, Ivory Coast, Sierra Leone, Tanzania and Zambia abstained.
- Dec. Ninth session of the Advisory Committee on Budgetary and Financial Matters held in Addis Ababa.
- 1970
- Feb. 16th Session of the OAU Liberation Committee at Moshi, Tanzania. Efforts of the freedom fighters in the previous six months were commended and the setting up of a special fund to help liberation movements in Portuguese territories was recommended.
- Feb.-
March 14th Session of Ministerial Council passed a resolution on decolonization which included an appeal to all nations not to collaborate on the Cabora Bassa dam project. It also condemned military and other co-operation by NATO countries with "the racist régimes of South Africa, Portugal and Rhodesia".
- Aug. Meeting of Council of Ministers. Resolution tabled by Kenya condemning western arms sales to South Africa. Decision made to reactivate the Defence Commission, with a new mandate, to concentrate on the "growing threat from southern Africa".
- Sept. Seventh Meeting of Heads of State, attended by 14 Heads of State and three Prime Ministers; other states sent delegations. Resolution passed demanding the withdrawal of Israeli forces from territories occupied in the June 1967 war. Resolution passed condemning arms sales to southern Africa particularly from Britain, France and Federal Germany. Eight countries did not support the resolution: Malawi, Ivory Coast, Dahomey, Rwanda, Niger, Gabon, Lesotho, Madagascar. The meeting decided to send a mission of Foreign Ministers to countries selling or intending to sell arms to South Africa, and also debated sanctions against countries with economic and trade relations with South Africa and Portugal. It also debated the request from liberation movements for increased aid.
- Dec. Extraordinary Session of Ministerial Council met in Lagos to discuss the events in Guinea in November. The Guinean Minister declared his country to be in favour of the stationing of an African military force in Guinea for its defence.
- 1971
- Feb. 18th Session of the OAU Liberation Committee at Moshi, Tanzania. Efforts were made to reconcile differences between Rhodesian and South African liberation movements.
- June 16th Session (postponed from March because of difficulties on Ugandan representation) and 17th Session of the Ministerial Council. Emperor Haile Selassie warned against a dialogue between black and white Africa.
- Eighth meeting of Heads of State held in Addis Ababa, transferred from Kampala, Uganda. Resolution passed demanding the withdrawal of Israeli forces from territories occupied in the June 1967 war. Resolution that there is no basis for meaningful dialogue with the "minority racist régime of South Africa". A committee was set up to mediate in a dispute between Guinea and Senegal.

ORGANIZATION OF AFRICAN UNITY

SUMMARY OF CHARTER

Article I Establishment of the Organization of African Unity The Organization to include continental African states Madagascar and other islands surrounding Africa

Article II Aims and purposes (see above) Fields of co-operation

Article III Member states adhere to the principles of sovereign equality non interference in internal affairs of member states respect for territorial integrity, peaceful settlement of disputes condemnation of political subversion dedication to the emancipation of dependent African territories and international non alignment.

Article IV Each independent sovereign African state shall be entitled to become a member of the Organization

Article V All member states shall have equal rights and duties

Article VI All member states shall observe scrupulously the principles laid down in Article III

Article VII Establishment of the Assembly of Heads of State and Government the Council of Ministers the General Secretariat and the Commission of Mediation Conciliation and Arbitration

Articles VIII XI The Assembly of Heads of State and Government co-ordinates policies and reviews the structure of the Organization

Articles XII XV The Council of Ministers shall prepare conferences of the Assembly and co-ordinate inter African co-operation. All resolutions shall be by simple majority

Articles XVI-XVIII The General Secretariat The Administrative Secretary General and his staff shall not seek or receive instructions from any government or other authority external to the Organization They are international officials responsible only to the Organization.

Article XIX Commission of Mediation Conciliation and Arbitration A separate protocol concerning the composition and nature of this Commission shall be regarded as an integral part of the Charter

Articles XX XXII Specialised Commissions shall be established composed of Ministers or other officials designated by Member Governments Their regulations shall be laid down by the Council of Ministers

Article XXIII The Budget shall be prepared by the Secretary General and approved by the Council of Ministers Contributions shall be in accordance with the scale of assessment of the United Nations No Member shall pay more than twenty per cent of the total yearly amount

Article XXIV Texts of the Charter in African Languages English and French shall be equally authentic Instruments of ratification shall be deposited with the Government of Ethiopia

Article XXV The Charter shall come into force on receipt by the Government of Ethiopia of the instruments of ratification of two thirds of the signatory states

Article XXVI The Charter shall be registered with the Secretariat of the United Nations

Article XXVII Questions of interpretation shall be settled by a two thirds majority vote in the Assembly of Heads of State and Government

Article XXVIII Admission of new independent African states to the Organization shall be decided by a simple majority of the Member States

Articles XXIX XXXIII The working languages of the Organization shall be African languages English and French. The Secretary General may accept gifts and bequests to the Organization subject to the approval of the Council of Ministers The Council of Ministers shall establish privileges and immunities to be accorded to the personnel of the Secretariat in the territories of Member States A State wishing to withdraw from the Organization must give a year's written notice to the Secretariat The Charter may only be amended after consideration by all Member States and by a two thirds majority vote of the Assembly of Heads of State and Government Such amendments will come into force one year after submission

ORGANIZATION OF AFRICAN UNITY—(STRC)

SCIENTIFIC, TECHNICAL AND RESEARCH COMMISSION—STRC

Nigerian Ports Authority Building, P.M.B. 2359, Marina, Lagos, Nigeria.

Formerly the Commission for Technical Co-operation in Africa (CCTA, set up in 1954), the STRC was established as one of the Commissions of the OAU in January 1965.

ORGANIZATION

GENERAL SECRETARIAT

Executive Secretary: A. O. ODELOLA.

BUREAUX

Inter-African Bureau for Soils (Bureau interafricain des sols)—BIS: B.P. 1352, Bangui, Central African Republic.

Inter-African Bureau for Animal Health (Bureau interafricain pour la santé animale): Muguga, P.O.B. 30786, Kikuyu, Kenya.

Inter-African Phytosanitary Commission (Commission phytosanitaire interafricaine)—IAPSC: B.P. 4170 Niongak, rue de l'Hypodrome, Yaoundé, Cameroon.

COMMITTEES AND CORRESPONDENTS

Inter-African Scientific Correspondent for Oceanography and Fisheries.

Inter-African Scientific Correspondent for the Conservation of Nature.

Inter-African Committee on Food Science and Food Technology.

Inter-African Committee on Mechanization of Agriculture

Inter-African Committee on Geology and Mineralogy.

Inter-African Committee on Biological Sciences.

Inter-African Committee on African Medicinal Plants.

International Council on Trypanosomiasis Research.

INTER-AFRICAN RESEARCH FUND

The object of the Fund, to which governments and official organizations may subscribe, is to promote joint scientific research and technical projects, in the following categories:

Broad surveys, including information and liaison work.

Research on problems by small highly specialized staffs operating over wide areas.

Research on problems which affect many countries but which should be investigated initially in one limited area.

ORGANIZATION OF AFRICAN UNITY—(STRC)

JOINT PROJECTS

- 1 Climatological Atlas for Africa University of the Witwatersrand Johannesburg published 1964
- 2 Science and Development of Africa c/o STRC Secretariat Author Dr E B WORTHINGTON
- 3 Study of Migrations in West Africa. Director Dr J ROUGH C.N.R.S.
- 4 Inventory of Economic Research St Anne's College Oxford Editor Miss P ADY published 1961
- 5 Research into Absenteeism and Labour Turnover Undertaken by the Governments of the six founder States of CCTA published 1963
- 6 Comparative Study on National Accounting Systems Co-ordinator MILTON GILBERT published 1961
- 7 Base Maps for Cartographical Work produced under the Auspices of the Commission Professor S P JACKSON
- 8 Mapping of Vector Diseases Co-ordinator Prof VAN DEN BERG
- 9 Methodology of Family Budget Surveys CCTA's Statistics Committee published 1965
- 10 Occupational Classification in Africa. In collaboration with ILO
- 11 Pedological Map of Africa. Inter African Pedological Service published 1965
- 12 Study of Methods of Promoting Private Investment.
- 13 Analyses of Sea Water Inter African Scientific Correspondent for Oceanography and Sea Fisheries
- 14 Handbook on Harmful Aquatic Plants publ 1962
- 15 Eradication of Rinderpest in Africa
- 16 Bovine Pleuropneumonia Vaccine Research
- 17 Tsetse Campaign in South East Africa
- 18 Psychometric Tests for use at end of Primary Education
- 19 Gulf of Guinea Campaign (1968)
- 20 Map of the dangers of erosion in Africa published 1962
- 21 Regional Training Centre for French speaking Customs Officers
- 22 Regional Training Centre for English speaking staff of National Parks
- 23 Regional Training Centre for French speaking Hydrological Assistants
- 24 Regional Training Centre for French speaking Hydrogeological Assistants
- 25 International West African Atlas
- 26 Improvement of major Cereal Crops

PUBLICATIONS

Publications Bureau Maison de l'Afrique P.O.B. 878
Niamey Niger

African Soils published by the Inter African Bureau for Soils and Rural Economy—B.I.S. (bilingual—English and French—3 issues)

Bulletin of Epizootic Diseases of Africa published by the Inter African Bureau for Animal Health—I.B.A.H. (English and French—4 issues)

Numerous publications on joint projects and scientific research on Africa obtainable from the Lagos office

ORGANIZATION OF ARAB PETROLEUM EXPORTING COUNTRIES

P.O.B. 20501, Al-Soor Street, Kuwait

Established 1968 to safeguard the interests of members and determine ways and means for their co-operation in various forms of economic activity in the petroleum industry.

Kuwait
Algeria
Dubai

MEMBERS

Libya
Abu Dhabi
Qatar

Saudi Arabia
Bahrain

ORGANIZATION

COUNCIL

Supreme authority of the Organization, responsible for drawing up its general policy, directing its activities and laying down its governing rules. Meets twice yearly as a minimum requirement and may hold extraordinary sessions. Chairmanship on annual rotation basis.

Chairman (1970): H. E. Ezz ELDIN ALMABROOK (Libya).

BUREAU

Assists the Council to direct the management of the Organization, approves staff regulations, reviews the budget, and refers it to the Council, considers matters relating to the Organization's agreements and activities and draws up the agenda for the Council. Each member country is represented on the Bureau, Chairmanship of which is by rotation. The Bureau convenes four times a year as a minimum requirement.

Chairman (1970): ISSA AL-QIBLAWI (Libya).

SECRETARIAT

Secretary-General: (vacant, June 1971).

Technical Department: Deals with technical matters in petroleum, including exploration, production and processing.

Legal Department: Responsible for all legal studies and reports.

Economic Department: Responsible for all economic studies.

Public Relations Section: Responsible for carrying out programmes, and covering the Organization's projects and activities.

Office of the Secretary-General: Assists the Secretary-General in implementing and following up the resolutions and recommendations of the Council, as well as other matters.

Administration and Financial Department: Deals with personnel matters, budget and accounting, record keeping and archives.

RECORD OF EVENTS

1968	
Sept.	First meeting of the Council, Kuwait.
Dec.	First meeting of the National Oil Companies, Riyadh.
1969	
Jan.	Second meeting of the Council, Kuwait.
March	Second meeting of the National Oil Companies, Tripoli.
July	Third meeting of the Council, Vienna.
1970	
Jan.	Fourth meeting of the Council, Kuwait.
May	Extraordinary meeting of the Council to consider

	applications for membership of Abu Dhabi, Algeria, Bahrain, Dubai, and Qatar. The applications were approved. Held in Kuwait.
June	Fifth meeting of the Council, Algeria.
Dec.	Sixth meeting in Kuwait failed to admit Iraq as a member of the Organization. Members agreed to create a jointly owned tanker company and petroleum services company.
1971	
June	Seventh meeting of Council in Kuwait ended early after disagreement on Iraq's proposed admission, support to be given to Algeria in dispute with France, and policy towards EEC and EFTA.

ORGANIZATION OF THE PETROLEUM EXPORTING COUNTRIES—OPEC

Dr. Karl Lueger-Ring 10, 1010 Vienna, Austria

Established 1960 to unify and co ordinate members' petroleum policies and to safeguard their interests generally

MEMBERS

Abu Dhabi
Algeria
Indonesia
Iran

Iraq
Kuwait
Libya
Nigeria

Qatar
Saudi Arabia
Venezuela

ORGANIZATION

THE CONFERENCE

Supreme authority of the Organization responsible for the formulation of its general policy. It consists of representatives of member countries. It decides upon reports and recommendations submitted by Board of Governors. Meets at least twice a year the first meeting being in Vienna and the second in the capital of a member country. It approves the appointment of Governors from each country and elects the Chairman of the Board of Governors. It works on the unanimity principle.

CONSULTATIVE MEETING OF CHIEF REPRESENTATIVES

Meetings held by chief representatives for the formulation of recommendations to the Conference concerning current issues.

THE BOARD OF GOVERNORS

Directs management of the Organization. Implements resolutions of the Conference. Draws up an annual Budget. It consists of one Governor for each member country, appointed for two years, and meets at least twice a year. Chairman (1971) MAHMOUD HAMRA KAROUHA (Algeria).

THE ECONOMIC COMMISSION

A specialized body operating within the framework of the Secretariat, with a view to assisting the Organization in promoting stability in international oil prices at equitable levels. Consists of a Board, national representatives and a commission staff. The Board meets at least twice a year.

SECRETARIAT

Secretary-General (1971) Dr. NADIM AL PACHACHI (Abu Dhabi)

Administration Department Deals with personnel matters, budget and accounting, filing and archives, conference services, general correspondence and clerical services.

Economics Department Consists of Financial, Supply and Demand, and General Economics Sections, is responsible for all economic studies and reports.

Information Department Responsible for a programme of general and technical publications and periodicals, appropriate relations with other oil industry institutions with a view to expanding the Information Centre of the Organization.

Legal Department Consists of Concessions and Special Studies sections, is responsible for all legal studies and reports.

Technical Department Carries out studies mainly on petroleum technical matters including exploration, production and processing.

Statistical Unit Collects, edits, collates and analyses statistical information from both primary and secondary sources.

Office of the Secretary General Assists him in matters of protocol and implementation of the recommendations and decisions of the Conference calling for action by member countries.

ORGANIZATION OF THE PETROLEUM EXPORTING COUNTRIES

RECORD OF EVENTS

1960						ASHRAF LUTFI as OPEC's third Secretary-General.
September	Baghdad	First OPEC Conference held at invitation of Iraq. Concern expressed over fluctuating oil prices. Resolutions passed to hold twice-yearly meetings and form a Secretariat.	July	Tripoli	Ninth OPEC Conference. Agreement to move headquarters from Geneva to Vienna. Established a production programme as a transitory measure to stabilize prices.	
1961						
January	Caracas	Second OPEC Conference. Qatar admitted as new member. Board of Governors created and set of Statutes passed (outlined under "Organization"). Budget drawn up. FUAD ROUHANI appointed as first Chairman of Board of Governors and Secretary-General.	December	Vienna	Tenth OPEC Conference. Appointed ALIRIO PARRA as Chairman of the Board for one year; extended term of ASHRAF LUTFI until December 1966; supported Libyan Government in dispute with certain companies; asked for study of posted prices.	
October-November	Teheran	Third OPEC Conference. Iraq absent. Conference supports Iraq's position in her dispute with oil companies; approves 1962 Budget.	1966			
			April	Vienna	Eleventh OPEC Conference. Recommended complete elimination of the allowance, and that posted prices should apply for determining tax liabilities of oil companies.	
1962						
April (first session) and June (second session)	Geneva	Fourth OPEC Conference. Iraq absent. Indonesia and Libya admitted to membership. Resolutions adopted on price and royalty policies.	December	Kuwait	Twelfth OPEC Conference. Appointed MUHAMMAD SALEH JOUKHDAR as OPEC's fourth Secretary-General. Term of ALIRIO PARRA as Chairman of the Board extended until December 31st, 1967; 1967 budget approved; organizational structure revised.	
November	Riyadh	Fifth OPEC Conference (first session). FUAD ROUHANI's term as Secretary-General renewed for 1963. 1963 budget approved.				
1963						
December	Riyadh	Fifth OPEC Conference (second session). Dr. ABDUL RAHMAN BAZZAZ appointed as Second Chairman of Board of Governors and Secretary-General. 1964 budget approved.	1967			
			September	Rome	Thirteenth OPEC Conference (extraordinary). Middle East members, except Iraq, represented. Discussed negotiations for elimination of royalty discounts and for higher royalty payments; special Economic Commission set up to study oil exports situation after Middle East crisis.	
1964						
July	Geneva	Sixth OPEC Conference. Reviewed latest offer by the oil companies in reply to the Member Countries' Resolution IV.33 concerning royalties.	November	Vienna	Fourteenth OPEC Conference. Discussed effects on oil exports of the closure of the Suez Canal; examined progress of negotiations for elimination of discounts and for higher royalties; recommended the formation of a uniform petroleum code on royalties, concessions and arbitration; Abu Dhabi admitted to membership; FRANCISCO R. PARRA appointed as OPEC's fifth Secretary-General.	
November	Djakarta	Seventh OPEC Conference. With the exception of Iraq, the Member Countries concerned accepted the oil companies' offer for settlement of the royalty issue. The OPEC Economic Commission was established.				
1965						
April	Geneva	Eighth OPEC Conference (extraordinary). Considered the report of the OPEC Economic Commission; passed resolution concerning measures to halt the decline in crude oil prices; approved a revised Statute of the Organization; appointed FAHD AL-KHAYYAL of Saudi Arabia as Chairman of the Board for one year; appointed	1968			
			January	Beirut	Fifteenth OPEC Conference (extraordinary). Accepted offer on elimination of discounts submitted by oil companies following negotiations held in Teheran in November 1967.	

ORGANIZATION OF THE PETROLEUM EXPORTING COUNTRIES

June	Vienna	Sixteenth OPEC Conference (extraordinary) Adopted a resolution on uniform principles for a petroleum policy in member countries			of production of the existing concessionaires and with the implementation of the royalty expensing formula
1968 November	Baghdad	Seventeenth OPEC Conference IBRAHIM HANAGARI appointed Chairman of the Board of Governors and ELRICHS SANGER appointed Secretary General for 1969	December	Caracas	Twenty first Conference decided to raise to 55 per cent the minimum level of tax on the net income of companies operating in the OPEC member states Decision to support Libya's complaints about the unjustified slowness on exploration and development operations by some companies and to make special allowances reflecting her privileged geographical position for maritime transport Resolution passed calling for negotiations on Gulf oil prices
1969 April		Algeria applied for membership of OPEC			
July	Vienna	Eighteenth Conference unanimously admitted Algeria as tenth member of OPEC discussed the principles of participation and accelerated relinquishment as well as the subject of existing disparities in post or tax reference prices of member countries crude oil	1971 January	Vienna Teheran	Meeting of Permanent Commission Meeting of OPEC member states with representatives of the oil companies on negotiation of Gulf oil prices Negotiations break down and OPEC members prepare to legislate unilaterally to set posted prices and tax rates
December	Qatar	Nineteenth OPEC Conference adopted several resolutions expressing full support for any appropriate measures taken by the Algerian and Libyan governments to safeguard their legitimate interests in oil resources NADIM PACHACHI appointed as Chairman of the Board for one year OMAR EL BADRI appointed as OPEC's seventh Secretary General	Feb 3rd	Teheran	Twenty-second OPEC Conference Resolutions passed made public on February 7th OPEC threatens oil companies with total embargo if the minimum requirements of the Gulf states are not met by February 15th
1970 June	Algiers	Twentieth OPEC Conference Resolutions adopted on production programmes integration of oil industry in members national economies negotiations on the revision of the fiscal regime of the French oil companies operating in Algeria and the position of Iraqi companies with respect to the level	Feb 14th		Five year agreement between 3 international oil companies and the six producing countries in the Gulf (See Oil in the Middle East)
			July	Vienna	Twenty fourth OPEC Conference Nigeria admitted as eleventh member
			September	Vienna	Twenty fifth OPEC Conference

BUDGET

Budget for 1971 \$1 744 249

REFUGEES IN THE MIDDLE EAST

An estimated 726,000 Arabs left Palestine in 1948 following the termination of the British Mandate. As of May 31st, 1970, there were an estimated 550,000-600,000 Arabs newly displaced by the hostilities between Israel and her Arab neighbours. A third of these were original Palestine refugees and their children.

UNITED NATIONS RELIEF AND WORKS AGENCY FOR PALESTINE REFUGEES IN THE NEAR EAST—UNRWA

Museitbeh Quarter, Beirut, Lebanon

Founded in 1950 to provide relief, health, education and welfare services for needy Palestine refugees in the Near East.

REGIONAL OFFICES

Gaza Strip: UNRWA Field Office, Gaza.

East Jordan: UNRWA Field Office, P.O.B. 484, Amman.

West Bank: UNRWA Field Office, P.O.B. 19/0149, Jerusalem.

Lebanon: UNRWA Field Office, P.O.B. 947, Beirut.

Syria: UNRWA Field Office, 19 Salah Eddin el Ayoubi St., Aban Rummaneh, Damascus.

United Arab Republic: UNRWA Liaison Office, 8 Dar el Shifa, Garden City, Cairo.

Europe: UNRWA Liaison Office, Palais des Nations, Geneva.

United States: UNRWA Liaison Office, United Nations, New York.

ORGANIZATION

Commissioner-General: LAURENCE V. MICHELMORE
(U.S.A.).

Deputy Commissioner-General: Sir JOHN S. RENNIE,
G.C.M.G., O.B.E. (U.K.).

UNRWA is a subsidiary organ of the United Nations General Assembly, and began operations in May 1950; it has a mandate currently extending to June 30th, 1972, and employs an international staff of 122 and some 13,400 local staff, mainly Palestinian refugees. The Commissioner-General is assisted by an Advisory Commission consisting of representatives of the governments of:

Belgium	Lebanon	U.A.R.
France	Syrian Arab Republic	United Kingdom
Jordan	Turkey	U.S.A.

REFUGEES IN THE MIDDLE EAST

ACTIVITIES

Since 1950, UNRWA has fed and provided medical services for the needy among a registered refugee population which now numbers over 1 400 000, including 600 000 in refugee camps. It has served 200 million meals to young children and distributed about 12,000 tons of clothing. A simple but effective community health service has been built up with technical guidance from WHO and there has never been a major epidemic among the refugees in UNRWA's care. An education system has been developed with technical advice and guidance from UNESCO and

there are 220 000 children in 480 elementary and preparatory schools operated by UNRWA. UNRWA also operates eight well equipped residential centres for training young refugee men and women as teachers or in a variety of industrial and semi professional skills, with the result that it has become one of the most important channels for this type of technical assistance in the Middle East. Construction for the continued expansion of this programme is well advanced.

THE REFUGEES

For UNRWA's purposes a *bona fide* Palestine refugee is one whose normal residence was in Palestine for a minimum of two years before the 1948 conflict and who, as a result of the hostilities, lost his home and means of livelihood. To be eligible for assistance, a refugee must

reside in one of the 'host' countries in which UNRWA operates and be in need. Children and grandchildren who fulfil certain criteria are also eligible for some or all forms of UNRWA assistance. By June 30th, 1970, there were 1,425,219 refugees registered with UNRWA.

THE NEWLY DISPLACED

After the renewal of Arab-Israeli hostilities in the Middle East in June 1967 hundreds of thousands of people fled from the fighting and the occupied areas. UNRWA was additionally empowered by a UN General Assembly resolution to provide 'humanitarian assistance, as far as practicable on an emergency basis and as a temporary measure' for those persons other than Palestine refugees who were newly displaced and in urgent need. In practice, UNRWA has lacked the funds to aid the other displaced persons and the main burden of supporting them has fallen on the Arab governments concerned.

The U A R Government has estimated that some 45 000 refugees and other persons were displaced from Gaza and the Sinai region to the part of the U A R beyond the Suez Canal including some 4 000 registered refugees. Some 117 500 people fled from the Quneitra region of S W Syria 17 500 of them were registered refugees of whom 15 500 now live in tented camps near Damascus and at Dera. Some 150 000 displaced Palestine refugees from the West Bank and Gaza Strip are now estimated to be in east Jordan. Additionally the Jordan Government has registered 246 000 displaced persons from these areas. Some 120 000 of these people now live in six emergency camps where prefabricated shelters have replaced the original tents in the Amman, Jerash and Irbid areas.

THE FIGHTING IN EAST JORDAN

UNRWA services in east Jordan were brought to a virtual standstill by the outbreak of civil strife on September 17th 1970 and were severely handicapped even after the cease fire, by the disruption of internal communica-

tions and restrictions on the movement of vehicles. Nevertheless, health and sanitation services were restored on September 29th in the two refugee camps in Amman, the worst affected area. Together with the distribution of water regular food distribution was resumed from October 1st onwards. Food convoys were sent into east Jordan from the West Bank under UNRWA sponsorship, from September 27th to October 13th.

By October 13th 1970 all UNRWA services throughout Jordan were fully operational again, except for education which was severely affected by the hostilities. UNRWA/UNESCO schools reopened on November 1st wherever possible but in certain areas, mainly in Amman, the school buildings have been extensively damaged and UNRWA is using marquee tents as schoolrooms until repairs can be effected. Other Agency installations and refugee shelters have also been damaged. Of family shelters constructed by UNRWA, about 1,400 were destroyed or extensively damaged in the Amman area and over 3 000 suffered more than minor damage. The extensive damage to UNRWA's installations, supplies and equipment in east Jordan cannot be repaired without special contributions, and the Commissioner General has again drawn attention to the pressing need for an additional \$6 million in income to enable UNRWA services to the Palestine refugees in the Near East especially education for the children, to be maintained through 1971 at their present level. As the Secretary General has warned Member States reductions in UNRWA's programmes would inevitably, in the disturbed conditions of the area, have a profoundly unsettling effect.

REFUGEES IN THE MIDDLE EAST

NUMBER OF REFUGEE PUPILS RECEIVING EDUCATION IN UNRWA/UNESCO SCHOOLS (as at June 30th, 1970*)

FIELD	NUMBER OF SCHOOLS	PUPILS IN ELEMENTARY CLASSES			PUPILS IN PREPARATORY CLASSES			TOTAL NUMBER OF PUPILS
		Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	
East Jordan	136	32,157	28,177	60,334	8,394	5,436	13,830	74,164
West Bank	87	10,536	11,197	21,733	3,556	2,830	6,386	28,119
Gaza Strip	108	21,844	19,207	41,051	8,515	7,857	16,372	57,423
Lebanon	61	12,682	11,109	23,791	3,708	2,559	6,267	30,058
Syria	86	11,825	9,877	21,702	7,705	3,207	7,912	29,614
TOTAL	480	89,044	79,567	168,611	28,878	21,889	50,767	219,378

* Additionally in the 1969-70 school year a total of 50,041 refugee children received education in government schools and a total of 14,318 refugee children in private schools in the host countries, partly with grants paid by UNRWA.

102963

FINANCE

UNRWA'S budget for 1971 is \$47,545,000.

In recent years about 80 per cent of the total income has been contributed by the governments of the United States, the United Kingdom, Canada, Sweden and the Federal Republic of Germany, the remainder being provided by some 75 other governments, as well as by voluntary agencies and private sources.

UNRWA's average expenditure per refugee per year is just \$37, or ten cents per day.

ESTIMATED EXPENDITURE, 1970 (as of June 30th, 1970)

	ESTIMATED EXPENDITURE (U.S. \$'000)	PERCENTAGE (Approx.)
<i>Relief Services:</i>		
Basic Rations	12,461	—
Supplementary Feeding	2,111	—
Shelter	348	—
Special Hardship Assistance	529	—
Share of Common Costs*	3,585	—
TOTAL RELIEF SERVICES	19,034	41.3
<i>Health Services:</i>		
Medical Services	3,662	—
Environmental Sanitation	1,369	—
Share of Common Costs*	1,139	—
TOTAL HEALTH SERVICES	6,170	13.3
<i>Education Services:</i>		
General Education	14,452	—
Vocational and Professional Training	3,679	—
Share of Common Costs*	2,810	—
TOTAL EDUCATION SERVICES	20,941	45.4
GRAND TOTAL	46,145	100.0

* Common costs include all operations involving supply and transport services, other internal services and general administration. The above summary table sets out the allocation of common costs to each of the Agency's operational programmes.

REGIONAL CO-OPERATION FOR DEVELOPMENT— RCD

5 Vassal Shirazi, North of Boulevard, P.O. Box 3273, Teheran, Iran

Telephones 625614 623152 629045

Established in 1964 as a tripartite arrangement aiming at closer economic, technical and cultural co operation and promoting the economic advancement and welfare of over 180 million people of this region

MEMBERS

Iran

Pakistan

Turkey

ORGANIZATION

MINISTERIAL COUNCIL

Established 1964 as the highest decision making body of the RCD, composed of the Foreign Ministers of the three countries, considers and decides on measures for regional co-operation among the three countries

REGIONAL PLANNING COUNCIL

Established 1964, composed of the Heads of the three Planning Organizations, makes recommendations to the Ministerial Council on measures for regional co-operation among the three countries

Working Committees Industry Petrol and Petrochemicals, Trade, Transport and Communications, Technical Co-operation and Public Administration, Social Affairs, Co-ordination Committee

SECRETARIAT

5 Vassal Shirazi, North of Boulevard Teheran, Iran
Established 1965, staff consists of Secretary General, two Deputy Secretaries-General, four Directors, three Assistant Directors and supporting staff drawn from nationals of the member countries. The Secretariat is permanently located in Teheran

Secretary-General: VARAF ASIROGLU (Turkey)

RECORD OF EVENTS

1964	Meeting of Foreign Ministers of the three countries Ankara Agreement on collaboration in communications agriculture industry, mineral resources, education, health, and regional development, outside the framework of CENTO	1965	Meetings of Regional Planning Council and Ministerial Council Islamabad, Pakistan
July	Meetings of the Heads of State of Iran Pakistan and Turkey at Istanbul Agreement on economic and cultural co-operation Ministerial Council and Regional Planning Council established.	March	Agreement to set up a tripartite Shipping Conference Air mail surcharges on letters between the countries to be reduced to the internal level General agreement on technical co-operation Joint industrial enterprises identified Agreements on establishment of an RCD Chamber of Commerce, collaboration between news agencies.
August	Meeting of working committees, Teheran Fields of study trade, shipping air transport road and rail transport, telecommunications petroleum banking cultural affairs tourism	July	Meetings of Regional Planning Council and Ministerial Council, Ankara RCD Joint Chamber of Commerce and Industry established in Teheran RCD Insurance Centre established in Karachi
September	Meetings of Regional Planning Council and Ministerial Council, Teheran. Agreement to set up a joint international airline, a joint shipping company joint petroleum organizations, and a regional cultural institute Asphalt roads and rail links to be completed by 1968 Reduction planned of postal charges, insurance rates and tariffs. Joint action to be taken to develop regional tourism. Secretariat established in Teheran New committees on joint industrial ventures and technical co-operation set up	1966	
		February	Meetings of Ministerial Council and Regional Planning Council, Teheran
		May	Meeting of the Regional Planning Council and the Ministerial Council, Teheran. RCD Shipping Services started operations on intra regional routes
		August	Iran and Pakistan signed agreement providing for setting up of a joint aluminium plant

REGIONAL CO-OPERATION FOR DEVELOPMENT

1967 January	Meeting of Regional Planning Council and Ministerial Council, Ankara. Agreement to set up a joint Bank Note Paper project in Pakistan. Decision to form a Payments Union among the three countries.	December	Eleventh Sessions of the Regional Planning Council and of Council of Ministers, Teheran. Establishment of joint purpose enterprise for production of High-Tension Porcelain Insulators agreed; to be sited in Turkey.
March	The following three Regional Reinsurance Pools started operations: <i>Accident</i> , managed by Iran; <i>Marine (Hull and Cargo)</i> , managed by Pakistan; <i>Fire</i> , managed by Turkey.	1970 January	Meeting to discuss Tripartite Agreement on Avoidance of Double Taxation.
April	Agreement providing for the RCD Union for Multilateral Payments Arrangements signed at Ankara.	June	Twelfth Sessions of Regional Planning Council and of Council of Ministers, Bursa, Turkey.
July	Summit conference held at Ramsar, Iran. Working Group set up to examine possibilities of widening and strengthening collaboration.	July	Twelfth meeting of the RCD Ministerial Council at Bursa.
August	Seventh session of Council of Ministers and Regional Planning Council held at Islamabad, Pakistan.	August	Conference of Press/Information Officers of Member Countries stationed in Europe at Vienna.
October	Meeting of Press and/or Information Officers of the RCD countries stationed in Europe.	October	RCD Experts Group on Agriculture at Teheran. Expert Group meeting on Plan Harmonization at Ankara.
November	Agreement signed on public and private investment in joint enterprises.	November	Working Group meeting on Recognition and Equivalence of University Degrees at Teheran. Meeting of Export Promotion Representatives at Karachi.
December	Meeting of the Executive Committee of Chambers of Commerce in Teheran.	December	RCD Committee on Petroleum and Petrochemicals at Ankara. Experts Group meeting on UNCTAD Report at Teheran. RCD Committee on Industry at Teheran. RCD Committee on Social Affairs at Ankara. RCD Tourism Committee at Teheran. RCD Committee on Trade at Teheran. RCD Committee on Transport and Communications at Dacca.
1968 January	Agreement to establish joint Jute Manufacturing Project in East Pakistan.	1971 January	RCD Committee on Technical Co-operation and Public Administration at Dacca. Thirteenth meeting of the Co-ordination Committee at Dacca. Thirteenth meeting of the Regional Planning Council at Dacca. Thirteenth meeting of the Ministerial Council at Dacca.
April	Eighth Session of the Council of Ministers and the Regional Planning Council, Teheran. Two more Regional Reinsurance Pools, <i>Aviation</i> and <i>Engineering</i> , started operations.	March	Mr. Masarrat Husain Zuberi completed his term as Secretary-General of RCD.
June	Operator Trunk Dialling System introduced between Ankara, Teheran and Karachi.	April	Meeting of Experts Group on Trade at Teheran.
August	Agreement signed for the establishment of a joint Ball Bearing Plant in Pakistan.	May	Mr. Vahap Asiroglu took over as Secretary-General of RCD. Experts Group meeting on UNCTAD Report at Ankara. Experts Group meeting on Tourism at Ankara. RCD Tour Operators Meeting at Istanbul. RCD Shipping Management Body meeting at Teheran. RCD Committee on Social Affairs at Islamabad. Meeting of RCD Heads of Industrial Development Banks at Teheran.
September	Meeting of Commerce and Economy Ministers in Teheran. Decision to carry out study, with the assistance of UNCTAD, for identifying barriers impeding intra-regional trade.	June	Experts Group Meeting on Allowances of trainees and experts under the Technical Co-operation Programme. Expert Group meeting on Telecommunication at Teheran.
November	Agreement to establish joint Tungsten Carbide Plant in Turkey.		
December	Meeting of Regional Planning Council and Ministerial Council, Ankara. Summit Conference, Karachi. Approved report of the Ramsar Working Group containing recommendations for increased collaboration.		
1969 February	Meeting of Heads of Iran Air, PIA and Turkish Airlines at Karachi to consider feasibility of forming a joint airline to operate large subsonic and supersonic aircraft.		
March	Agreement signed on the establishment of an Ultra-Marine Blue project in Pakistan. Agreement signed by Pakistan and Turkey in respect of a Shock Absorbers plant in Pakistan. Meeting of Regional Planning Council and Ministerial Council, Islamabad.		
July	Agreement signed between IRANAIR and PIA for pooling traffic in Karachi-Teheran sector.		

REGIONAL CO OPERATION FOR DEVELOPMENT

JOINT UNDERTAKINGS

RCD Cultural Institute RCD Secretariat Teheran, Iran
RCD Insurance Centre Pakistan Insurance Building
Bander Rd POB 4777 Karachi Pakistan

RCD Joint Chamber of Commerce and Industry RCD
Secretariat Teheran Iran

RCD Shipping Services on intra regional routes
Tevkiye Sisli POB 35 Istanbul Turkey

Five Regional Reinsurance Pools Accident managed by
Iran *Marine (Hull and Cargo)* managed by Pakistan *Fire*
managed by Turkey *Aviation Engineering*

Industry Fifty five joint industrial projects have been approved for establishment of which seventeen are in various stages of implementation. Thirteen projects on a Joint Purpose Enterprise basis have already gone into production Bank Note Paper Plant Machine Tools Methanol Urea Formaldehyde Gear Box and Differentials Borax and Boracic Acid Machinery for Tea Industry Tungsten Carbide Filters for the Chemical Industry Locomotive Diesel Engines Polystyrene Glycerine (two) The Ball Bearings Ultra Marine Blue Shock Absorbers and Jute Mills projects in Pakistan are all expected to go into production by the end of 1970

Steps are being taken by member governments to encourage the participation of the private sector in joint ventures.

A study is being prepared by UNIDO on the establishment of RCD Heavy Engineering and Electrical Corporation(s) in order to evolve an integrated approach wherever practicable. It is hoped that this study would help in adequately setting up and distributing heavy engineering projects in the region.

In the field of petroleum and petrochemicals co-operation amongst the RCD countries is progressing satisfactorily. Measures are being taken for exploration drilling exploitation refining transportation and distribution for petroleum and natural gas in the region. The Izmir Oil Refinery project is progressing very well. The question of constructing a pipeline to carry oil from Iranian fields to a Mediterranean port in Turkey is under advanced stage of negotiations. Furthermore exchange of petrochemicals on joint enterprise basis and setting up of joint petrochemical plants are under consideration of member governments.

Trade and Finance Measures include the establishment of the RCD Chamber of Commerce and Industry the RCD Shipping Services Agreement on the RCD Union for Multilateral Payments Arrangement preparation of the RCD Banking Manual the creation of the RCD Reinsurance Pools and the RCD Agreement on Trade to promote intra regional trade.

In pursuance of the decision of the RCD Commerce and Economy Ministers held in Teheran in September 1968 a study was entrusted to UNCTAD with a view to identifying all barriers impeding intra regional trade and making recommendations for the liberalization and expansion of trade. This study has been submitted by UNCTAD and is under the active consideration of the three governments. The last Izmir Summit meeting in May 1970 issued directive to respective Commerce/Economy Ministers for taking effective decisions towards

the reduction of tariff barriers and relaxation of quantitative restrictions and other non tariff obstacles. The member governments are also considering to establish a preferential arrangement for the region. The drawing up of a preferential arrangement will go a long way in promoting trade in the region. Meanwhile member governments are taking administrative action such as barter arrangement and single country licensing to increase the flow of intra regional trade. For instance import of Pakistani jute goods by Turkey against single country licensing and barter arrangement between Iran and Pakistan for Iranian buses and lubricants against Pakistan's bananas soda ash DDT etc. Iran has purchased sheep and mutton from Turkey to the value of over US \$6.5 million during the course of the year. A commodity exchange agreement providing for exchange of goods worth US \$50,000 has been recently negotiated and finalized between Iran and Pakistan. An agreement providing for the purchase of 2,000 tons of copper by Pakistan from Turkey has also been signed for a period of one year ending June 1970. Another agreement providing for the purchase of railway carriages by Pakistan from Turkey has also been concluded between the government-owned railway organizations of the two countries.

The possibilities of establishing an RCD Commercial Bank and a joint Development Bank are being explored.

In the field of insurance the RCD Insurance Manual has already been published by the RCD Insurance Centre and the Reinsurance Pools have been functioning effectively and several national companies have joined the pools. During 1969 the Reinsurance Pools had done over US \$1,791,189 worth of business. During 1970 the insurance business in the region is estimated to amount to US \$2,056,111.

Transport and Communications The co-operative efforts made in the field of transport and communications have been introduced between Teheran Ankara and Karachi postage telephone and telegraphic rates have been reduced in the region. Member countries have opened post and telegraph offices on their borders. The RCD Shipping Services started operation on the intra regional routes from May 1966 and from the US ports to Turkey and Pakistan in August 1966. The latest development in the field of RCD Shipping is that the Arya National Shipping Lines and South Shipping Lines of Iran have formally joined the RCD Shipping Services. The South Shipping Lines commenced operations from the North Atlantic and Gulf Coast ports in the USA to the ports in the Persian Gulf including the Iranian ports during the fourth week of March 1971. A study for having an RCD berth in New York Harbour with common stevedoring facilities is under consideration. The formation of a joint shipping company is also under study.

The construction of the RCD highway linking Ankara Teheran and Karachi is making reasonably good progress. As for the rail link Pakistan railway system extends up to the Iranian city of Zahidan. The railway link between Teheran and Kashan is already in operation and the section between Kashan and Yazd and to Kerman is expected to be completed shortly. The study on the section between Kerman and Zahidan has been included

REGIONAL CO-OPERATION FOR DEVELOPMENT

in the Fourth National Plan of Iran. The Teheran-Ankara rail link is expected to become operative shortly. As a result of RCD co-operation, there has been considerable improvement of services within the region. In pursuance of recent summit decision, the three airlines are considering the possibility of establishing a joint airline in addition to the three national airlines to operate large sub-sonic and supersonic aircraft.

Technical Assistance: A Regional Technical Assistance Programme was launched in 1965. Between 1965 and 1970, 1,637 students and trainees and 157 experts were exchanged under the programme. The 1971 programme provides for exchange of 19 experts and 395 trainees.

A total of 32 seminars on subjects of mutual interest such as, common cultural heritage, Islamic architecture, financing of development programmes, insurance, common problems to common growth, manpower management, research in practical problems in public administration, status of women, family planning, agricultural census and water resources development, the role of the administrator, on control and eradication of quarantaineable diseases within the framework of commitments made in the WHO, on role of private sector in industrial development, on drought frequency in RCD countries, brain drain in RCD countries and cotton production, standardization, evaluation and marketing, etc., were held during the period 1965 to 1970.

Four joint courses on public administration were held in member countries from 1967 to 1970 while the fourth one is being held in September this year. Member governments provide lecturers and participants of senior administrative cadre for these courses.

Tourism: In the field of tourism, member governments have taken measures with a view to promoting tourist traffic in the region and to increasing the flow of tourists from other countries. A tripartite agreement on tourism was signed amongst three countries in October 1964; visa has been abolished for the nationals of the member countries since 1964. Special concession and facilities for

encouraging youth tourism within the region as also joint measures for providing international tourism including package tours have been given.

Scientific Research: A start has also been made in effecting closer co-operation in the scientific field. The setting up of a Regional Advisory Council is under consideration. In addition, the heads of the atomic energy organizations of member countries are scheduled to meet this year for furthering co-operation in the peaceful uses of nuclear energy. Through pooling resources and expertise, such steps will help the region to keep pace with the rapid progress that is taking place in the technological field.

Cultural Co-operation: The activities in the field of cultural co-operation have been oriented towards promoting consciousness of the common cultural heritage and disseminating information about history, culture and civilization of the peoples of the region. Keeping in mind the basic common cultural heritage, attempt has been made to give it a deeper and wider content through establishing a cultural institute in Teheran with branches in Pakistan and Turkey, a comprehensive cultural exchange programme, regular sport contests, a common youth movement, wider tourism, closer contacts at the level of universities, schools, and women's organizations. A regional oriented progress has thereby been registered.

The RCD Cultural Institute has so far printed 28 books of very high cultural value. Another 13 books are under print. These books deal mostly with the historic, social and cultural affinity between the member countries. The Institute also publishes a quarterly journal.

Information: Co-operation between radio, press, TV and other information media of the three RCD countries is progressing quite satisfactorily. The national news agencies of the RCD countries have been actively collaborating in the dissemination of information, news articles, pictorial news, etc. concerning the RCD region. Exchanges of visits of newspapermen and journalists take place regularly every year.

AIMS OF REGIONAL CO-OPERATION FOR DEVELOPMENT

Enunciated in Istanbul July 23rd, 1964 by the Foreign Ministers of the Member States

1 The emergence of regional economic groupings enjoying a community of interest is an outstanding feature of our time for accelerating the pace of economic growth. Efforts directed towards regional economic collaboration have gained international acceptance and the present move to promote collaboration amongst countries of the region is directed towards the same aim viz the strengthening of their development efforts through active and sustained collaboration on a regional basis. This is particularly true in the case of Iran Pakistan and Turkey since the desire and basis for such a close collaboration and co-operation exist amongst them and will continue in view of the cultural and historic ties of friendship amongst the peoples of the three countries and further because increasing regional economic co-operation has become a necessity. Economic and cultural collaboration amongst them is therefore most desirable and should be raised to the highest possible level. There are great possibilities for such collaboration to the mutual benefit of the three countries which should be achieved expeditiously.

Measures

2 The measures for economic collaboration suggested in the following paragraphs may be broadly divided into two categories—(a) Those which can be worked out and implemented forthwith and (b) Those which will require detailed study and scrutiny by Regional Planning Council.

3 A Regional Planning Council composed of the Heads of the Planning Organizations is established. It will be assisted by advisers and could meet in any of the regional countries preferably by rotation.

4 The Council will study the development plans and production potential of countries of the region with a view *inter alia* to making recommendations on joint purpose projects and long term purchase agreements. Joint purpose projects will feed the requirements of the three countries. There are several projects for which none of the three countries can provide a sufficient domestic market yet they can be valuable projects if the total requirements of the three countries are taken into consideration.

5 The Council may also make proposals regarding the harmonization of the national development plans in the wide interest of accelerated regional development.

6 The Council will submit its reports to the Ministerial meetings. The first report is to be submitted to the next such meeting.

7 Efficient and effective means of communication and transport are essential for the promotion of the regional economic and cultural collaboration. The preparation of recommendations in this field and their implementation should be given the highest priority.

Air Transportation

8 A Committee on air transportation is set up to study measures required to—(a) improve the transport services in the region so that quick and frequent movement of passengers and freight within the region be possible (b) establish a strong and competitive international airline among the three countries (c) foster co-operation among the civil and commercial aviation authorities of the three countries.

The report of the Committee should be available for the next Ministerial meeting.

Shipping

9 Collaboration among the countries of the region in shipping is highly desirable. A Committee on shipping

is set up to investigate the possibility of securing a close co-operation in this field including the establishment of a joint maritime line.

Roads and Railways

10 Committees on road railways and telecommunications are established immediately. The Committee will *inter alia* study and report on the following:

- The measures which should be taken to complete expeditiously the rail and road links among the countries of the region.
- Whether any additional rail and road links are considered necessary.
- Reduction of telephone rates.
- Establishment of P T T offices in border areas.
- Feasibility of providing services such as direct dialling between the countries of the region and telecommunication, etc.

11 It is agreed that the postal and telegraph rates among Iran Pakistan and Turkey be reduced to the levels of internal rates within the respective countries. The implementation of this decision is entrusted to the P T T authorities of the three countries.

12 The construction of roads from the western and central parts of Iran to Zahidan and from Karachi to Zahidan should be given consideration by Iran and Pakistan so that the two countries are effectively linked by road. The Zahidan Kashan rail link should be given further consideration with a view to developing it as early as possible.

Trade

13 Economic collaboration should provide for effective measures to build up and promote trade since expansion of inter regional trade apart from being highly desirable in itself tends further to promote regional economic growth and amity.

14 A Committee on trade is established to study report and recommend *inter alia* on the following measures on which agreement in principle has been reached:

- Free or freer movement of goods among the countries of the region through practicable means such as the conclusion of trade agreements etc.,
- transit trade arrangements
- establishment of closer collaboration between existing chambers of commerce and establishment of a joint chamber of commerce
- establishment of halls and showrooms provision of special customs facilities for exhibitions and increased participation in each other's fairs
- dissemination of information on a large scale of the export and import potential of the three countries and investigation of the possibilities of joint publicity and joint marketing policy outside the region for similar exportable products

Petroleum

15 A Committee on petroleum is established to consider measures for co-operation among the three countries in the field of petroleum and natural gas and for their exploration drilling exploration refining transportation distribution etc. Collaboration in this field could be developed to mutual advantage.

Petrochemicals

16 A Committee on petrochemical industries is established for development of these industries in the region.

REGIONAL CO-OPERATION FOR DEVELOPMENT

Tourism

17. A Tourist Agreement will be signed at an early date among the countries of the region with a view to promoting tourist traffic among themselves and to increase the flow of tourists from other countries. A Committee on tourism should be established immediately to prepare an agreement on tourism which should *inter alia* cover co-operation in publicity, group or package tourist arrangements. Promotion of inter-regional travel, substitutes of passports by documents valid for travelling in the three countries. Efforts with the aim of exchanging and training of tourist personnel, technicians, tourist investments, tourist propaganda and utilization of the services and facilities of their tourist organizations, travel bureaux and other agencies in their countries and abroad. As economic collaboration grows, inter-regional travel should increase considerably; it does however need a special effort if it is to be developed to a substantial degree in the immediate future.

Abolition of Visas

18. The abolition of visas for travel purposes by their nationals in the three countries is accepted in principle; the procedure for the implementation of this decision should be worked out by the Committee on tourism.

Banking and Insurance

19. A Committee on Banking and Insurance is established for collaboration in these fields.

Technical Co-operation

20. The countries of the region should provide technical assistance to each other in the form of exports and training facilities. Such a programme will, apart from intrinsic utility, promote regional understanding and harmony. The Planning Council will be directly responsible for progress in this matter.

Joint Purpose Enterprises

21. The Committee carries out feasibility studies in regard to the development of some industries on a joint purpose basis.

Cultural Co-operation

22. Iran, Pakistan and Turkey are bound to one another by historical and cultural ties, they share a common heritage. Their cultural ties go far back in history and their national cultures owe much to continuous exchanges which have gone on for centuries. In the modern world they must integrate their traditional cultures with the new scientific outlook.

23. Co-operation in the field of education, science and culture is necessary to develop consciousness of the common cultural heritage and to promote social and economic development and political collaboration.

24. During the last few years a certain measure of progress has been achieved in cultural relations through bilateral programmes. However, there is considerable scope for further action. At the same time there is strong need for a joint sponsorship of many cultural activities under a regional programme.

Cultural Relations

25. The programme of cultural relations should be particularly oriented towards the following aims: (a) creating mass consciousness of the common cultural heritage. To this end the three countries should jointly sponsor an institute for initiating studies and research in this field and

bringing out clearly those traditions which bind the people of the region together. Further, school books should be carefully reviewed to eliminate misleading interpretations of history and to promote greater understanding of their common interests; (b) disseminating information about history, civilization and culture of the people of the region. To this end each country should consider: (1) establishment of chairs for the study of its language, history, civilization and culture in universities of the other countries; (2) increasing substantially the number of scholarships for the students of other countries to enable them to study together in their educational institutions; (3) establishment of cultural centres in the other two countries; (4) provision as far as possible of facilities for the teaching of international language in the schools of other member countries; the media of mass communications, radio, films, television, etc., should be extensively used for the propagation of information and ideas aimed at a closer understanding of the people of the region.

26. Cultural co-operation may also be extended through: (a) exchanges in the field of fine arts; (b) exchanges of visits by teachers, scientists, educational administrators, writers, artists, journalists, etc.; (c) exchanges of information on educational techniques, experiences, and programmes; (d) collaboration in regard to programmes for radio, films and television; (e) elimination of obstacles in the way of free exchange of books, films and other printed materials of an educational and cultural character; (f) organization of regional tournaments; (g) co-operation in the field of joint production of films.

Organization

27. The organizational arrangements for planning and promoting economic and cultural collaboration amongst Iran, Pakistan and Turkey should be simple and effective. As the scope of co-operation widens these arrangements could be modified as required.

28. The highest decision-making body for regional co-operation shall be a Council of Ministers consisting of the Ministers nominated by each of the three countries concerned. It shall consider and decide upon measures for regional economic and cultural co-operation. It will also follow the programmes in the implementation of its decisions. The Council shall meet once in four months and more frequently if necessary. The Chairman of the Council shall be the Head of State or Head of Government of the host country.

29. The Council will be assisted by a Regional Planning Council composed of the Heads of the three Planning Organizations. They will deal with work relating to regional collaboration including detailed preparatory negotiations and preparation of recommendations for submission to the Council. The Committee will be assisted by Sub-committees which will report to it. If necessary the Committee may engage expert consultants to examine particular subjects for regional co-operation.

30. The host country will for the time being provide secretarial facilities (including office accommodation, etc.). The officials of the countries deputed by their Governments to serve on the Secretariat will draw their emoluments and allowances from their own Governments.

31. After 12 months the Council of Ministers will review the position and decide upon the setting up of a permanent Secretariat.

OTHER REGIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

AGRICULTURE FORESTRY AND FISHERIES

Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO). Viale delle Terme di Caracalla 00100 Rome Italy f 1945 as a specialized agency of the UN to help nations raise their standards of living by improving the efficiency of farming forestry and fisheries (see chapter *United Nations in the Middle East and North Africa*)

REGIONAL COUNCILS AND COMMISSIONS

African Commission on Agricultural Statistics c/o FAO Regional Office for Africa P O B 1628 Accra Ghana f 1961 to advise member countries on the development and standardization of agricultural statistics Mems 20 states

African Forestry Commission c/o FAO Regional Office for Africa P O B 1628 Accra Ghana f 1959 to advise on the formulation of forest policy and to review and coordinate its implementation on a regional level to exchange information and make recommendations Mems 36 regional and 4 non regional states

Sec R. GUTZVILLER

Commission for Controlling the Desert Locust in the Near East c/o UNDP Resident Representative P O B 3216 Beirut Lebanon f 1965 to carry out all possible measures to control plagues of the desert locust within the Middle East and to reduce crop damage Mems 9 states

Commission on Wheat and Barley Improvement and Production in the Near East to strengthen national programmes on wheat and barley improvement through advice on breeding procedures seed multiplication and distribution training supply of outstanding sources of germ plasma etc

FAO Commission on Horticultural Production in the Near East and North Africa c/o FAO Regional Office for the Near East P O B 2223 Cairo U A R f 1966 to promote international collaboration in the study of technical problems and the establishment of a balanced programme of horticultural research at an inter regional level Mems 21 states

Chair D ALLOUM Sec Y SALAH

General Fisheries Council for the Mediterranean—(GFCM) Viale delle Terme di Caracalla Rome Italy f 1952 to formulate oceanographical and technical aspects of developing and utilizing aquatic resources to encourage and coordinate research in the fishing and allied industries to assemble and publish information and to recommend the standardization of scientific equipment techniques and nomenclature Mems 16 governments

Chair Dr R CUSMAI Publ *Session Reports* (biennially)

GFCM Circulars (irregularly) *Studies and Reviews* (irregularly)

Joint FAO/WHO Regional Food and Nutrition Commission for Africa c/o FAO Regional Office for Africa P O B 1628 Accra Ghana f 1962 to provide liaison in matters pertaining to food and nutrition and to review food and nutrition problems in Africa

Near East Commission on Agricultural Planning. f 1963 to review and exchange information and experience on agricultural plans and planning and to make recommendations to members on means of improving their agricultural plans. Mems 17 states

Near East Commission on Agricultural Statistics f 1961 to review the state of food and agricultural statistics in the region and advise member countries on the development and standardization of agricultural statistics

Near East Forestry Commission c/o FAO Regional Office for the Near East P O B 2223 Cairo U A R f 1955 to review the political economic and technical problems relating to forests and forest products in the Region Mems 19 countries

Chair Dr M H DJAZIREI Sec K HAMAD

Near East Plant Protection Commission c/o FAO Regional Office for the Near East P O B 2223 Cairo U A R f 1963 to advise member countries on matters relating to the protection of plant resources in the region. Mems 14 states

Regional Commission on Animal Production and Health in Africa c/o FAO Regional Office for the Near East P O B 2223 Cairo U A R f 1966 to provide a means of initiating and promoting agricultural development with special reference to the field of animal production and health Mems FAO member nations in the Africa region.

Chair Dr SULTAN HAIDAR Sec Dr D E FAULKNER

Regional Commission on Land and Water Use in the Near East c/o FAO Regional Office for the Near East P O B 2223 Cairo U A R f 1967 to study land and water use in the region and the problems concerning the development of land and water resources Mems 14 states

Chair H A ELTORJY

Technical Committee on Cereal Improvement and Production in the Near East c/o FAO Regional Office for the Near East P O B 2223 Cairo U A R f 1952 aims to increase overall crop production in the region through research co operative investigations and other forms of international action Mems 20 states

OTHER ORGANIZATIONS

African Agricultural Credit Commission Rabat Morocco, f 1966 to study agricultural finance problems Mems Algeria Congo (Democratic Republic) Ivory Coast Libya Morocco Senegal Tunisia Upper Volta

Afro-Asian Rural Reconstruction Organization (AARRO) C/17118 Defence Colony New Delhi 3 India f 1962 to launch concrete and wherever possible co-ordinated action to reconstruct the economy of the rural peoples of Afro-Asian countries and to revitalize their social and cultural life Mems governments of 10 African and 17 Asian countries

Pres H E SHI HYUNG CHO (Korea) Sec Gen H E KRISHNAN CHAND (India) Dir and Programme Co-ordinator M R KAUSHAL Publ *Rural Reconstruction* (quarterly)

Desert Locust Control Organization for Eastern Africa H Q P O B 231 Asmara Ethiopia bases at Asmara and Dire Dawa Ethiopia Mogadishu and Hargeisa Somalia Nairobi Kenya Khartoum Sudan established by Convention by the Governments of Ethiopia Kenya France (representing Djibouti) Somalia Sudan, Tanzania and Uganda The activities of the Organization include the promotion of effective control of the desert locust in the region the maintenance of reserves of anti locust equipment and

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supplies including transport and insecticides at strategic points, and the direction of the use of these strategic reserves to supplement the National resources of the Contracting Governments; to offer its services in the co-ordination and reinforcement of national action against the desert locust; to man at least one Air Unit and direct its operations; to maintain Research Stations with appropriate laboratory facilities and to initiate and conduct training programmes. The research aspects include research into the problems of Desert Locust environment and behaviour, including meteorology, migration, physiology and population studies, as well as long-range reconnaissance surveys and control techniques and attendant control/spray equipment.

Acting Dir. ADEFRI BELLEHU (Ethiopia); Senior Scientist H. J. SAYER (U.K.).

European and Mediterranean Plant Protection Organization

(*Organisation européenne et méditerranéenne pour la protection des plantes*): 1 rue Le Nôtre, Paris 16e, France; f. 1951, present name adopted in 1955; aims to promote international co-operation in preventing the introduction and spread of pests and diseases of plants and plant products, and in the control of pests and diseases of stored foods and feeding stuffs moving in international trade. Mems.: governments of 31 countries and territories.

Chair. I. GRANHALL (Sweden); Dir.-Gen. G. MATHYS; Scientific Dir. L. W. D. CAUDRI.

International African Migratory Locust Organization: Kara-Macina, Mali and B.P. 136, Bamako, Mali; f. 1955 to destroy the African migratory locust in its breeding areas and to conduct research on locust swarms. Mems.: governments of 21 countries.

Pres. (Admin. Council) Prof. T. AJIBOLA TAYLOR (Nigeria); Pres. (Exec.) P. EPOH ADYANG (Cameroon) Dir. GABRIEL PADONOU (Dahomey). Pubs. *Locusta. Bulletin mensuel d'information*, annual reports.

International Centre for Advanced Mediterranean Agro-

nomic Studies: Secretariat: 21 rue Octave Feuillet, Paris 16e; post-graduate centre with the following objectives: to provide a supplementary technical, economic and social education for graduates of the higher schools and faculties of agriculture in Mediterranean countries; to examine the international problems posed by agricultural development; to contribute to the development of a spirit of international co-operation amongst the future agricultural élite in Mediterranean countries. Mems. France, Greece, Italy, Portugal, Spain, Turkey, Yugoslavia.

Sec.-Gen. RAYMOND LIGNON; Chief Exec. Officer R. GUICCIARDINI. Publ. *Options Méditerranéennes* (every two months).

The Mediterranean Agronomic Institute of Bari: courses on Land Use, Rural Infrastructure and Equipment; 165 Via Amendola, Bari-70125, Italy.

The Mediterranean Agronomic Institute of Montpellier: courses on Economic Planning and Rural Development; route de Mende, 34 Montpellier, France.

The Mediterranean Agronomic Institute of Zaragoza: courses on zootechny and hortofruticulture; Montanana 177, Aula Dei, Zaragoza, Spain.

International Olive Growers Federation (*Fédération inter-*

nationale d'oléiculture): Augustina de Aragón 11, Madrid 6, Spain; f. 1934 to promote the interests of olive growers and to effect international co-ordination of efforts to improve methods of growing and manufacturing and to promote the use of olive oil. Mems.: organizations and government departments in Algeria,

Argentina, France, Greece, Israel, Italy, Lebanon, Libya, Morocco, Portugal, Spain, Syria, Tunisia.

Pres. BOUALEM BENSEKKOUMA (Algeria). Pubs. *Informations oléicoles internationales* (quarterly).

International Organization for Biological Control of Noxious Animals and Plants (*Organisation internationale*

de lutte biologique contre les animaux et les plantes nuisibles): Dept. of Entomology of the Swiss Federal Institute of Technology (ETH), Universitätsstrasse 2, 8006 Zürich, Switzerland; f. 1955 to promote and co-ordinate research on the more effective biological control of harmful insects and plants. Mems.: government departments, institutions and individuals in Argentina, Belgium, France and France Overseas, German Federal Republic, Greece, Italy, Iran, Lebanon, Morocco, Netherlands, Portugal and Portuguese Overseas Territories, Spain, Switzerland, Syria, Tunisia, Turkey, U.A.R., Yugoslavia.

Pres. Dr. E. BILIOTTI (France); Sec.-Gen. Prof. Dr. V. DELUCCHI (Switzerland); Treas. Dr. G. MATHYS (Switzerland).

International Sericultural Commission (*Commission sérici-*

cole Internationale): Station de Recherches Séricicoles, 28 quai Boissier de Sauvages, Alès, France; f. 1948 to encourage the development of sericulture. Library of 8,000 vols.; collection of mulberry trees. Mems.: governments of France, Ecuador, India, Japan, Lebanon, Madagascar, Romania, Spain, Thailand, Tunisia and Yugoslavia.

Sec.-Gen. ANDRE SCHENK (France). Pubs. *Revue du Ver à Soie—Journal of Silk Worm* (quarterly), *Courriers, Newsletter and Documentation Letter*.

THE ARTS

Afro-Asian Writers' Permanent Bureau: 104 Kasr el-Aini St., Cairo, U.A.R.; f. 1958 by Afro-Asian Peoples' Solidarity Organization; conferences of Asian and African writers have been held at Tashkent (1958), Cairo (1962), Beirut (1967), New Delhi (1970). Mems.: 78 writers' organizations.

Sec.-Gen. YOUSSEF EL-SEBAI (U.A.R.). Publ. *Lotus Magazine of Afro-Asian Writings* (quarterly in English, French and Arabic).

Société Africaine de Culture: 42 rue Descartes, Paris 5e, France; f. 1956 to create unity and friendship among scholars in Africa for the encouragement of their own cultures and the development of a universal culture. Mems.: from 22 countries.

Pres. JEAN PRICE-MARS (Haiti); Sec.-Gen. ALIOUNE DIOB. Publ. *Présence Africaine* (quarterly).

ECONOMICS AND POLITICS

African Development Bank: B.P. 1387, Abidjan, Ivory Coast (see chapter).

African Institute for Economic Development and Planning: Dakar, Senegal (see chapter *UN in the Middle East and North Africa*).

Afro-Asian Organization for Economic Co-operation (AFRASEC): Chamber of Commerce Building, Midan al Falaki, Special P.O. Bag, Cairo, U.A.R.; f. 1958 to speed up industrialization and implement exchanges in commercial, financial and technical fields. Mems.: Central Chambers of Commerce in 45 countries.

Pres. ZAKAREYA TEWFIK; Sec.-Gen. AMIN A. AWADALLA. Publ. *Afro-Asian Economic Review*.

Afro-Asian Peoples' Solidarity Organization (AAPSO): 89 Abdel Aziz al Saoud St., Manial, Cairo; f. 1957 as the Organization for Afro-Asian Peoples' Solidarity;

OTHER REGIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

- acts as a permanent liaison body between the peoples of Africa and Asia and aims to ensure their economic social and cultural development Mems 77 national committees and affiliated organizations in 42 countries
- Sec Gen YOUSSEF EL SEBAI (U.A.R.) *Publs Afro-Asian Bulletin* (every two months) *Afro-Asian Women's Bulletin* (irregular) etc
- Arab Common Market** (see chapter *The Arab League*)
- Arab Economic Council** (see chapter *The Arab League*)
- Arab Financial Institution for Economic Development** to encourage economic development through private and public projects in the Arab states (see chapter *The Arab League*)
- Association of African Central Banks** Accra Ghana established December 1968 under the auspices of UN Economic Commission for Africa Aims to promote contacts in the monetary banking and financial sphere in order to increase co-operation and trade among member states to strengthen monetary and financial stability on the African continent Articles of Association have been signed by eleven countries including Ethiopia Somalia and Sudan
- Comité International de la Gauche pour la Paix au Moyen-Orient** (International Committee of the Left for Peace in the Middle East) 15 rue des Minimes Paris 3e France f. 1969 to analyse the true causes of the Israeli Arab conflict and seek for a solution through the organization of meetings between progressive Israelis and Arabs on the one side and Palestinians and Israelis on the other to mobilize the left internationally against extremists on both sides by the creation of a Palestinian State and the recognition of an Israeli State by all Arab peoples
- Cttee Mems MAURICE CLAVEL JEAN FRANÇOIS REVEL MAREK HALTER ARNOLD WESKER ANGUS WILSON ANDRE SCHWARTZ BART JACQUES DEROGY *Publs Elements* (quarterly) paperback collection
- Conference of African Women** BP 310 Bamako Mali f. 1962 to accelerate the emancipation of African women and encourage them to participate in the social political and economic life of their country Mems organizations in 28 countries
- Sec-Gen Mrs JEANNE MARTIN Cissé (Guinea)
- Co-ordinating Committee for Liberation Movements in Africa** Dar es Salaam Tanzania f. 1963 to provide financial and military aid to nationalist movements in dependent countries (see chapter *Organization of African Unity*)
- Council of Arab Economic Unity** to co-ordinate economic financial and social policies in the Arab states (see chapter *The Arab League*)
- Economic Commission for Africa (ECA)** Addis Ababa Ethiopia f. 1958 to promote concerted action for the economic and social development of Africa Mems 40 countries
- Exec Sec ROBERT GARDINER (see chapter *United Nations in the Middle East and North Africa*)
- International Centre for African Economic and Social Documentation** (Centre International de Documentation Economique et Sociale Africaine—C I D E S A) 7 Place Royale 1000 Brussels Belgium f. 1961 to establish international co-ordination of economic and social documentation concerning Africa and to facilitate research 92 member institutions from 38 countries
- Pres Dr G JANTZEN Vice Pres J MEYRIAT Sec Gen J B CUYVERS *Publs Bibliographical Index cards* (1 500 per year) *Bulletin of information on current research on human sciences concerning Africa* (twice a year) *Bibliographical Enquiries* (published in 1970)
- Jewish Agency for Israel** P O B 92 Jerusalem Israel f. 1897 as an instrument through which world Jewry could build up a national home Is now the executive arm of the World Zionist Organisation Mems Zionist federations in 61 countries
- Pres Dr NAHUM GOLDMANN Chair and Treas L A PINCUS Dir Gen MOSHE RIVLIN *Publs Israel Digest* (fortnightly) *Israel Features Service* (weekly)
- Organization of Solidarity of the Peoples of Africa Asia and Latin America** (Organización de Solidaridad de los Pueblos de Africa Asia y América Latina—OSPAAAL) Apdo 4224 Havana Cuba f. January 1966 at the first Conference of Solidarity of the Peoples of Africa Asia and Latin America Permanent Body Executive Secretariat composed of Secretary General (Cuba) and four representatives from each continent Objects to unite co-ordinate and encourage national liberation movements in the three continents and to oppose foreign intervention in the affairs of sovereign states and to fight against racial sm and all forms of racial discrimination Next Conference Cairo U.A.R. Mems revolutionary organizations in 82 countries
- Sec Gen OSMANY CIERFUEGOS GORRIARAN (Cuba) *Publs Tricontinental Bulletin* (monthly) *Tricontinental Magazine* (bi monthly)
- Union des Banques Arabes et Françaises—UBAF** (Union of French and Arab Banks) La France 4 rue Anelle 92 Neuilly S/Seine France f. 1970 to group together 17 banks of 12 Arab countries (with 60 per cent of share capital) and the Credit Lyonnais of France (40 per cent share capital) with the aim of contributing primarily to the development of financial commercial industrial and economic relations between France and the Arab countries and to facilitate all operations and investments related thereto
- Chair MOHAMED MAHMOUD ARUSHADI Gen Man JACQUES FRANÇOIS MERIE
- World Zionist Organisation** (see entry *Jewish Agency for Israel* above)

EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT

- Afro-Asian Housing Organization (AAHO)** 28 Ramses St Cairo U.A.R. f. 1965 to promote co-operation between African and Asian countries in housing reconstruction physical planning and related matters Next Congress Syria 1972
- Sec-Gen ABDEL HAMID EL ZANFALY (U.A.R.)
- Alliance Israélite Universelle** (Universal Jewish Alliance) 43 rue La Bruyère Paris 9e France f. 1860 to work for the emancipation and moral progress of the Jews maintains 72 schools in the Mediterranean area library of 100 000 vols Mems 12 000 in 40 countries local committees in six countries
- Pres RENÉ CASSIN (France) Sec Gen EUGÈNE WEILL (France) *Publs Cahiers de l'Alliance Israélite Universelle* (monthly) in French English and Spanish *The Alliance Review Mahbereth* in Hebrew and French *Les Nouveaux Cahiers*
- Association of African Universities** (Association des Universités Africaines) c/o P O B 5744 Accra North Ghana f. 1967 to encourage exchanges and co-operation between African colleges of higher education Mems 44 universities
- Pres Mgr TH TSHIBANGU (Congo Kinshasa) Vice Pres Dr HAMD EL NASHAR (U.A.R.) Acting Sec Gen Dr CHEIKH TIDIANE SY

OTHER REGIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Centre Africain de Formation et de Recherches Administratives pour le Développement (CAFRAD) (*African Training and Research Centre in Administration for Development*): 19 rue Victor Hugo, B.P. 310, Tangier, Morocco; f. 1964 by agreement between Morocco and UNESCO, final agreement signed by 11 member states in 1967 and by four more at later dates; undertakes research into administrative problems in Africa, documentation of results, provision of a consultation service for governments and organizations; holds frequent seminars. Mems.: Algeria, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Ghana, Ivory Coast, Kenya, Libya, Mauritania, Morocco, Senegal, Somalia, Sudan, Togo, Tunisia, United Arab Republic, Zambia; aided by UNESCO and the UN Economic Commission for Africa; library of 7,000 vols.

Pres. SINACEUR BEN LARBI; Dir.-Gen. J. E. KARIUKI; Publs. *Cahiers Africains d'Administration Publique* / *African Administrative Studies* (twice a year), *CAFRAD News* (quarterly in English, French and Arabic).

Congress of Arab and Islamic Studies (*Congrès des études arabes et islamiques*): c/o Prof. F. M. Pareja, Limite 5, Ciudad Universitaria, Madrid 3, Spain; f. 1962; Congresses: Cordoba 1962, Cambridge 1964, Ravello 1966, Coimbra 1968, Brussels 1970.

Sec.-Gen. Prof. F. M. PAREJA (Spain).

Cooperative for American Relief Everywhere (CARE): 660 First Ave., New York City, N.Y. 10016, U.S.A.; f. 1945 to distribute food, tools and other equipment for relief and self-help to needy people in Europe, Latin America, Asia, the Middle East and Africa. Mems.: 26 accredited member agencies.

Chair. BEN TOUSTER; Pres. HAROLD S. MINER; Exec. Dir. FRANK GOFFIO. Publ. *Quarterly News Letter*.

International Association for the Development of Libraries in Africa: B.P. 375, Dakar, Senegal; f. 1957 to promote the establishment in Africa of national libraries, public and school libraries and research libraries for universities, institutes and laboratories.

Sec.-Gen. EMMANUEL WILLIAM DADZIE (Togo).

International Center for Arid and Semi-Arid Land Studies (ICASALS): P.O.B. 4620, Tech. Station, Lubbock, Texas 79409, U.S.A.; f. 1966; aims to initiate and co-ordinate research and teaching activities and public service programmes of Texas Technical University as they relate to arid lands and to man in arid environments.

Dir. Dr. FRANK B. CONSELMAN; Deputy Dirs. Dr. IDRIS R. TAYLOR Jr., JOSEPH HUMPHREY. Publs. *ICASALS Newsletter* (quarterly), *Special Reports* (irregular).

International Congress of Africanists (*Congrès International des Africanistes*): c/o Présence Africaine, Paris; f. 1960. Objects: to organize and co-ordinate research in African Studies on an international basis, to promote co-operation with other organizations with similar objectives, and to encourage Africans to express themselves in all fields of human endeavour. Federated to the International Council for Philosophy and Humanistic Studies. The second Congress was held in December 1967 at Dakar, Senegal.

Pres. ALIOUNE DIOP (France); Exec. Sec. Prof. ALLASANE N'DAW, Faculté des Lettres, Université de Dakar, Senegal. Publ. *Proceedings of the First International Congress of Africanists* (in English and French).

International Institute for Adult Literacy Methods: P.O.B. 1555, Teheran, Iran; f. 1968 by UNESCO and the Government of Iran; carries out comparative studies of the methods, media and techniques used in literacy

programmes; maintains documentation service and library on literacy; arranges seminars.

Dir. Dr. J. D. N. VERSLUYS. Publ. *Literacy Discussion* (quarterly in English and French).

International Planned Parenthood Federation: Near East Office, P.O.B. 1567, Beirut, Lebanon; aims to advance parenthood through education and scientific research and to attain a favourable balance between population and natural resources; regional office covers Afghanistan, Algeria, the Arabian peninsula, Iran*, Iraq, Jordan*, Lebanon*, Libya, Morocco, Sudan*, Syria, Tunisia* and U.A.R.* (member asscns. with asterisk).

Near East Foundation, 54 East 64th St., New York 21, N.Y., U.S.A.; f. 1930. Aims: to conduct agricultural and educational programmes and demonstrations in order to improve standards of living in underdeveloped areas of the world, primarily the Near East, with technicians at work in Asia and Africa.

Chair. JOHN S. BADEAU; Vice-Chair. HALSEY B. KNAPP; Pres. E. DEALTON PARTRIDGE; Exec. Dir. Dr. DELMER J. DOOLEY.

Regional Centre for Educational Planning and Administration in the Arab Countries (*Centre Régional de Planification et Administration de L'Education pour les Pays Arabes*): B.P. 5244, Bir Hassan, Beirut, Lebanon; f. 1961; offers advanced training in educational planning and administration in the Arab countries.

Dir. ABDEL AZIZ EL-KOUSSY; Assistant Dir. JOSEPH ANTOUN. Publs. *Revue de la Planification de l'Education dans les Pays Arabes* (quarterly), *Panoramas de l'Education dans les Pays Arabes*.

Regional Centre for Functional Literacy in Rural Areas for the Arab States (ASFEC): Sirs-el-Layyan, Menoufia, U.A.R.; f. 1952 for the training of specialists, production of prototype educational materials, research in functional literacy and literacy teaching; advisory service to member states.

Dir. Dr. BASHIR AL-BAKRI.

Union des Universités Arabes (*Union of Arab Universities*): c/o Scientific Centre, Sarwat St., Giza, U.A.R.; f. 1964.

LABOUR

African Trade Union Confederation (ATUC): c/o AFRO-ICFTU Office, 231 Herbert Macaulay St., Yaba; P.M.B. 1038, Ebute-Metta, Lagos, Nigeria; f. 1962. Mems.: national organizations grouping about 2 million workers in 28 countries, including Libya, Sudan, Tunisia.

Pres. LAWRENCE L. BORHA (Nigeria); Sec. DAVID SOUMAH (Senegal).

Afro-Asian Institute for Co-operative and Labour Studies: P.O.B. 16201, Tel-Aviv; f. 1960 by Histadrut. Aims: advanced training of union workers, co-operators, government executives and higher education teachers in the theory and practice of economic and social development problems, labour economics, trade unionism and co-operation; English-speaking courses: Aug.-Dec.; French-speaking courses: Dec.-April; special courses on request: May.-Aug.

Chair. Dr. ELIAHU ELATH; Dir. AKIVA EGER.

All African Trade Union Federation (AATUF): c/o 222 ave. des Forces Armées Royales, Casablanca, Morocco; f. 1961. Mems.: independent national trade union organizations. Algeria, Morocco and U.A.R. were among countries represented at first conference.

OTHER REGIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Pres MAJOUR BEN SIDDIK (Morocco) Vice-Pres **MAMADY KABA (Guinea)** **ABDELLATI BOLTEYAH (U.A.R.)** **ABDELKADER BENNIKOU (Algeria)** **GOODKUCK WAHAB (Nigeria)** **ANATOLE KHONDO (Congo Brazzaville)** **ROMAIN GUEZO (Dahomey)** **TRAORE ZOUMANA (Upper Volta)** Sec Gen **FAMADY SISSOKO (Mali)** Asst Sec Gen **ALFRED TANDAU (Tanzania)** Treas Gen **ALI FILLALI (Algeria)**

Arab Federation of Petroleum, Mining and Chemicals Workers (Fédération arabe des travailleurs du pétrole des mines et des industries chimiques) 5 Zaki St. Cairo U.A.R. f 1961 16 affiliated unions in 11 countries

Pres GHAZI NASSIF (Syria) Sec Gen **ALI SAYED ALI (U.A.R.)** Publ *Arab Petroleum* (monthly English Arabic and French editions)

International Confederation of Arab Trade Unions (ICATU) Ramses Building Ramses Square (P.O.B. 1041) Cairo U.A.R. f 1956 Mems 14 unions in 12 countries

Pres ABDULLAH EL ASNAG Sec Gen **Dr FAWZY EL SAYED (U.A.R.)** Publ *Arab Worker* (Arabic French and English editions monthly)

International Confederation of Free Trade Unions—African Regional Organization (ICFTU—AFRO) 231 Herbert Macaulay St. Yaba Nigeria f 1960 mems in 16 countries including Tunisia

Union Pan Africaine des Travailleurs Croyants (Pan African Workers Congress) B.P. 8814 Kinshasa Democratic Republic of the Congo f 1959 by amalgamation of Confédération Africaine des Travailleurs Croyants and Christian organizations in the Congo affiliated to WCL Mems in 19 countries including Sudan

Sec Gen **GOLBERT PONGAULT (Congo—Brazzaville)**

LAW

Asian-African Legal Consultative Committee 20 Ring Rd. Lajpat Nagar IV New Delhi 24 India f 1956 Aims to place the Committee's views on legal issues before the International Law Commission and to consider legal problems referred to it by member countries. Reconstituted 1958 to enable participation by countries in the African continent

Pres Hon. N. Y. B. ADADE (Ghana) Sec. B. SEN (India)

International African Law Association 46 avenue de l'Arbalète Brussels 17 Belgium f 1959 to unite those professionally concerned with law and legal problems in Africa and to assist African governments especially in the harmonization and unification of laws in Africa

Pres Mr Justice N. A. OLLENAU Secs Gen **Prof M. ALLIOT (France)** **Dr J. VANDERLINDEN** Faculty of Law Haute Selassie I University Addis Ababa Ethiopia Publ *Journal of African Law*

MEDICINE

Balkan Medical Union (Union Médicale Balkanique) 10 rue Progresul Bucharest Romania f 1932 studies medical problems particularly ailments specific to the Balkan region to promote a regional programme of public health serves as a clearing house for information and knowledge between doctors in the region organizes research programmes and congresses the next being held in Belgrade, Yugoslavia. Mems doctors and other specialists from Albania Bulgaria Cyprus Greece Romania Turkey and Yugoslavia

Pres Prof. I. J. GÜRRAN (Turkey) Sec Gen **Dr M. POPESCU BUZEU (Romania)** Publ *Archives de l'Union Médicale Balkanique* (6 times a year)

Middle East Neurosurgical Society **Dr FUAD S. HADDAD** Neurosurgical Department Orient Hospital Beirut Lebanon f 1958 mems in Cyprus India Iran Iraq Jordan Lebanon Pakistan Syria Turkey and U.A.R.

Society of Haematology and Blood-Transfusion of African and Near Eastern Countries Tunis Tunisia f 1965 for the promotion and co-ordination of scientific research in the field of haematology

Pres Dr SY BABA (Ivory Coast) Vice Pres **Dr BENA BADIY (Algeria)** Sec Gen **Dr ALI BOUJNAH (Tunisia)**

MILITARY AFFAIRS

Arab Joint Defence Council (see chapter *The Arab League*)

Arab Permanent Military Commission (see chapter *The Arab League*)

PRESS RADIO AND TELECOMMUNICATIONS

African Postal Union—UPAF (Union postale Africaine) 5 26th July St. Cairo U.A.R. f 1961 to improve postal services between member states to secure collaboration between them and to create other useful services Mems Guinea Liberia Libya Mali Mauritania Somalia Sudan U.A.R.

Sec Gen **ENG. MOHAMED IBRAHIM SOBHI (U.A.R.)** Publ *African Postal Union Review* (quarterly)

Arab States Broadcasting Union (see chapter *The Arab League*)

Arab Postal Union 28 Adly Street Cairo U.A.R. f 1954 ancillary body of the Arab League 20 member nations **Dir Dr ANOUAR BAKIR** (see chapter *The Arab League*)

Arab Telecommunications Union (see chapter *The Arab League*)

Conférence Européenne des Administrations des Postes et des Télécommunications (CEPT) (European Conference of Postal and Telecommunications Administrations) c/o Netherland PTT—Administration 12 Kortenaerkade La Haye Netherlands f 1959 Mems Austria Belgium Cyprus Denmark Finland France German Federal Republic Greece Iceland Ireland Italy Liechtenstein Luxembourg Malta Monaco Netherlands Norway Portugal San Marino Spain Sweden Switzerland Turkey United Kingdom, Vatican Yugoslavia

Federation of Arab News Agencies (see chapter *The Arab League*)

International Telecommunications Union (ITU), Regional Expert for Eastern Africa, P.O.B. 5580 Addis Ababa Ethiopia responsible for ITU activities within twelve countries of East Africa

Pan African Union of Journalists—PAJU, Accra Ghana f 1963 to promote the welfare and training of African journalists

Sec Gen **KOFI BATSA (Ghana)**

Union of African News Agencies (UANA), Algérie Presse Service 7 blvd de la République Algiers Algeria f 1963 meets annually has proposed the creation of a Pan African News Agency within aegis of OAU

Pres MUHAMMAD BOUZID (Algeria) Sec Gen **HAMED SGHAL (Tunisia)**

Union of National Radio and Television Organizations of Africa (Union des Organisations Nationales de Radio et de Télévision de l'Afrique—URTNA) 15 blvd de la République B.P. 3237 Dakar, Senegal f 1962 co-ordinates radio and television services including monitoring and frequency allocation among African countries technical centre at Markala Mali Mems organizations in 23 countries

OTHER REGIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Pres. M. MOUTONGO-BLACK (Cameroon); Sec.-Gen. MOHAMED EL BASSIOUNI (Senegal).

United Arab Press: Cairo; f. January 1967 to replace Middle East News Agency.

Dir. M. H. HEIKAL.

RELIGION

Agudath Isreal World Organization (AIWO) (*Organisation mondiale Agudas Israel—OMAI*): Hacheruth Square, P.O.B. 326, Jerusalem; f. 1912 to protect the interests of Jewish communities and to further religious education, in the spirit of traditional Judaism; Mems.: affiliated organizations totalling 200,000 mems. in 20 countries.

Chair. Rabbi I. M. LEWIN (Israel); Sec.-Gen. ABRAHAM HIRSCH.

All Africa Conference of Churches: P.O.B. 20301, Nairobi, Kenya; f. 1958; an organ of co-operation and continuing friendship among Churches and Christian Councils in Africa. Mems. include most major non-Catholic autonomous Churches in Africa.

Chair. Rev. RICHARD ANDRIAMANJATO (Madagascar); Gen. Sec. Canon BURGESS CARR (Liberia). Publ. *Youth News Letter*.

Alliance Israélite Universelle (*Universal Israelite Alliance*): 45 rue La Bruyère, Paris 9e, France; f. 1860 to work for the emancipation and moral progress of the Jews; maintains 72 schools in the Mediterranean area; library of 100,000 vols. Mems.: 12,000 in 20 countries.

Pres. RENÉ CASSIN (France); Sec.-Gen. EUGENE WEILL (France). Publs. *Cahiers de l'Alliance Israélite Universelle* (monthly) in French, English and Spanish, *The Alliance Review*, *Les Nouveaux Cahiers*.

Baha'i International Community: Office of UN Representative, 866 United Nations Plaza, New York, N.Y. 10017, U.S.A.; f. 1844 in Persia to promulgate the unity of the human race; work for the elimination of all forms of prejudice and for equality of men and women; establishes basic education schools for children; maintains adult programmes in basic literacy and community training. Mems. in 43,000 centres in 314 countries and territories. Governing body: The Universal House of Justice, Baha'i World Centre, Haifa, Israel.

Rep. to UN Dr. VICTOR DE ARAUJO (U.S.A.); Alternate Mrs. ANNAMARIE HONNOLD (U.S.A.). Publs. *The Baha'i World* (quadrennial), *Baha'i News* (monthly), publications in over 400 languages and dialects.

International Council of Jewish Women: Beith Rothschild, 142 Hanassi Ave., Haifa, Israel; f. 1912 to promote friendly relations and understanding among Jewish women throughout the world. It exchanges information on community welfare activities, promotes volunteer leadership, sponsors field work in social welfare and fosters Jewish education. It has consultative status with UN, ECOSOC and with the UNICEF Executive Board. Mems.: 27 affiliates totalling 700,000 members in 21 countries.

Pres. Mrs. SHOSHANA HARELI (Israel); Sec. Mrs. LILY COHEN (Israel). Publ. *Newsletter* (3 a year; English, Spanish, Persian).

International Hebrew Christian Alliance, The: Memorial House, Shalom, Brockenhurst Rd., Ramsgate, Kent, England; f. 1925. Objects: to unite Hebrew Christians throughout the world, to maintain and extend the Christian faith among those of Hebrew birth and to help them and their families in need.

The Alliance is at work in Great Britain, America, Argentina, South Africa, Iran, Israel and many European countries.

Pres. E. P. E. LIPSON; Vice-Pres. Rev. JAKOB Jocz; Exec. Sec. and Treas. Rev. HARCOURT SAMUEL. Publ. *The Hebrew Christian* (quarterly).

International Muslim Union (*Union Musulmane Internationale*): Grande Mosquée de Paris, Place du Puits de l'Ermite, Paris 5e, France; f. 1968. Objects: to assist the needy, defend the Muslim community, spread the knowledge of Islamic civilization and to organize Islamic worship wherever necessary.

Sec.-Gen. Dr. BOUBAKEUR DALIL.

World Jewish Congress (*Congrès Juif Mondial*): 1 rue de Varembe, Geneva, Switzerland; f. 1936. It is a voluntary association of representative Jewish bodies, communities and organisations throughout the world. Aims: to assure the survival and to foster the unity of the Jewish people. Mems.: Jewish communities in over 63 countries.

Pres. Dr. N. GOLDMANN; Sec.-Gen. Dr. GERHART M. RIEGNER. Publs. *World Jewry* (bi-monthly, London), *L'Information Juive* (monthly, Paris), *Jewish Journal of Sociology* (bi-annual, London), *Gesher* (Hebrew quarterly, Israel).

World Sephardi Federation: New House, 67-68 Hatton Garden, London, E.C.1; f. 1951 to strengthen the unity of Jewry and Judaism among Sephardim, to defend and foster religious and cultural activities of all Sephardi Communities and preserve their spiritual heritage, to provide moral and material assistance where necessary and to co-operate with other similar organizations. Mems.: 50 communities and organizations in 30 countries.

Pres. DENZIL SEBAG-MONTEFIORE; Admin. Dir. GAD BEN-MEIR. Publ. *Kol-Sepharad* (bi-monthly).

SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Association of African Geological Surveys (*Association des Services Géologiques Africains*): 74 rue de la Fédération, 75-Paris 15e, France; f. 1929. Aims: synthesis of the geological knowledge of Africa and neighbouring countries; encouragement of research in geological and allied sciences for the benefit of Africa; dissemination of scientific knowledge. Mems.: about 60 (Official Geological Surveys, public and private organizations).

Pres. J. E. CUDJOE (Ghana); Sec.-Gen. J. LOMBARD (France). Publs. maps and studies.

International Commission for the Scientific Exploration of the Mediterranean Sea (*Commission Internationale pour l'Exploration Scientifique de la mer Méditerranée*): Secrétariat Général, 16 boulevard de Suisse, Monaco; f. 1919 for scientific exploration of the Mediterranean Sea, the study of physical and chemical oceanography, fauna and flora, and marine biology; 16 member countries.

Pres. S.A.S. THE PRINCE RAINIER III of Monaco; Sec.-Gen. Cdt. J.-Y. COUSTEAU (France). Publs. *Rapports et Procès Verbaux des Réunions*, *Iconographie de la Faune et de la Flore Méditerranéennes*, *Bulletin de Liaison des Laboratoires*.

International Meteorological Institute: Cairo; f. 1966 to carry out meteorological research and to provide training for Middle Eastern and African personnel engaged in meteorological work; the building of this project is being executed by World Meteorological Organization (WMO).

OTHER REGIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Mediterranean Social Sciences Research Council American University of Beirut Beirut Lebanon f 1960 to promote research on problems concerning the social and economic development of the land and peoples of the Mediterranean Basin Mems Research Centres and individuals in 19 countries

Chair Prof D J DELIVANIS (Greece) Sec Gen Prof N ZIADEN (Lebanon)

Middle Eastern Regional Radioisotope Centre for the Arab Countries Sh Malaeb El Gamaa Dokki Cairo U A R f 1963 trains specialists in the applications of radioisotopes particularly in the medical agricultural and industrial fields conducts research in hydrology tropical and subtropical diseases fertilisers and entomology promotes the use of radioisotopes in the Arab countries

UNESCO Regional Centre for Science and Technology for the Arab States 8 Sh el Salamik Garden City Cairo U A R (see chapter *United Nations in the Middle East and North Africa*)

SOCIAL SCIENCES

Congress of Arab and Islamic Studies (*Congrès des études arabes et islamiques*) c/o Prof F M Pareja Limite 5 Ciudad Universitaria Madrid 3 Spain f 1962 Congresses Cordoba 1962 Cambridge 1964 Ravello 1966 Coimbra 1968 Brussels 1970

Sec Gen Prof F M PAREJA (Spain)

European Union of Arabic and Islamic Scholars (*Union Européenne d'Arabistes et d'Islamistes*) Limite 5 Madrid 3 Spain f 1970 to organize a Congress of Arabic and Islamic Studies Mems about 120

Sec F M PAREJA (Spain)

International Centre for African Economic and Social Documentation (*Centre Internationale de Documentation Economique et Sociale Africaine—CIDESA*) 7 Place Royale Brussels 1 Belgium f 1961 to establish international co ordination of economic and social documentation concerning Africa and to facilitate research 89 member institutions from 39 countries

Pres Dr G JANTZEN Vice Pres Dr J MEYRIAT Sec Gen Dr J B CUYVERS Pubs *Bibliographical Index cards* (1500 per year) *Bulletin of information on current research on human sciences concerning Africa* (twice a year) *Bibliographical Enquiries*

TRADE AND INDUSTRY

African Groundnut Council P O B 3025 Lagos Nigeria f 1965 Mems Congo (Democratic Republic) Gambia Mali Niger Nigeria Senegal Sudan A promotion office has been established in Geneva Switzerland Chair Modibo DIALLO (Mali) Exec Sec JACQUES DIOUR (Senegal)

General Union of Chambers of Commerce, Industry and Agriculture for Arab Countries (*Union générale des chambres de commerce industrie et agriculture des pays arabes*) P O B 2837 Beirut Lebanon f 1951 to foster Arab economic collaboration to increase and improve production and to facilitate the exchange of technical information in Arab countries Mems 14 Chambers of Commerce in 17 countries

Pres ALI ABDUL RAHMAN AL-WAZZAN* (Bahrein) Gen Sec BERHAN DAWANI Publ *Arab Economic Report* (Arabic and English)

International Cotton Advisory Committee South Agriculture Building Washington D C 20250 U S A f 1939 to keep in close touch with developments affecting the world cotton situation to collect and disseminate statistics to suggest to the governments represented any measures for the furtherance of international cotton laboration in maintaining and developing a sound world cotton economy Mems 44 countries

Chair KENNETH E FRICK Exec Dir J C SANTLEY Pubs *Cotton Monthly Review* (English French and Spanish editions) *Quarterly Statistical Bulletin*

International Federation of Cotton and Allied Textile Industries (*Fédération internationale des industries textiles cotonnières et connexes*) Postfach 289 8039 Zürich Switzerland f 1904 present title adopted 1954 Aims to protect and promote the interests of its members to conduct research disseminate information and encourage co-operation Mems national trade associations of spinners and manufacturers of cotton and allied textiles in 26 countries

Pres J CRAIG SMITH (U S A) Dir Dr HERWIG STROZL (Austria) Pubs *Newsletter* (fortnightly) *International and European Cotton Industry Statistics* (annually) *Cotton and Allied Textile Industries* (annual)

TRANSPORT AND TOURISM

Agence pour la Sécurité de la Navigation Aérienne en Afrique et à Madagascar 75 rue La Boétie Paris 8e France and B P 8110 Dakar Senegal f 1959 Mems 15

Pres LOUIS SANMARCO Dir Gen ROGER MACHENAUD

African Aviation Federation Nairobi Kenya f 1969 to promote development of means of communication in Africa co operation among airline companies of member states development of telecommunications between airports and the establishment of an aviation research centre First Conference Cairo 1969

Chair R AMPOSAH (Ghana)

Arab Association of Tourism and Travel Agents—A.A.T.A. P O B 5196 Beirut Lebanon f 1952 groups Tourist and Travel Agents operating in the Arab world to promote tourism in the region Mems 250

Pres JOSEPH KHOURY Senior Vice Pres HABIB HENEINE Gen Man SALIM ISSA Publ *Arab World Tourism* (monthly)

Arab Tourist Union P O B 7354 Amman Jordan f 1964 Mems heads of tourist departments of 13 governments Pres ABDULLAH AL-TAEI (Abu Dhabi)

Trans-Sahara Liaison Committee c/o UN Economic Commission for Africa Addis Ababa Ethiopia f 1965 mems Algeria Mali Morocco Niger and Tunisia this technical committee was formed to study the proposed trans Saharan road route the most favoured scheme being a road from Algiers to Tamanrasset branching towards Gao in Mali and Agades in Niger Tunisia will have access to the route via existing communications The estimated cost for a tarred road 7 metres wide 2 800 km long is US \$45.1 million and the road will take ten to twelve years to build The committee reported to the UN Development Programme which contributed \$236 400 to an eight month study of the scheme

PART THREE

Country Surveys

Afghanistan

PHYSICAL AND SOCIAL GEOGRAPHY

Occupying an area of approximately 250 000 square miles (estimates range between 240 000 and 270 000 square miles) Afghanistan has the shape of a very irregular oval with its major axis running N E S W and extending over roughly 700 miles and the minor axis at right angles to this covering about 350 miles. The country is in the main a highland mass lying mostly at an altitude of 4 000 ft (1 200 metres) or more but it presents a highly variable pattern of extremely high and irregular mountain ridges some of which exceed 20 000 ft (6 000 metres) ravines and broader valleys parts of which are very fertile and an outer expanse of undulating plateau wide river basins and lake sumps

Politically Afghanistan has two frontiers of major length one on the north with the Turkmen Uzbek and Tadzhik Republics of the U S S R the other (on the south and east) with West Pakistan * There are shorter but no less significant frontiers on the west with Iran and on the north-east with Kashmir and with China This last was fully agreed only in 1963 and the precise location of others in the south and west has not been delimited one reason for the uncertainty regarding the actual area of Afghanistan and an indication of the extreme difficulties of terrain It is noteworthy that in order to erect a 'buffer' between the then competing Empires of Russia and India the Wakhan district a narrow strip of land 200 miles long and under 10 miles wide in its narrowest part was attached to Afghanistan by a treaty of 1893 This strip controls the Baroghul pass over the Pamir and avoids having a Russian Indian joint frontier

PHYSICAL FEATURES

The main topographical feature of Afghanistan is a complex of irregular highlands that is relatively broad and low in the west and very much higher and also narrower towards the east In this eastern part the mountains form a group of well defined chains that are known by the general name of the Hindu Kush (Hindu destroyer) and are linked further eastward first to the Pamirs and then to the main Himalaya system with a small but high ridge the Little Pamir providing one link in Afghan territory between the Hindu Kush and the main Pamir From maximum heights of 20 000-24 000 ft (6 000-7 000 metres) the peaks decline in altitude westwards attaining 15 000-20 000 ft (4 500-6 000 metres) in the zone close to Kabul Further west still the ridges are no more than 12 000-15 000 ft (3 500-4 500 metres) and in the extreme west they open out rather like the digits of a hand with the much lower Paropamisus ridges (proto

Pamir) forming the last member of the mountain complex The various ridges are distinguished by separate names The Hindu Kush which has a general altitude of about 15 000 ft (4 000 m) with peaks 7 000-10 000 ft higher still is however narrow and crossable by quite a number of passes some of which are indirect and snow bound for much of the year

In geological structure Afghanistan has close affinities both to Iran further west and as has just been stated to the massive Himalayan system further east Development of present day land forms has been greatly influenced by the existence of several large stable masses of ancient rocks which have acted as cores around which rock series of younger age first developed and were then closely wrapped as fold structures Most important of these ancient massifs or shield areas so far as Afghanistan is concerned is the plateau of the Deccan the effect of which was to bunch a series of tight folds in a double loop or garland on its northern side In this way can be explained the existence of the knot or bunch of fold structures lying partly in Afghanistan and comprising the Pamir which forms the eastern limb and the Hindu Kush that makes up the western segment of the garland The abrupt change of direction and swinging of the fold structures from an east west to in some places a north-south direction are a direct result of the presence of the resistant mass of the Deccan The fold ranges themselves are composed in part of sediments mainly laid down under water and include limestones with some sandstones and are of Cretaceous and later age Eocene especially Extensive heat and pressure in some regions have metamorphosed original series into schists and gneiss and there has been much shattering and cracking of the rock generally with the consequent development of fault lines and overthrust zones A further feature in much of Afghanistan has been a good deal of differential earth movement uplifting downwarping and local adjustment which make the country particularly susceptible to earth tremors which occur frequently usually on a small scale Occasionally however a major disaster occurs the latest being at Tashkent just north of Afghanistan in 1965

As a consequence of frequent crustal disturbance the rise of magma from the earth's interior has produced lava flows and minor volcanos Most of these are in a stage of old age—being merely fissures from which emanate gas steam and mud flows and the presence of soft volcanic debris adds considerably in places to soil fertility

As far as river drainage is concerned Afghanistan forms a major watershed from which rivers flow outward The Amu Darya (Oxus) rises on the north side of the Hindu Kush and flows northwards

* The disputed area Pashtunistan

into the U.S.S.R. Here, away from the mountains the presence of loess (a yellowish soil of high fertility) in small pockets offers scope for agriculture. The Hari Rud rises a short distance only from the Amu Darya, but flows westward through Herat to terminate in a salt, closed basin on the Iranian frontier. From the south and west of the Hindu Kush flow a number of streams that become tributaries of the Indus; and in the extreme south-west the Helmand river flows through to end like the Hari Rud in a closed basin that is partly within Iranian territory. The Helmand basin is of interest in that because of a curious balance in water-level at its lowest part, the river here reverses its flow seasonally, and remains for much of its length non-brackish instead of becoming progressively more saline, as is normal when there is no outlet to the sea. The Helmand basin thus offers distinct potential for agricultural improvement, and in fact schemes for irrigation are in process of development. But political difficulties (part of the lower basin is Iranian territory) and remoteness are inhibiting factors.

The areas of lower, and in the main more densely peopled areas occur either as a series of peripheral zones to north and south, or as a series of interior valleys and basins between the main mountain ridges of the centre. Largest of these areas is the piedmont lying on the northern flanks of the mountains, and dropping northwards in altitude to merge into the steppelands of Russian Central Asia. This is Bactria, a region of, in places, light yellowish loessic soils. An interior situation, shut off from the sea by mountains means that rainfall is deficient, and falls mainly over the mountains. Streams fed partly by mountain snow-melt straggle across the plain, to lose themselves in the sand, feed salt swamps, or in a few cases, join others to form larger rivers such as the Hari Rud. Much of Bactria thus consists of semi or full desert with sheets of sand and gravel in many places, with, nearer the mountains, outwash of larger, coarser scree. Given stable political conditions this area with its areas of highly fertile loess soils and moderate water supplies offers much scope for economic development. For long inhabited by pastoral nomads, and disputed politically between various claimants: Afghan, Iranian and Russian, this northern zone is now developing rapidly with irrigated cotton growing as a main element. Links with the U.S.S.R. are considerable, and the two chief towns of Herat in the west and Mazar-i-Sharif in the north have grown considerably in size over the past few years.

On the south, towards the east, is the Kabul basin, which is a relatively flat zone hemmed in closely by steep mountain ridges. Some distance away to the north-west, and reachable through two major passes is the narrower Vale of Bamian; whilst south-east of Kabul occurs another fertile lowland zone around Jellalabad. Here lower elevation and southerly situation produce warmer conditions, especially in winter, as compared with most of the rest of Afghanistan.

In the south-west, extending through Ghazni as far as Kandahar, there is another series of cultivated zones; but the extent of this piedmont area is much smaller than the corresponding one we have just

described as Bactria. To the west, aridity, the price of declining altitude, increases, so the lowland passes into the desertic areas of Registan and the Dasht-i-Mayo. Registan has seasonal flushes of grass, which support relatively large numbers of pastoral nomads, who however, are becoming increasingly sedentarized following irrigation development on the Helmand and Arghandab rivers.

Two other regional units may be mentioned. South of the Parapamisus and Kuh-i-Baba mountain ranges are a number of parallel but lower massifs, with narrow valleys between. Here because of altitude there is relatively abundant rainfall, but owing to topography, the region is one of remoteness and difficulty. This is the Hazarat, so called from the name of the Hazara inhabitants; and it still remains despite a central position one of the least known and visited parts of the country. Another equally remote highland, this time located north-east of Kabul, is Nuristan, again high and mountainous, but well-wooded in places, and supporting a small population of cultivators and pastoralists who use the summer pastures of the high hills, and move to lower levels in winter.

CLIMATE

Climatically, Afghanistan demonstrates a very clear relationship with Iran and the Middle East, rather than with Monsoon Asia, in that it has an almost arid summer, a small amount of rainfall which is largely confined to the winter season, and considerable seasonal variation in temperature. The monsoonal condition of heavy summer rainfall does not occur, despite Afghanistan's nearness to India. Annual rainfall ranges from 4-6 in. (10-15 cm.) in the drier, lower areas of the west and north, to 10-15 in. (25-40 cm.) in the east; and on the highest mountains there is more still. Kabul, with an average of 13 in. per annum, is typical of conditions in the east, and Herat with 5 in. typical of the west. Almost all this falls in the period December to April, though there can be a very occasional downpour at other times, even in summer, when a rare damp monsoonal current penetrates from the Indian lowlands. Temperatures are best described as extreme. In July, the lowlands experience temperatures of 110°F., (43°C.) with 120° not uncommon—this is true of Jellalabad on the edge of the Indus lowlands. But the effects of altitude are important, and Kabul, at an elevation of 6,000 ft. does not often experience temperatures of over 100°F. (38°C.). Winter cold can be bitter, with minima of -10° to -15°F. (-22° to -26°C.) on the higher plateau areas; and as a result there are heavy blizzards in many mountain areas. The January mean at Kabul is 25°F. (-4°C.). Generally speaking, a seasonal temperature range of 80-100°F. is characteristic of many areas (cf. 26°F. for London). A further difficulty is the prevalence of strong winds, especially in the west, where a persistent and regular wind blows almost daily from June to September and affects especially the Sistan area of the lower Helmand basin, where it is known as the *Wind of 120 Days*.

With highly varied topography and climate, Afghanistan has a wide range of plant life—a good

deal of which is not yet fully recorded. Conditions range from Arctic and Alpine type flora on the highest parts to salt tolerant arid zone species in the deserts. Woodland occurs in a few areas, but much has been used for fuel in a country that has cold winters.

PEOPLE AND ACTIVITIES

The ethnic origins of the people of Afghanistan are diverse. The Pathans live mainly in the centre, south and east of the country, and are probably numerically the largest group. The Ghilzais, also of the areas adjacent to Pakistan, are thought to be of Turki origin, like the Uzbeks who live in the north, mainly in the Amu Darya lowlands. Another important element are the Tadzhiks, who are of Persian origin and in the opinion of some represent the earliest inhabitants of the country. Other groups, such as the Hazari (who are reputed to have come in as followers of Jenghis Khan) and the Chahar Aimak may have Mongol ancestry, but they now speak Persian and the Hazari are Shi'a Muslims. In the north east, the presence of fair haired groups has suggested connection with Europe. Most Afghans (the Hazari and Qizilbash of Kabul excepted) are Sunni Moslems; the others are Shi'a.

For long a difficult topography, extreme climate with a generally deficient rainfall, and political instability inhibited economic progress. Small communities lived by cultivation where water and soil were available, and there were relatively numerous pastoralists, mostly nomads who formed an important section of the community. Even today, it is estimated that 15-17 per cent of the population is nomadic, and tribal organization is strong.

Over the last few years developments have taken place on a significant scale. A Five Year Development Plan inaugurated in 1956, gave encouragement to

cereal cultivation (wheat, barley and maize), olive cultivation in the eastern provinces, sericulture in the north, and the improvement of commercial crops such as cotton and sugar beet. As part of a general attempt to improve animal husbandry fodder crops (alfalfa and lucerne) are given prominence, and improved strains of traditional fruit and vegetables (apricots, apples, peaches, melons, vines, squashes, potatoes, etc.) are replacing the older species in many areas.

Irrigation has developed markedly within the last ten years. The major scheme so far is in the Helmand basin where two storage dams and a series of distributary canals offer potential development for about a quarter of a million acres (100,000 hectares) of arid land. Irrigation development is also taking place on the Arghandab river in the same region. Other schemes are in existence near Jellalabad, and on the Amu Darya, and there is a much more ambitious scheme for this last river which will involve both extension of irrigation and large scale generation of electric power, in co-operation with the U.S.S.R.

Because of Afghanistan's location as a buffer between Russia and British India, railways approached from various sides but none actually penetrated the country, and so Afghanistan is one of the few parts of the world still to be totally without railways. At the same time, the narrowness (despite the great height) of the mountain barrier as compared with the Himalayas, has made Afghanistan a traditional routeway between north and south, and at present, helped by various foreign agencies and governments, there is a programme for considerable road improvement and development. Given the difficulties of terrain, Afghanistan now possesses a reasonably good road system, with some very good sections. Air transport is also an important factor.

W. B. F.

HISTORY

It will be convenient to refer to Afghanistan throughout this essay, though the word (which means "The Country of the Afghans"—i.e. Pashtuns or Pathans) only goes back to 1747 and the name Afghan first appears in the tenth century. A better name would be "The Country of the Hindu Kush". For this range not only gives our area, where Central Asia, India and Persia meet, its special character but also helps to elucidate much of its history. The Hindu Kush forms a boundary between the nomadic and the settled lands: a boundary, but not a barrier. For at its eastern end are several practicable passes of the order of 10,000 feet above sea level and it can be turned at its western end near Herat. It serves as a backbone that encourages the formation of states astride itself. And it is the reservoir of the area: it is the winter snows in the Hindu Kush that provide the water for irrigation so vital to settled life in an area with an average annual precipitation of less than twelve inches. Further, the rivers rising in the Hindu Kush provide convenient routes of communication much frequented by traders and invaders during the ages when land transport predominated. In conjunction with the east-west ways along the Oxus valley and the passes through the Hindu Kush these routes explain why Afghanistan is at the centre of Professor Toynbee's *Central Asian Roundabout*. The valley of the Hari Rud turns the Hindu Kush to the west. The Helmand-Arghandab-Tarnak system leads from the frontiers of Persia to within a hundred miles of the headwaters of the Kabul river. And the line of the Kabul river provides the easiest access to the Indian sub-continent from the north and west. French excavations at Mundigak near Kandahar (virgin soil about 3,000 B.C.) suggest these routes were of importance already in prehistoric times; and they fitted into that great Eurasian caravan route sometimes called "The Silk Road". They were probably used by the Aryans, and certainly used by Alexander and by the Sakas, on their way to India. Though the Hindu Kush is now but a key to India it was formerly *the* key; and the holders of this key seldom failed to use it, lured on, often to the detriment of their interests in Afghanistan, by the great wealth of the sub-continent.

EARLY HISTORY

Afghanistan first appears in history during the reign of Darius I (6th century B.C.) not as a political entity, but divided among at least three of the Achaemenian satrapies. It remained under the Achaemenians till the defeat of Darius III by Alexander at Guagamela in 331 B.C. After Darius's death a sort of national resistance to the Greeks developed in Afghanistan and Transoxiana.

Greeks: Alexander, Seleucids. Graeco-Bactrians

Alexander spent three years in and about Afghanistan pacifying and organizing the country, where he established five cities. He marched on India in 327 B.C.

and did not return to Afghanistan. During the confused period that followed Alexander's death in 323 B.C. Afghanistan was at first controlled by Antigonus Cyclops but by 305 B.C. it had come into the hands of Seleucus, another of Alexander's generals. The main centre of power then lay to the west so the Seleucids tended to neglect their eastern territories. In 302 B.C. Seleucus himself ceded southeastern Afghanistan to the Maurya emperor Chandragupta in exchange for the five hundred elephants that contributed to the important victory at Ipsus in the following year. Southeastern Afghanistan remained under Maurya control till that empire declined after the death of Asoka, the encourager of Buddhism. Seleucid preoccupation with the west encouraged their Satrap of Bactria, Diodotus, to declare himself independent of Antiochus III in about 255 B.C. Diodotus and the Graeco-Bactrian rulers who succeeded him (they were not all of his blood: three frequently inimical families of rulers are known) were tough, able men who were able to maintain their independence. And helped by the weakening of the Seleucid and Maurya empires they enlarged their kingdom till it extended from the Zarafshan to the Punjab. But their quarrels weakened them. The rise of Parthia cut them off from the west. And the lure of India was strong. So their guard on their nomadic frontier ultimately failed. Between 140 and 130 B.C. Bactria fell to the nomads, and the Kabul region and the rest of southern Afghanistan (Parthia had already occupied Herat and western Afghanistan) followed suit a century later. Greek influence persisted well into the Christian era; and petty kings of Greek descent probably continued to rule for at least as long in inaccessible places.

Kushans

Between 177 and 170 B.C. the nomadic Hsiungnu, or Huns (probably proto-Turk) inflicted two crushing defeats on the Yüehchih, a nomadic Indo-European people in what is now the Kansu-Ninghsia border area. The Yüehchih fled west driving before them the Saka tribes living astride the Alai mountains (another Indo-European people). What actually happened when the Greek kingdom of Bactria fell to the nomads is not clear. But we do know the Yüehchih ultimately occupied the Balkh region. And the Sakas turned the Hindu Kush to the west, occupied Seistan (Seistan is but a corruption of Sakasthan) and spread up the river system mentioned in paragraph 1 towards northern India. The chronology of this period is uncertain, but it was probably in the first century A.D. that the Kushans became the leading tribe in the Yüehchih confederacy. Under King Kujula Kadphises they moved south of the Hindu Kush, splitting the Sakas in two and driving part of them down into India. Under some able kings, prominent among whom was Kanishka, the Kushans built up an empire extending from the Oxus to Mathura (Muttra). They were an interesting people who developed a considerable degree of culture. They adapted Greek letters for

writing the language they used in Afghanistan. The stability their empire afforded greatly facilitated trade along the "Silk Road" and its important feeder down to India at a time when only the Kushans and the Parthians lay between flourishing Han China and the Roman Empire. From Kanishka onwards the Kushan kings became patrons of Buddhism, probably from policy as much as from conviction, for the southern parts of their empire had been strongly Buddhist ever since Asoka's time. Under them Buddhism spread along the trade routes northwards across the Hindu Kush then eastwards through Central Asia towards China. The Kushan empire, with its capital at Peshawar, started to decline about the middle of the third century. The Sassanians, who replaced the Parthians in Persia in 226, came to control western Afghanistan (including Seistan) and, according to some, may even have exercised suzerainty over the later Kushans. And about the middle of the fifth century the Kushans were replaced in our area by the Kidarites (also of Yuehchih stock) who controlled the country south of the Oxus between Balkh and Merv.

Hephthalites

At the beginning of the fifth century High Asia was controlled by two powerful Turco-Mongol confederacies both apparently under Mongol leadership. In the east were the Juanjuan, to the west, centred on the Altai, were the Hephthalites, who seem to have been always in some sort vassals of the Juanjuan. During the second quarter of the fifth century the Hephthalites (also known as "Huna" and "White Huns" though with little connection with Attila and his tribes) started to expand westwards. They occupied Soghdia, replaced the Kidarites in Bactria, and in 484 attacked Persia and killed the Sassanian King Firuz. Then, while continuing to harry Persia, they turned to the south-east, occupied Afghanistan and invaded north-west India. The Hephthalites remained nomadic and barbaric, destroyed much, and were particular enemies to Buddhism.

Tuehchueh

When the Juanjuan ruler Anakuei put a slight upon one of his vassals Bumin, Chief of the Tuehchueh, or Turks, they revolted and with the help of the Turkish rulers of north China (Wei dynasty), defeated the Juanjuan in 552. Bumin died in the year of this victory and the Turks divided into two: the Eastern Turks under Bumin's son, and the Western Turks under Bumin's able brother, Istami. The two confederacies continued friendly for a while, but later were often at enmity. About 565 the Western Turks allied themselves with the Sassanians and smashed the Hephthalites, who disappeared as a political entity. Their territory was divided between the allies, roughly along the line of the Oxus, and Afghanistan became part of the Sassanian empire for some twenty years. Later the Turks split with the Sassanians (profits from the transit trade along the "Silk Road" contributed to the quarrel) and allied themselves with Byzantium. The Turks invaded Bactria in 558/9

and by 597/8 they controlled the whole of Afghanistan. Their power was at its peak in 630, when the celebrated Chinese pilgrim Hsuan Tsang passed through their territories. Many Turks adopted Buddhism, which the Hephthalites had failed to eradicate. And some Turks seem to have become partially sedentary in Afghanistan.

Chinese

Between 659 and 661 T'ang China, who had already defeated the Eastern Turks in 630, crushed the Western Turks. The Chinese took over the Turkish territories and started to set up an administration in them, which never had time to develop as the Tibetans occupied the Tarim basin for twenty-four years after 670 and thus cut China off from her westernmost dependencies.

THE COMING OF ISLAM

The Arabs, in their astonishing expansion, now enter our area. At the battle of Nahāvend in 642 they completed the destruction of the Sassanians. In 651, they occupied Herat, and the following year they raided Balkh. Civil wars halted this Arab expansion for a time, but it was renewed early in the eighth century under Qutayba b. Muslim, the Omayyad Viceroy of Khorassan. The Western Turks never recovered from their defeat by the Chinese. The Eastern Turks had briefly revived their empire between about 683 and 743 but were never in a position to help their western congeners. And, though the Chinese had recaptured the Tarim basin by 694 and were able to start a forward policy again by 715 (the year of Qutayba's death), they suffered a crushing defeat on the Talas in July 751. So the rulers of Afghanistan, not all of whom were Turks, had no outside help in their resistance to the Arabs. They put up a tough struggle: parts of eastern Afghanistan were not converted to Islam till the ninth century, and the centre not till the beginning of the eleventh century. But ultimately the bulk of Afghanistan became part of the Abbassid Caliphate.

Tahirids, Saffarids and Samanids

By the time of the Abbassids the dilution of the Arab element in Islam by conquests and conversions was already marked. This dilution continued to increase, and the Abbassids came to rely more and more on mercenary armies chiefly composed of Turkish Ghulams, or slaves, rather than on Arabs. And with the decline of the Caliphate there was an increasing tendency for the formation of local dynasties owing but nominal allegiance to the Caliph. Such, in our area, were the Tahirids who ruled Khorassan for about fifty years from 820, the Saffarids from Seistan who overthrew the Tahirids in the second half of the ninth century and added Herat and Balkh to their dominions, and, most important, the Samanids who established their capital in Bokhara in 874, subjugated the Saffarids about 900, and at the height of their power controlled Transoxiana, the greater part

of Persia, and much of Afghanistan. The Samanids were brought down by the Qarakhanid Turks in 999.

Ghaznavids

Under the Samanid, Abdalmalik I, a Turkish Ghulam called Alptegin was Captain of the Guard. By shrewd use of the political arts of the time he had made himself Governor of Khorassan and was in the way of becoming the most powerful man in the kingdom when the death of Abdalmalik and the accession of Mansur I ruined his prospects. In 962 he fled to Ghazni, displaced the local ruler, became himself almost independent, and founded the important Ghaznavid dynasty which lasted for 200 years. The greatest Ghaznavid was Mahmud who, building on the foundations laid by his grandfather Alptegin and his father Sabuktegin (977-997), extended his sway till he controlled much of Persia, most of Afghanistan, and northern India. Actuated partly by religious zeal and partly by the desire for loot Mahmud aimed at an annual winter campaign in India, into which he made seventeen expeditions. Towards the north he was less successful but though he was unable to take Transoxiana from the Qarakhanids he managed to hold his own against them and against the Ghuzz. Mahmud adopted the title of Sultan. His court was a brilliant one, frequented by people such as Firdausi, the poet, and Al Biruni, the polymath. Mahmud died in 1030. His successors lacked his abilities and they were under constant pressure from the Seljuks, a tribe of the Ghuzz, to whom the Ghaznavids ultimately became tributary. In 1152 Sultan Bahram Shah was defeated by Alaaddin of Ghor, who sacked Ghazni. And Bahram Shah's son Kusru, the last of the Ghaznavids to rule in Afghanistan, was forced down to India by the Ghuzz.

Seljuks

Towards the end of the tenth century a nomadic Turkish people, the Oghuz or Ghuzz, appear in Transoxiana, moving slowly towards the south and west and playing their part in the fighting that accompanied the decline of the Samanids. The bulk of them remained nomadic, as their descendants, the Turcomans, have remained to this day. But one clan, the Seljuks, appreciated the advantages of civilization, became orthodox muslims and ultimately became sedentary. Under Toghrul Beg the senior branch of the Seljuks took Khorassan from the Ghaznavids between 1038 and 1040, when they defeated Masud near Merv. Toghrul Beg's brother occupied Khwarezm. By the middle of the century the Seljuks were the masters of most of Persia; and in 1058 Toghrul Beg displaced the Shi'a Buyids to become Temporal Vicar of the Abbassid Caliph. With the help of an able Persian Vizier known as Nizam-ul-Mulk (the friend of Omar Khayyam) Toghrul Beg's two successors Alp Arslan (1063-72) and Malik Shah (1072-92) were able to hold onto their possessions in Persia and to deal with the traditional fissiparous tendencies of their people. Malik Shah took Balkh from the Ghaznavids. His son, Sultan Sinjar, who became ruler of Khorassan in 1095, played an important part in our area and in 1117 reduced the Ghaznavids to vassalage. He died in 1157,

after trouble with the untamed Ghuzz in the Balkh area, without being able to establish a stable Turco-Persian kingdom.

Ghorids

The hill-country up the Hari Rud from Herat, known as Ghor, for long remained in isolation because of its poverty and difficulty of access. The Achæmenians seem to have penetrated there. And Masud, while Governor of Khorassan under his father Mahmud of Ghazni, undertook the systematic reduction of the area to vassalage, and its conversion. At that time the country was divided among a number of *Maliks*, or petty kings. But by the end of the eleventh century a central authority had developed and in 1099 Masud III of Ghazni was able to recognize one Izzuddin Hussain as Prince of Ghor. Izzuddin, who died about the middle of the twelfth century, managed to balance fairly successfully the often conflicting claims of his Ghaznavid suzerains and the powerful Seljuks in Khorassan. His son and successor, Saifuddin Suri, delegated some of his power to two half-brothers. Fakhruddin got Bamian where he founded the Shanshabanid dynasty, which lasted till the Mongol invasion; and Qutbuddin got the hill country. Some family quarrel drove Qutbuddin down to Ghazni where he was poisoned by Sultan Bahram Shah in 1146. Saifuddin marched on Ghazni to avenge his brother, took the town and held it for a couple of years, when he assumed the title of *Sultan*. But in 1149 Bahram Shah drove him out of Ghazni, captured him and ignominiously executed him. A fourth brother died on the way to attack Ghazni. It was left to the fifth brother, Alaaddin Hussein (1149-56), to rout Bahram Shah at Taginabad on the Helmand and to sack Ghazni, which earned him the epithet of *Jahansoz*, or *World Burner*. Alaaddin did not hold Ghazni, and Bahram Shah reoccupied it till his death. Alaaddin was less successful against the Seljuks, by whom he was defeated in 1152 and held prisoner a while. His son and successor was killed in 1163 near Merv while attacking the Ghuzz and the army gave allegiance to his nephew Ghiyasuddin. This was the Ghiyasuddin who built the beautiful minaret near Jam. Closely supported by his brother Muizuddin (also known as Mohammed Ghor) Ghiyasuddin brought Ghor to its brief period of glory, with an empire stretching from Herat to Ajmir in India. Muizuddin, who had been made Sultan of Ghazni on driving the Ghuzz out of that town in 1173, proved unequal to ruling alone after Ghiyasuddin died in 1203. In 1204 he was defeated by the Khwarezm Shah near Andkhui. And when he was assassinated in 1206 while returning from dealing with a revolt in the Punjab the Ghorid empire collapsed. The Indian territories became independent, and the rest of the kingdom was incorporated in the Khwarezmian empire between 1206 and 1215.

Khwarezm Shahs

The rulers of the Khiva oasis long made use of the title of Khwarezm Shah, which was later appropriated by the Seljuk governors of Khorassan. Shah Atsiz (1127/8-56), son of a Seljuk governor of Khorassan and

grandson of a Turkish slave, tried to declare his independence of the Seljuks but was defeated by Sinjar in 1138. In 1141 the Qarakhitai defeated Sinjar and invaded Khwarezm. These Qarakhitai were a strongly sinicized Mongol *élite* who had been driven from Peking some twenty years before by a revolt of their vassals, the Tungusic Jurchen. They fled westward and founded a new state at the expense of the Qarakhanid Turks of Transoxiana and Sinkiang. They were not Muslims. Khwarezm remained tributary to the Qarakhitai till the reign of Shah Atsu's grandson, Alaeddin Mohammed (1200-20), and it was with the help of his overlords that he defeated Muizzuddin, as related above. Between 1207 and 1210 this Muhammad of Khwarezm threw off the yoke of the Qarakhitai, whose *Gurkhan* or ruler, Yeh-Liu Ch'e Lu Ku was having trouble with rebellion in the east. The Khwarezm Shahs had got control of Khorassan towards the end of the twelfth century, occupied Transoxiana after defeating the Qarakhitai and by taking Gharzi in 1215-16 completed their occupation of Afghanistan. So by 1217 Mohammed of Khwarezm seemed to have effected the task in which Sinjar had failed: the creation of a strong Turco-Persian state in eastern Islam. But the strength of this empire was illusory. It was based on locally-powerful landowners and a mercenary army, and depended for its strength chiefly on the character of the ruler. Mohammed of Khwarezm was unequal to his task. He offended Genghiz Khan in 1218, and by the time he died two years later, a broken-hearted fugitive, his empire had disintegrated.

Mongols

Genghiz Khan, the great Mongol leader, had consolidated his power over Mongolia by 1206 and then started to expand. By 1216 he had defeated the Qarakhitai in what is now Sinkiang so his territories marched with those of the Khwarezm Shah. Genghiz Khan seemingly impressed by the apparent strength of the Khwarezm Shah, was willing to enter into commercial and diplomatic relations. But in 1218 the Khwarezmian governor of Otrar pillaged a Mongol caravan and massacred its Muslim merchants and the Mongol envoy accompanying it. The Khwarezm Shah refused any reparation so the following year Genghiz Khan attacked. The Khwarezmians put up little effective resistance, though Mohammed's son Jalaluddin did inflict two defeats on the Mongols in Afghanistan before being finally defeated himself. By 1222 Afghanistan was in Mongol hands. The towns were destroyed, the urban population massacred, the dams on the Helmand wrecked and the country became a sort of no-man's land without any proper government. It took one hundred and fifty years before Afghanistan even started to recover from these disasters. Some sort of administration was set up in Möngkai's reign (1251-59) when Afghanistan was divided: the western parts going to the Ilkhans of Persia and the eastern parts forming part of the Jaghatai Khanate. Afghanistan further suffered in the Mongol dynastic wars when the Ilkhans supported the Great Khan Kubilai while the Jaghataids did not.

Karts

In 1245 one Shamsuddin Kart, related on his mother's side to Ghiyasuddin of Ghor, inherited the rulership of Ghor, which had suffered less from the Mongols than the rest of Afghanistan. In 1251 he was invested by Möngkai with the province of Herat under the suzerainty of the Ilkhan Hulagü. Shamsuddin laid such solid foundations during his reign of twenty-five years that despite many difficulties, the Kart dynasty for one hundred and thirty years ruled from Herat over a territory that at its greatest extent comprised western Afghanistan and much of Khorassan.

Timurids

Eastern Afghanistan, as we have seen, formed part of the Ulus of the Mongol prince Jaghatai. When, at the beginning of the fourteenth century, the Jaghatai Khan, Kebek, discovered the delights of urban life in Transoxiana and his successor adopted Islam the Khanate was split in two: in the east Moghulistan, where the Mongols continued their nomadic traditions, and Transoxiana in the west, where the ancient Turkish nobility, notably the Amur Qazghan, held the real power. From this nobility there arose the Barlas Turk known as Tamerlane. By 1365 he had secured control of Transoxiana from the Jaghataids and by 1370 he controlled eastern Afghanistan. For ten years Tamerlane was preoccupied elsewhere but in 1381 he took Herat from the Karts and in the next three years he completed his control over Afghanistan including Seistan. Most of Tamerlane's astonishing career lies outside the scope of this note. He died in 1405 and by 1407 his fourth son Shah Rukh emerged victor from the struggle for succession and for forty years ruled from Herat over the bulk of the Timurid empire—west Persia had been lost to the Black Sheep Turcomans—either directly, or as suzerain over his nephews. Timurid decline began under Ulugh Beg, Shah Rukh's scholarly son who was murdered by his son in 1449 when the Timurid territories were under serious threat from the Uzbeks. These were a predominantly Turkish horde under Mongol leadership who had started moving southwards in 1428. Within twenty years the Timurid empire had disintegrated under pressure from the Uzbeks in the north and the White Sheep Turcomans in the west. All that remained was Khorassan and parts of western Afghanistan ruled by Hussain Baiqara from Herat till his death in 1507. Hussain Baiqara's court was of great intellectual and artistic brilliance, but he was little of a statesman. His son, the last Afghan Timurid, was driven from Herat by the Uzbeks in 1507.

Safavids, Mughals, Uzbeks

For the next two hundred years the history of Afghanistan is the and confusing story of struggles of the Safavids with the Uzbeks for Khorassan and Herat and with the Mughals for Kandahar. The Safavids were a national dynasty that arose in Persia at the beginning of the sixteenth century. The Mughal empire was founded by that fascinating character Babur, Timurid prince of Ferghana who had been driven out of his patrimony by the Uzbeks. He was

unable to persuade Hussain Baiqara to join him against the Uzbeks. But in 1502 he occupied Kabul (where he is buried), in 1522 he took Kandahar, and at the battle of Panipat in 1526 he laid the foundation of the Mughal empire.

MODERN HISTORY

Between 1708 and 1730 occurred the first, though brief, emergence of the Pathans as a political power when the Ghilzai Mir Wais revolted from the declining Safavids and for a short time he and his successors ruled Persia itself.

Nadir Shah of Persia

The Safavids were helped against the Ghilzais by Nadir Kuli Khan, a bandit chief, who proclaimed himself ruler of Persia in 1736. Within two years he had extended his rule over southern Afghanistan. In 1739 he carried out his great raid into India and sacked Delhi. And in 1740 he took northern Afghanistan from the Uzbek ruler of Bokhara. He was assassinated in 1747.

Durranis

Sadozais. Unlike the Safavids, Nadir Shah encouraged Afghans in his service. In the confusion following his assassination an Afghan of the Sadozai clan (the Khan Khel, or Royal Clan) of the important Abdal tribe rallied his countrymen and led them back to Kandahar. Here the chiefs elected him King with the style of Dur-i-Duran (Pearl of the Age), from which the Abdals are now known as Durranis. This Ahmed Shah was a very capable man and created the Afghanistan we now know. His dominions included Afghanistan, Kashmir and north-west India, and Khorassan, Sind and Baluchistan became tributary to him. He undertook regular winter campaigns into India but, though he smashed the Marathas at Panipat in 1761, they brought him little permanent extension of territory, and he met with increasing trouble from the Sikhs. On Ahmed Shah's death he was succeeded by his son Timur who during a reign of twenty years was able to hold the territories he had inherited and who moved the capital from Kandahar to Kabul. But he left more than twenty sons, whose unedifying struggle for the throne brought about the dissolution of the Sadozai kingdom. Zaman, Mahmud, Shuja-ul-Mulk, and again Mahmud occupied the throne in succession. The Uzbek north and much other territory fell away from the Sadozais. Mahmud acquired the throne a second time with the help of Fattah Khan, leader of another important clan, the Barakzais (or Mohammedzais). When Mahmud and his son Zaman barbarously murdered Fattah Khan his brothers united and drove the Sadozais to Herat, where Sadozai rule came to an end with the death of Kamran in 1842.

Barakzais (Mohammedzais). When the Sadozais were driven west in 1818 Dost Mohammed, youngest of the twenty-one Barakzai brothers, was allotted Ghazni, to which he soon added Kabul. His position was difficult. His brothers were not readily submissive. The Sikhs took Peshawar in 1823. And the British,

who had become the leading power in a still nominally Mughal India were inevitably interested in Afghanistan, the key to India. This interest led to the First Afghan War (1838-42) when the British thought they could best secure their northwestern approaches against the Russian threat by replacing Dost Mohammed by the Sadozai, Shuja-ul-Mulk, on the throne of Kabul. The project was ill-conceived, ended in a major disaster, and left an understandable legacy of bitterness. When the British evacuated Afghanistan in 1842 they released the Dost, who returned to Kabul and set about extending his control over the whole country. He died at Herat in 1863 soon after completing his task by taking the town. The Dost appealed particularly to the Afghans, who call him Amir-i-Kabir (The Great Amir). For the last eighteen years of his reign he maintained friendship with the Government of India. He nominated his third son, Shere Ali, to succeed him. The two older brothers, and Abdurrahman, son of the eldest brother, did not accept this and it was not till 1868 that Shere Ali was secure.

At first he continued his father's old policy of friendship with Britain, but as time went on a coolness developed and in 1878 the Second Afghan War started. The underlying cause was again British fear of Russian intentions. The actual crisis came when the Afghans refused to accept a British mission but publicly accepted a Russian one. Shere Ali fled before the invaders and died in Mazar in February 1879. In May his son and acknowledged successor, Yakub, signed the Treaty of Gandamak, which gave the British most of what they wanted. But when the envoy Yakub had agreed to accept was massacred together with his escort the British had to return and when they occupied Kabul in November Yakub gave himself up. Though British arms were generally successful, despite the Maiwand disaster (27 July 1880), the political situation was unsatisfactory, particularly after a change of ministry in London led to the abandonment of the Forward Policy. So when Shere Ali's nephew Abdurrahman returned from exile early in 1880 the British took a gamble (which succeeded) and recognized him as Amir of Kabul.

The British evacuated Kabul early in 1881. They, wisely, no longer insisted on a resident envoy in Afghanistan; but they gained some territory (including the Khyber Pass) and agreed to help the Amir against unprovoked foreign aggression provided he followed their advice on foreign policy. After the British left Abdurrahman spent ten years imposing a despotic centralized government on Afghanistan. In 1895 he occupied, and forcibly converted, Nuristan. Abdurrahman thought Afghanistan's interests were best served by loyal friendship with Britain even though this led to certain difficulties with Russia. By the time he died in 1901 the boundaries of modern Afghanistan were largely settled and partially demarcated. Amir Habibullah succeeded his father without any civil war. During his reign Anglo-Russian tension over Afghanistan was lessened as part of a wider diplomatic settlement. But he had to face the complications caused by the First World War. Habibullah was assassinated in 1919, being succeeded

after a brief struggle, by his third son Amanullah, one of whose first acts was an abortive attack on India. But by the peace treaty of August 1919 freedom of action in foreign affairs was restored to Afghanistan, which entered into diplomatic relations with several countries, including the USSR and Britain in 1921. Amanullah was an erratic character and his precipitate zeal for reform alienated powerful tribes and religious leaders. In May 1929 he fled the country. Kabul was briefly held by a Tadjik bandit leader known as Bachha i Saqao.

Mohammedzas (Yahya Khel) In October, 1929, Nadir Khan, a cousin of Amanullah and a former Minister of War, returned from exile and with the help of his equally able brothers Hashim Khan, Shah Wali Khan and Mahmud Khan (*the Musahiban Brothers*) defeated the Bachha and occupied Kabul. He was soon elected as King Nadir Shah. He was making good progress towards restoring conditions in Afghanistan when he was assassinated in 1933 and was succeeded by his son, the present king, H.M. Mohammed Zahir Shah, the second Durani to ascend the throne without any civil war. Down to the end of the Second World War King Zahir Shah had the benefit of a wise and experienced Prime Minister in his uncle, Sardar Hashim Khan. The next Prime Minister Sardar Shah Mahmud, for all his ability and integrity was not at home in the changed situation after the war, marked by the British abdication in India and the emergence of the two super powers, the USSR, which has a long common frontier with Afghanistan and the USA, half the world away. At this time the royal family was still effectively the ruling authority in Afghanistan, and the democratic institutions laid down in Nadir Shah's constitution were chiefly consultative. The younger members of the royal family thought that Shah Mahmud was not dealing with Afghanistan's two major problems forcibly enough.

These men were part of the first generation of Afghans to have received some of their education in the west. By the autumn of 1953 they had generated sufficient support within the family to secure the resignation of Shah Mahmud and his replacement by his nephew, Sardar Daud. Internally Daud's administration was less liberal than its predecessor. It kept a firm grip on the country and had little trouble except for some tribal disturbances in the Khost area and a nasty, but short lived riot in Kandahar. The important problem of modernization was attacked with energy and success. A Ministry of Planning was set up, with Daud holding the portfolio, and a series of Five-Year Plans was initiated. Much of the finance for the Plans came from abroad. Soon after the Flag Incident (*see below*) the USSR made a loan of US \$10 million, and the USA and other powers were not long in following this example. Under the Plans due attention was paid to social services, including education. And in 1959 Daud was successful in abolishing the compulsory veiling of women in public. In foreign affairs Daud had his younger brother Sardar Naim as foreign minister, who pursued an active and generally successful policy. Diplomatic relations were entered into with many countries and full use was made of the facilities of the United Nations. Politically Afghan-

stan voted with the muslim members of the Afro-Asian bloc. A UN Technical Assistance Mission was also accepted. But the administration failed to solve the most immediate of its foreign problems, that of the Pathan tribes in Pakistan, which had been separated from Afghanistan during the nineteenth century, first by Sikh then by British action, but who remain of great interest to the predominantly Pathan Government of Afghanistan. When the sub-continent was partitioned the Afghans resented the Pathans there being given the sole choice of acceding to either India or Pakistan. Instead of trying to solve the problem by co-operation with Pakistan, the viability of which they then doubted, the Afghan Government encouraged a latent irredentism and pressed for the establishment of a quasi-independent area, or Pashtunistan. Daud was an ardent supporter of this policy. In 1955 the *Flag Incident* occurred, when Afghan mobs attacked the Pakistani Embassy and Consulates. This nearly brought down the Daud administration, but the Afghans apologized and relations were patched up. The Pashtunistan Campaign continued, causing an increasing deterioration in Afghan-Pakistan relations and coolness between Afghanistan and the West. One result of this was that the USA could not help modernize the Afghan armed forces which had to rely on Soviet help after 1955. The last step was when Afghanistan broke off diplomatic relations with Pakistan in September, 1961.

The economic and fiscal results of this break were disastrous and led to the fall of the Daud administration in March, 1963. The new prime minister, Dr Yusuf, was not only not a member of the royal family, he was not even a Pathan. His first administration was generally well received. Its chief achievement was the promulgation of a new, and remarkably liberal, constitution on 1 October 1964. It also made possible a resumption of relations with Pakistan. Dr Yusuf's second administration, elected under the new constitution, was not so successful. There were troubles including student riots in Kabul, which led to his resignation. He was replaced by Mr Mawandwal, a Pathan. In 1968 Mr Mawandwal resigned on grounds of ill-health and was succeeded by Mr Nur Ahmed Etemadi, another Pathan and connected with the Royal Family. There has been considerable progress in modernization. In this Afghanistan has been helped by substantial aid from both Communist countries and the West.

Political development has inevitably been slower. For democratic rights granted from above are never so easy to work as those won from below, particularly in a country where scarcely half the population has any tradition of the public discussion of public affairs. The Pathans have their *Jirgas* where such discussions take place, the other peoples are accustomed to live under authority. The result of this has been that the three prime ministers since Sardar Daud have all been administrators rather than politicians, while the elected legislators have tended to be critical rather than constructive. And so far no political parties have been formed, as permitted by the 1964 Constitution, though Mr Mawandwal was on the way to creating a "tail", rather than a political party as we understand

it, when he retired. Ever since the fall of Dr. Yusuf's administration students have been very conscious of their political power: this led to the University and colleges being closed for a while during 1969. One important step forward has been made. The Supreme Court, envisaged in the 1964 Constitution and intended primarily to administer secular law rather than the muslim *shariat* has now been set up. Elections

were held in October 1969, for seats to the House of the People and for one third of the seats in the House of Elders. A new administration under Mr. Nur Ahmed Etemadi was formed which subsequently resigned in May 1971. The Speaker of the House of the People, Dr. Abdul Zahir, was appointed Prime Minister designate pending the formation of a new Cabinet.

M.C.G.

ECONOMIC SURVEY

About 16 million people live in the Kingdom of Afghanistan. A full census of the population has yet to be completed, but the round figure cited is one that is based on official estimates. These indicate that from 1966 to 1971 the population will increase from 15.4 to 16.9 million. The calculations used for these estimates assume an annual rate of increase of 1.9 per cent; current demographic studies indicate that the rate of increase now exceeds 2 per cent.

Of the total population, 90 per cent live in rural areas. Rural migration is augmenting the natural increase in population in urban areas so that this percentage may soon change. Nearly 70 per cent of the people live in villages scattered throughout the mountain or desert countryside. They are too remote from the urban centres to take much part in the market economy. This 70 per cent includes the 2,700,000 Kuchis, who are nomads.

Kabul, the capital city, with a rapidly increasing population that may soon reach 600,000, is the dominant financial and commercial centre of the country. Other large cities are Herat, a trading centre near the Iranian border, with a population of 86,000 people and Kandahar, in the wool and fruit producing area of the south-west, with 77,000 inhabitants. The smaller provincial centres include Mazar-i-Sharif, in the northern karakul country where natural gas has recently been found, Kunduz and Pul-i-Kumbri in the cotton country, and Jellalabad in the east. Only in recent years have these and other urban centres been linked to each other and with the capital city by adequate transportation and communication systems. A more unified national economy is now emerging from what had been a group of relatively isolated trading centres located in provincial areas largely devoted to agriculture carried on at close to a subsistence level. These areas were, nevertheless, nearly self-sufficient.

Afghanistan's economy has in the past been based almost entirely on agricultural production. Probably two-thirds of the agricultural production still does not enter the market economy. Of the other third, roughly half is sold for urban consumption and the other half for export. The mainstays of the economy and the chief earners of foreign exchange are still the traditional products of Afghanistan: the production of wool and of karakul skins obtained from a unique breed of sheep that graze in the northern provinces, and the cultivation of cotton. Hand-woven carpets, another distinctive product of the country, are also an important factor in the Afghan economy.

Industrial production in the modern sense started in Afghanistan with the establishment of a cotton textile plant in 1934. This industry expanded rapidly and is today the largest in the country. It was followed by the building of wool factories, sugar refineries, cement plants, and other processing industries. Engineering industries are small and relatively new. Excluding handicrafts and utilities, industrial production accounts for only about 5 per cent of the total production of the country.

Although the existence of large mineral resources has been known for many years, it is only recently that economic exploitation of some of these resources has become possible. This is due to the discovery of natural gas in the northern part of Afghanistan and to the building of facilities for making use of the large reserves of this new source of energy. The export of natural gas to the U.S.S.R. started in 1967, and the volume is increasing rapidly. This new development will have an important impact on the economy of the country.

Sufficient statistical data are not available to make more than rough estimates of the gross domestic product (G.D.P.) of Afghanistan. Two separate studies for the year 1959 produced estimates varying from Af. 28,000 million to 39,000 million. The most recent information furnished by Afghan authorities is that the G.D.P. for the year 1967-68 was Af. 54,000 million. This is equivalent to U.S. \$1,200 million at the official exchange rate of Af. 45 to U.S. \$1. During this period the exchange rate in the free market continuously exceeded Af. 70 to the U.S. \$. Using the above estimate and converting the figure at the official exchange rate, per capita income in 1968 would be U.S. \$80.

A rough estimate of the real rate of growth of the Afghan economy for the period 1963 to 1968 is 2 per cent (compound rate) per annum.

AGRICULTURE

In past years Afghanistan produced enough food to fill the needs of its own people and to supply substantial amounts, particularly of fresh and dried fruits, to the Indian sub-continent. But in recent years, the population has grown at a more rapid rate than food production, so that it is now necessary to import large quantities of wheat, sugar and vegetable oils. Some shifting in the use of land from wheat to cotton has contributed to this change in respect to self-sufficiency in food.

Of the total land area which is 63.6 million hectares only 22 per cent or 14 million hectares is suitable for cultivation. Of this 7.8 million hectares are today considered *crop land*. 5.8 million hectares are irrigable but only 60 per cent of this irrigable land is actually cropped because of lack of water. Some of the non irrigable crop land is dry farmed but not all of it.

Grain Crops

Grains are the most important crops. Estimates of production (in metric tons) for 1967-68 are: wheat 2,241,000 tons; maize 765,000 tons; barley 357,000 tons; and rice 396,000 tons. The wheat crop has varied by large amounts from year to year. This is partly due to periodic recurrences of rust damage and to the shifting of land to cotton. The low yields of wheat obtained in Afghanistan are attributable to a steady reduction in soil fertility and to the primitive methods of cultivation that have been used throughout the country. In recent years, however, the introduction of improved seeds and the use of chemical fertilizers have greatly increased the yields of wheat in some areas. There are now indications that Afghanistan may achieve self-sufficiency in wheat production in two or three years. The average annual amount of wheat imported during the years 1962-67 was 110,000 tons. Most of it was acquired from the United States on concessional terms.

Cotton

Cotton is a major crop in the northern provinces but in recent years its cultivation has commenced in the Helmand Valley and near Herat. A well planned and intensive effort to encourage cotton cultivation was very effective during the period of 1962-1965. This resulted in a doubling of the production of raw cotton in a remarkably short time. It rose from 52,000 tons in 1961 to 110,000 tons in 1963. But ginning capacity became a bottleneck; furthermore diseases and seed degeneracy were encountered. Added to these problems was the urgent need for wheat created by the shift in land use. The combination of these factors caused a falling off in the production of cotton which dropped back to 55,000 tons by 1967. A new cotton programme has recouped part of the former gains and has as its goal a production of 130,000 tons of seed cotton for which the expanded ginning mills now have more than sufficient capacity.

More than half of Afghanistan's ginned cotton is exported with the largest shipments going under barter contracts to the U.S.S.R.

Other Crops

The estimated production of other important crops in 1967-68 was: sugar beet 62,000 tons; sugar cane 57,000 tons; and vegetable oil seeds (excluding cotton seeds) 55,000 tons. None of these crops were sufficient to meet the needs of the country so that substantial amounts of sugar and vegetable oils were imported.

The climate of Afghanistan is very favourable for the production of a wide variety of fruits. Grapes are the most important of the fruits and account for more than half of the estimated total of 826,000 tons of fruits produced in 1967-68. Afghan fruits are exported

in both the fresh and dried states. Traditionally India and Pakistan were the markets for these goods but shipments now go to the U.S.S.R. and China and more recently to Germany. The installation of modern facilities for cleaning and packing raisins has made it possible for Afghanistan's dried fruits to enter the European market.

Vegetable production has been neglected in the past but the use of new seeds and better methods of cultivation are increasing the level of production which is estimated at 636,000 tons in 1967. With the installation of new facilities for handling vegetables including canning and cold storage plants vegetable crops will be more important in the future and may even enter the European market.

Afghan melons are famous for their flavour but the ratio of weight to value and the hazards of spoilage in transit make it impossible to export them except to nearby Pakistan. Pomegranates are also an important crop. The use of concentrated pomegranate juice as a blend in soft drinks is an interesting new export possibility. Pistachios and almonds grow in widely scattered areas and substantial quantities are exported.

Livestock

Two of Afghanistan's leading exports, karakul skins and wool, depend on the raising of sheep. The sale of karakul skins to European and American buyers is Afghanistan's largest source of convertible currency. Karakul alone accounts for more than half of the convertible foreign exchange earnings of the country. Karakul, which is more popularly known as *Persian lamb*, is widely used in the manufacture of fur coats and other garments. Afghan skins generally command a higher price than competing products which come from South West Africa and the U.S.S.R. The number of karakul sheep is estimated to be 6 million, all located in the northern provinces. In recent years the foreign exchange obtained from the export of karakul skins has ranged from US \$10 million to US \$16 million annually. This industry is very important to the Afghan economy but it is not expanding; in fact considerable efforts are needed to maintain the present volume.

The number of sheep in Afghanistan, excluding the karakul flock, is estimated to be 15 million. Sheep are the main source of meat for the country and they produce enough wool to export from 5,000 to 6,000 tons annually, most of which is sent to the U.S.S.R. under barter agreements.

To help make up a deficiency of protein in the Afghan diet, there are important projects for increasing poultry production which is today quite small. A fisheries programme has also been started. In addition, great efforts are being made to improve the local breeds of cattle in order to increase the very low output of dairy products.

A basic problem of the livestock industries of Afghanistan is the limited amount of pasture land and the difficulties which overgrazing causes. The demand for meat and dairy products is expanding much more rapidly than the supply of these products.

MINERAL RESOURCES

Exploratory drilling carried on with Soviet assistance has located supplies of petroleum in the northern provinces, but the commercial production of oil is not yet possible. This exploration work is continuing, and the search for oil has been extended to the southern part of the country as well.

The situation in regard to natural gas is very different. There are proven reserves of more than 60,000 million cubic metres in a large field near Mazar-i-Sharif. The estimate of the total of all reserves is 300,000 million cubic metres.

The availability of natural gas in Afghanistan will have far reaching effects on the economy of the country. The construction of a pipeline to carry natural gas to the U.S.S.R. made it possible to start exporting this commodity in 1967. Present estimates indicate that by 1973 the annual export of natural gas will reach 3,500 million cu. metres. Income from this resource may soon exceed that of any other commodity. Relatively small amounts of natural gas have as yet been allocated for domestic uses, which could include the supply of energy for thermal electric plants and for the manufacture of chemical fertilizer.

Iron Ore: unexploited deposits

The discovery of natural gas in Afghanistan raises important questions regarding its uses, one of which could be as a source of energy for the reduction of iron ore and its conversion to steel. The major iron ore deposits are in the Hajikak area, 125 km. west of Kabul and directly south of the natural gas field. The ore is too distant from the sea to be sold competitively on the international market, but efficient, low-cost reduction or conversion to steel prior to shipment would change the economic factors that determine its marketability.

The estimates of the extent of the iron ore deposits are that the proven reserves amount to 10 million tons. In addition, there are 314 million tons of partially drilled reserves, and the general geological prognosis is that the total deposits exceed 2,000 million tons. Analysis of the ore indicates that it is high grade and of a type suitable for reduction by natural gas.

Other mineral resources that have been located, but which are not yet exploited, include deposits of copper, lead, zinc, beryl, gold, barytes and sulphur.

Coal, Salt, Lapis Lazuli

Commercial mining operations have so far been confined to the production of coal, salt and lapis lazuli.

Coal mining was started in 1939 and is entirely a governmental activity. The production of the Karkar and the Ishpushta Coal Mines, both near enough to Kabul to supply most of the needs of the capital city and its industrial environs, has now reached a total annual volume of 150,000 tons. But the reserves of these mines are relatively small, 13 million tons in the case of Karkar, and 2 million tons for Ishpushta. The

largest deposits of coal are in the north at the Darrah-i-Soof mines, which have proven reserves of 75 million tons and where the actual reserves may be several hundred million tons. Another coal deposit is at the Sabzak mines near Herat, where the known reserves are 3 million tons. These mines are being prepared for active production and are expected in the near future to add 30,000 tons each to the country's annual production of coal. Because of the size of its reserves, the Darrah-i-Soof mine will play a large role in the future.

Afghanistan produces much of the salt that it consumes, but the methods used for this production are still primitive. New mines equipped for modern methods will soon be in operation and may eliminate any need for importing salt.

Afghanistan's lapis-lazuli is famous throughout the world. The mining of these gem stones has been carried on for thousands of years. The chief deposits are in the province of Badakhshan.

ENERGY

At the present time the consumption of energy in Afghanistan is, by Western standards, very low. A rough estimate made in 1964 showed that the per capita use of energy in the United Kingdom was 120 times that of Afghanistan. Nearly two-thirds of the total energy available is supplied by imported petroleum products. These provide the fuel for transportation, and small quantities of oil are also used in diesel plants producing electricity. In 1964, the imports of petroleum products, most of which came from the U.S.S.R., exceeded 150,000 tons and the amounts purchased are increasing yearly.

Hydroelectric Power

Hydroelectricity is next in importance as a source of energy. Total electric power production in 1967-68 reached 359,000 kW. and was steadily rising. Three new hydroelectric projects, all larger than any now in operation, are under construction. These are: the Naghlu plant, 70 km. east of Kabul, which will have an installed capacity of 90,000 kW.; the Mahipur, also east of Kabul, but nearer the city, with a capacity of 66,000 kW.; and the Kajakai plant, which will add 33,000 kW. to the supply of power in the Helmand Valley. The Mahipur plant started operating in 1967. According to current estimates, the total production of electric energy for distribution throughout the country will exceed 500,000 kW. by the end of the year 1971.

Other Sources

Coal and wood are the other sources of energy used in the country. In 1964 about 100,000 tons of each were consumed for fuel. There are extensive plans for increasing coal production. The target set for 1971 is 350,000 tons. However, the supply of wood, which is still extensively used for cooking and heating, is steadily decreasing because of the destructive lumbering practices employed in the few remaining forests.

INDUSTRY

Afghanistan's first modern industrial venture a cotton textile plant started at Jebel i Seraj in 1934 has grown into a large and important enterprise. This business which is partly owned and managed by the *Barke Millie* a private commercial bank now operates two large scale spinning and weaving plants one at Pul i kumri and the other a quite modern plant at Gulbahar where it has also installed finishing equipment for dyeing and printing cloth. The basic equipment for textile production now installed in these plants is 77 000 spindles and 2 100 power looms more than half of which are automatic. In 1967-68 the production of cloth was 67 million metres which is still below the needs of the people. Imports in excess of 35 million metres yearly have added to the supply but the demand for cloth is not fully satisfied. Consequently the production of the Gulbahar plant will be expanded and plans have been made to build four new textile plants which will be located in Kabul Nangarhar Herat and Balkh. The goal is for a total production of 118 million metres by 1971 to meet an estimated demand which by then will have risen to 120 million metres.

Woolen textiles have been produced in small quantities for many years but this industry has not yet become important. Annual production is now about 400 000 metres.

Processing Industries

Cement production which was started on a small scale by the *Afghan Cement Company* at Jebel i Seraj in 1958 has been expanded by the building of a large government owned plant near Pul i kumri. In 1967-68 the combined production of the two plants was 127 000 tons. Plans have been made to construct a third plant for which Herat will be the site.

There are a number of newly established industrial plants for processing agricultural products. A recently built raisin cleaning plant is now operating at its full capacity which is about 6 000 tons per year. The success of this venture has led to the making of plans for building several new plants of similar capacity. The *Spinjar Company* operates a large cotton ginning plant at Kunduz with branches throughout the cotton producing provinces. It produces vegetable oil as a by product and a new oil extraction plant has been constructed in the Helmand Valley at Bost i Handahar there is a plant for handling and preserving fresh fruits. Other processing or handling industries include leather tanning the preparation of casings for export and cold storage and refrigeration facilities for vegetables fruits and meat.

Sugar refining was started many years ago. The present annual production is only 7 500 tons but there are plans to build facilities for increasing the total output of refined sugar to more than 20 000 tons by 1971.

Other Industries

Among the smaller industries are some plants producing consumer goods such as pottery glass shoes and knitted goods but the production of these articles is small.

The most important handicraft industry is the weaving of carpets and rugs. Handwoven Afghan carpets are well known in western and other markets and command high prices because of their quality and distinctive designs. Federal Germany and the United Kingdom are the largest customers. This trade earned more than US \$8 million of foreign exchange in 1965 and in 1966 and is therefore important to the economy of the country. To improve the quality of Afghan carpets a plant for washing carpets locally before export will be built in the near future.

The engineering industries of Afghanistan have confined their operations to the repair of automotive equipment and some assembly work on trucks and motors. Plans for the development of metallurgical industries await the completion of studies of the feasibility of building an iron smelter.

Stimulation of Industrial Expansion

In 1967 a new Foreign and Domestic Private Investment law was passed. This has stimulated interest in proposals for a number of new industrial enterprises some of which will commence operations in the near future. An Industrial Development Bank may soon be established. Most of the initial equity capital of Af 240 million has been subscribed locally and a loan of Af 540 million from the Afghan Government has now been arranged. The project now awaits the conclusion of negotiations for foreign participation and the approval of legislation authorizing the charter of the bank. The completion of these plans will hasten the expansion of industry in many fields in Afghanistan.

TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATIONS

By using a substantial portion of the foreign aid received in recent years on the building of roads and airports Afghanistan has greatly expanded and vastly improved its transportation system. Nearly 2 000 km of asphalt and concrete roads were completed between the years 1957 and 1967. Good roads now connect all of the main cities of the country with Kabul and with each other. The most dramatic achievement of the programme was the reduction of time needed to travel by automobile and for truck services between Kabul and the northern provinces. This has been accomplished by building a high altitude tunnel near the Salang Pass of the Hindu Kush mountain range. A journey from Kabul to Kunduz that formerly required several days of rough driving now takes six or seven hours on a fine road. To complete this project was a spectacular feat of engineering carried out with Soviet aid and Soviet technical assistance.

Important extensions and spurs for the roads already constructed will be built during the next five years. These will include the Herat to Islam Qala road which joins Afghanistan's highway system with Iran's. Another important project is the building of a direct road from Herat to Kabul through the central provinces. This will eventually be part of the Asian Highway sponsored by the United Nations.

AFGHANISTAN—(ECONOMIC SURVEY)

There are large modern airports at Kabul and Kandahar which can accommodate jet traffic. Local airports are now in use in the north at Kunduz, Faizabad, Mazar-i-Sharif, and Maimana and at Herat in the west and Jellalabad in the southeastern part of the country.

Ariana Airlines, the Afghan national line, in which Pan American Airlines has a minority interest and a management contract, provides passenger and cargo service to Iran, Beirut, and the West, as far as London. A service which is shared with Indian Airlines carries traffic to New Delhi.

There are no railroads in Afghanistan, nor are there any plans to build one. From time to time, however, consideration has been given to the desirability of constructing a rail line from the Hajikak area to carry iron ore or iron products to the rail head at Chaman on the border of Pakistan.

Telephone Communications

Automatic telephones were installed in Kabul in 1950. The present 5,000 line exchange is being replaced by one with 13,000 lines. Automatic equipment is now in use in many of the provincial cities and the installations will be considerably expanded in the near future. Most of the telephone equipment is of German origin, the Afghan Government's communications programme having been assisted by the Federal Republic of Germany.

Access to the Sea

Afghanistan is a land-locked country. The shortest land routes to the sea are through Pakistan to the port of Karachi. There is a rail line from Chaman which runs across western Pakistan to Karachi, a distance of 950 km. A spur of 8 km. from Chaman to the new rail head at Spin Baldack inside the Afghan border near Kandahar will connect this line with the present Afghan highway system. Goods shipped from Kabul usually go by truck to Peshawar and thence by rail to Karachi.

Afghanistan's foreign trade is dependent on transit rights through neighbouring countries. When political difficulties caused the closing of the border between Afghanistan and Pakistan in the early 1960s, it became necessary to use different routes to the sea. One of these was through Iran to the port of Khorramshahr on the Persian Gulf; the other was across Russia to the Baltic sea. Since the reopening of the border, the shorter and less costly routes through Pakistan are again in use.

New transit agreements recently concluded with Turkey and with Iran will soon make through transportation by truck possible from Western Europe to Afghanistan.

FOREIGN TRADE AND BALANCE OF PAYMENTS

The cost of the imported goods and services which Afghanistan requires in order to sustain an economic development programme that will create a modestly rising standard of living exceeds the current value of exports by substantial amounts. In 1962-63 imports cost U.S. \$115.9 million, whereas the proceeds

from the sale of exports were only \$58.9 million. By 1967-68 imports had risen to \$139.3 million and exports to \$66.5 million. The export-import gap had therefore widened from \$57 million in 1962-63 to \$71.8 million 1967-68.

The balance of payments problems created by this gap have been met by the reduction of Afghanistan's liquid assets to minimum working balances and by commodity loans and grants from aid-giving countries, chiefly the United States and the U.S.S.R. Short-term credits obtained from the International Monetary Fund have also helped to ease the financial difficulties caused by the imbalance of trade. But the present indications are that the trade gap will continue for some time to come. Increases in per capita income will generate import demands that will probably exceed the rate of expansion of Afghanistan's normal export trade.

These circumstances create difficult problems for those who are planning the future of Afghanistan's economy and for aid-giving countries and the international lending agencies. With no reversal of this trend in sight, the burden of an increasing foreign debt service (currently U.S. \$14 million per annum) compounds the difficulties. Important among the factors which may change the future prospects are the rapidly increasing exports of natural gas and the possibility that the use of this new source of energy will expedite the exploitation for export purposes of the iron ore reserves.

Afghanistan's pattern of export trade has shown only minor variations in recent years. More than one-third of the exports were delivered under barter contracts (mainly to the U.S.S.R.) which provide for payments by credits usable only in the country to which the goods were shipped. Exports to India and Pakistan accounted for 25 per cent of the total. Payments for these shipments were made in rupees the use of which was restricted under bilateral agreements. The remaining exports were sold in western markets for convertible currencies. The chief purchasers were the U.S.A., United Kingdom and Federal Germany.

MONEY AND BANKING

Due to a succession of fiscal deficits, the supply of money (bank notes and demand deposits) in Afghanistan increased from a total of Af. 3,205 million in March 1962 to Af. 6,288 million in March 1968. In 1967 the supply of money declined slightly; furthermore, the growth rate of the monetized sector of the economy has in recent years exceeded the rate of increase in money supply. The volume of credit extended to both the public and private sectors of the economy also increased substantially. However, the growth rates for both monetary supply and credit are not excessive, and, in general, the fiscal and monetary policies of the country are conservative.

The chief banking institution in Afghanistan is *Da Afghanistan Bank*, a government-controlled central bank, which also engages in commercial operations. As of the end of 1966, its total assets

amounted to Af 24 350 million with capital and reserves totalling Af 685 million. In addition to its main offices in Kabul it has 49 provincial branches as well as offices in London and New York.

There are two other banks in Afghanistan the older of which is the *Banke Milie* (Afghan National Bank) founded in 1932. It conducts a commercial banking business and acts as a holding company with controlling interests in some of the leading industries including the *Textile Company*. The *Banke Milie*'s assets at the end of 1966 were Af 1 380 million and its capital and reserves were Af 827 million. The other commercial bank the *Pashlany Tejaraty Bank* is affiliated to the Da Afghanistan Bank. It started its commercial operations in 1954 and as of December 1966 had assets of Af 995 million and capital and reserves of Af 344 million. No foreign banks have been permitted to open in Afghanistan.

PUBLIC FINANCE

Government revenues have risen from Af 2 120 million in the fiscal year 1962-63 to Af 4 189 million in 1967-68. More than half of the revenues are raised by taxes on business transactions, customs duties on imports being by far the largest source. Income taxes on individuals and corporations account for less than 10 per cent of the total revenue. Direct taxes on land are nominal.

The ordinary expenses of government plus the developmental expenditures incurred by the Government of Afghanistan amounted to Af 3 531 million in 1962-63. By 1967-68 the figure had risen to Af 5 152 million. The figure budgeted for 1968-69 is Af 6 799 million which includes about Af 1 200 million for national defence. Deficits have been financed by credits from the Central Bank and by expansion in the supply of money.

For many years the funds for developmental projects have far exceeded the amounts charged as expenditures in Afghanistan's fiscal accounts. The additional costs were covered by funds received from foreign countries in the form of loans and grants.

FOREIGN AID

Foreign aid to Afghanistan started in 1950 when the Export Import Bank of the U.S. granted a loan for the development of the Helmand Valley. The U.S.

has continued to support this land development programme which has included extensive irrigation and hydroelectric projects.

Up to 30 June 1968 the total aid furnished by the U.S. to Afghanistan amounted to nearly US \$400 million. Forty five per cent of the American aid was used to improve transportation, mainly road building, 25 per cent was spent in the Helmand Valley and 12 per cent on education. Smaller amounts were used for technical assistance in agriculture, government management and planning.

Soviet aid has exceeded the amounts furnished by the U.S. Details of its use are not available, especially those in respect to military assistance, which has been substantial. The most spectacular Soviet projects are the building of the tunnel through the Hindu Kush mountain range at the Salang Pass and the erection of giant-sized silos in Kabul for the storage of wheat.

During the period covered by the Second Five Year Plan (1962 to 1966-67) Afghanistan received a total of US \$352.5 million in the form of project loans and grants from foreign countries. Of this amount 65 per cent came from the U.S.S.R., 23 per cent from the U.S.A. and 9 per cent from the Federal Republic of Germany.

In addition to these project loans and grants the Government of Afghanistan realized Af 2 909 million from the sale of commodities furnished under grants and loans. Of the total 47 per cent (almost entirely in the form of grants) came from the U.S., 37 per cent (all under loan agreements) came from the U.S.S.R. and 13 per cent (grants) from Germany.

The United Nations has maintained a large staff in Afghanistan which has furnished a wide variety of technical assistance, which has been especially effective in the field of public health.

Afghanistan is counting heavily on the continuance of foreign aid in order to achieve the objectives of its Third Five Year Plan (1967-71). This plan envisaged a level of development expenditure that would require total foreign assistance amounting to the equivalent of US \$420 million in foreign currencies. A revised version of the Third Five Year Plan published in November 1968 modifies its original goals which now call for US \$332 million in project assistance.

A P

STATISTICAL SURVEY

AREA AND POPULATION

TOTAL AREA (sq. km.)	CULTIVATED AREA (sq. km.)	POPULATION (1969 est.)	DENSITY OF POPULATION (per sq. km.)	KABUL (capital; 1969 est.)
650,000	78,000 (est.)	15,944,275	24.5	480,383

RACIAL DIVISION (1963)

Pathans or Pashtuns	Tadzhiks	Uzbeks	Hazarahs	Nomads
8,800,000	4,300,000	800,000	444,000	650,000

PROVINCES
('000—1969 est.)

PROVINCE	POPULATION	CAPITAL
Kabu	1,267	Kabul
Kandahar	724	Kandahar
Herat	669	Herat
Balkh	345	Mazar-i-Sharif
Nangarhar	574	Jalalabad
Paktia	714	Gardez
Ghazni	1,175	Ghazni
Helmand	309	Bost
Kunduz	395	Kunduz
Katagan	607	Baghlan
Chakhansur	119	Zaranj
Logar	301	Baraki-Barak
Kapisa	335	Togab
Runar	322	Chakhasarai
Kochi	2,607	—

PROVINCE	POPULATION	CAPITAL
Farah	306	Farah
Faryab	423	Maimana
Jauzjan	419	Shiberghan
Takhar	482	Talokan
Badakhshan	335	Faizabad
Parwan	865	Charikar
Bamian	337	Bamian
Uruzgan	515	Uruzgan
Ghor	315	Ghakhcharan
Samangan	202	Afbak
Zabul	349	Kalat
Wardak	404	Maidan
Laghman	216	Meterlam
Badghis	312	Kala-i-Now

AGRICULTURE
('000 tons)

	1966-67	1967-68
Wheat	2,033	2,207
Maize	720	726
Barley	375	375
Rice	337	338
Cotton	59	55
Beet Sugar	56	62
Cane Sugar	51	51
Fruit	372	385
Oil Seeds	55	55
Vegetables	590	591

LIVESTOCK
(1967-68—'000)

Sheep	15.0	Donkeys	1.2
Karakul	6.0	Camels	0.3
Cattle	3.6	Horses	0.3
Goats	3.2		

MINING

	UNIT	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68
Coal	'000 tons	144.0	161.6	151.0
Salt	" "	38.1	38.7	31.3
Lapis Lazuli	tons	8.6	10.3	5.5

LABOUR
(1965—numbers employed)

AGRICULTURE	TRADE, INDUSTRY, COMMERCE, ADMINISTRATION	NOMADS
2,900,000	840,000	650,000

AFGHANISTAN—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

INDUSTRY

	UNIT	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68
Cotton Pieces . . .	'000 metres	55,200	66,000	64,000
Cotton Yarn . . .	'000 bundles	239,400	245,400	192,200
Woollen Pieces . . .	'000 metres	305	463	340
Beet Sugar (crystal)	tons	7,400	7,100	7,500
Soap . . .	'000 cakes	2,800	1,400	1,500
Cement . . .	'000 tons	172 2	174	123 6
Rayon . . .	'000 metres	1,000	1,304	1,311

Carpet-making is an important traditional cottage industry.

ELECTRIC POWER (kWh)

	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68
Hydro . . .	210,737	282,414	345,490
Diesel . . .	8,296	8,964	12,463
Thermal . . .	13,115	10,920	1,696
TOTAL . . .	232,148	302,298	359,649

FINANCE

1 Afghan (Af) = 100 puls
 200 Af. = £1; 84 Af = U.S. \$1.
 1,000 Afghans = £5 sterling = U.S. \$12

BUDGET (1967-68—million Af)

REVENUE		EXPENDITURE	
Indirect Taxes	2,514	Ordinary Expenditure	3,638
Government Enterprises	627	Development Schemes	1,440
Direct Taxes	548		
Property Sales and Services	205		
Repayment of Loans to Government	5		
Commodity Assistance	795		
TOTAL (incl. other items)	4,952	TOTAL	5,078

AFGHANISTAN—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

THIRD FIVE-YEAR PLAN (1967-71) (million Af.)

REVENUE		EXPENDITURE	
Direct Taxation	2,809	Government Departments	16,862
Indirect Taxation	11,391	Repayment of Foreign Loans	4,422
Sale of Property and Services	4,136		
Licences, Fees and Penalties	672	TOTAL CURRENT EXPENDITURE	21,284
Investments	950		
Government Enterprises	3,793	INVESTMENTS	
Other Domestic Revenue	668	Government	12,000
		Foreign Aid	16,000
TOTAL DOMESTIC REVENUE	24,419	Private Sector	2,000
Foreign Commodity Aid	4,200		
		TOTAL INVESTMENTS	30,000
TOTAL REVENUE	28,619		

FOREIGN AID (million U.S.\$)

SOURCE	1964-65	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68
U.S.A.	16.00	12.68	5.50	3.92
U.S.S.R.	12.00	6.00	0.25	—
German Federal Republic	0.10	0.35	1.60	1.70
United Nations	1.00	2.00	1.62	0.98
IBRD	—	—	0.35	—
TOTAL	29.10	21.03	9.32	6.60

1970 (est.—'000 U.S. \$): U.S.S.R. 50,000*, U.S.A. 6,000, German Federal Republic 6,000, China (P.R.C.) 6,000, United Kingdom 240.

*1969

EXTERNAL TRADE (million Af.)

	1964-65	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68
Commercial Imports	3,927.0	4,058.6	4,994.9	5,004.8
Loan and Grant Imports	3,324.9	5,348.7	6,285.9	5,448.6
TOTAL IMPORTS	7,251.9	9,407.3	11,270.8	10,453.7
TOTAL EXPORTS	4,152.0	5,025.4	5,198.0	5,017.6

AFGHANISTAN—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

PRINCIPAL COMMODITIES

IMPORTS*	1966-67	1967-68	EXPORTS	1966-67	1967-68
Foodstuffs	1 064 4	933 5	Fruit Dried and Fresh	1 682 4	1 966 4
Cotton Textiles	287 5	266 3	Karakul (Persian Lamb)	879 3	1 077 6
Machinery and Equipment	640 7	483 8	Carpets	610 0	390 1
Footwear	102 5	114 9	Raw Cotton	1 068 3	593 9
Rubber Tyres and Tubes	102 5	288 4	Raw Wool	488 7	367 1
Metals and Metal Manufactures	184 5	173 8	Other Goods	467 5	622 4
Other Goods	2 428 1	2 744 1			

* Commercial imports only

PRINCIPAL TRADING PARTNERS

COUNTRY	IMPORTS*			EXPORTS		
	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68
Czechoslovakia	281 4	216 3	60 0	82 7	152 1	170 6
German Federal Republic	267 3	332 6	357 1	396 7	276 7	45 1
India	358 3	506 7	478 1	349 8	636 2	816 4
Japan	572 4	715 0	803 0	—	6 4	—
Pakistan	286 5	340 8	236 6	693 0	400 1	416 3
U S S R	1 303 9	1 684 3	1 311 8	1 258 7	1 608 1	1 687 8
United Kingdom	209 0	164 8	271 1	882 2	702 3	805 2
U S A.	268 6	304 6	564 5	788 1	407 6	420 2

* All classes

TRANSPORT

CIVIL AIR TRAFFIC (1966)

	FLIGHTS	PASSENGERS	FREIGHT (kg)
National	1 591	52 239	196 187
International	1 903	42 019	2 515 260

ROADS

Number of motor vehicles in Kabul

	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68
Lorries	14 287	15 308	15 478
Buses	2 009	2 238	2 295
Motor Cars	18 747	27 556	29 152

COMMUNICATIONS MEDIA

	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68
Telephones in use			
Official	3 094	3 329	3 322
Others	6 161	6 537	6 244
Radios imported	40 807	45 778	26 825

EDUCATION

	SCHOOLS	PUPILS	STAFF
1965-66	2 085	403 852	8 525
1966-67	2 298	443 450	9 824
1967-68	2 581	497 879	11 640

Source: Department of Statistics Ministry of Planning Kabul

THE CONSTITUTION

A new Constitution was published in 1964, of which the following are the chief provisions:

Chapter I. The State

Afghanistan is a constitutional monarchy. The State religion is Islam. Religious freedom is assured. The State languages are Pashtu and Dari Persian. The flag is a tricolour of black, red and green, with symbolic emblems on the centre stripe. The State capital is Kabul.

Chapter II. The Sovereign

The King must be of Afghan nationality, and a Muslim of the Hanafi sect. He has the following rights and duties:

- Supreme command of the armed forces,
- Power to declare war and peace,
- Power to inaugurate sessions of Parliament,
- Power to inaugurate and terminate extraordinary sessions of Parliament,
- Power to dissolve Parliament and to call for fresh elections, which must take place within three months,
- Approval and proclamation of laws,
- Making and dissolution of international agreements,
- Appointment and dismissal of the Prime Minister, and of Ministers on the recommendation of the Prime Minister,
- Appointment of Elders, and of the President of the House of Elders with the approval of the House,
- Appointment of judges and heads of diplomatic missions,
- Proclamation and annulment of national emergency,
- Granting of amnesty.

Coin is minted, and the Khutba is read, in the name of the King. Royal expenditure is fixed in the State Budget.

The abdication of the King shall be subject to acceptance by the Loya Jirgah. Tenancy of the throne on the death of the King shall pass to his son, or failing that to his brother. If the King has no brother the Senate shall elect a successor from among male members of the Royal House. Members of the Royal House cannot be members of a political party and may not become Prime Minister, Members of Parliament or members of the Supreme Court.

Chapter III. The People

The people have equal rights and obligations before the law. No person may be punished except under a law already in effect. No Afghan may be deported or extradited. Residence and property are inviolable. Foreign nationals may not own immovable property in Afghanistan. Privacy of communication and freedom of thought and expression are guaranteed. Rights of assembly and to form political parties are assured. Education is a right and shall be provided free.

Chapter IV. Parliament

Parliament shall consist of two Houses, the House of Elders and the House of the People. Members of the House of the People are elected by universal secret ballot for four years. Of the members of the House of Elders, one-third are appointed by the King for five years, one-third are elected by the Provincial Councils for three years, and one-third elected by the residents of each Province for five years.

Members of the House of the People must be literate Afghan citizens of 25 years of age or more. They shall be protected from legal action while carrying out their duties. Members of the Government may attend sessions of either House. Debates are open, unless secrecy is requested by

the Head of the Government, the President of the House, or by ten or more members of the House. Decisions are by simple majority.

The following are among the powers of Parliament:

- Ratification of treaties,
- Despatch of armed forces,
- Introduction of bills,
- Approval of the Budget.

Chapter V. The Loya Jirgah

The Loya Jirgah shall consist of all Members of Parliament, and the Chairmen of Provincial Councils. The President of the House of the People shall preside over its sessions.

Chapter VI. Executive Government

Government consists of a Prime Minister and a cabinet of Ministers. The Prime Minister is appointed by the King. Ministers are presented to the House of the People by the Prime Minister for approval, before being appointed by the King.

The Government shall fall in the event of: resignation or death of the Prime Minister; a vote of no confidence in the Government in the House of the People; a charge of high treason against the Prime Minister or the Government; the dissolution of Parliament, or the end of the legislative term.

The Prime Minister and Ministers are collectively responsible to the House of the People.

Chapter VII. The Judiciary

The judiciary is an independent organ of the State, consisting of a Supreme Court and other courts established by law. Judges are appointed by the King on the recommendation of the Chief Justice. Execution of the death sentence is alone subject to the approval of the King. All other sentences are mandatory.

Chapter VIII. The Administration

Each Province shall have its own Council elected by direct and universal secret ballot; so shall each Municipality.

Chapter IX. State of Emergency

The King may under certain circumstances announce a State of Emergency. However, for a period of more than three months, the concurrence of the Loya Jirgah is required. Should the Parliamentary term end during this time the Loya Jirgah shall be suspended and new elections shall be held immediately following the removal of the State of Emergency. During a State of Emergency the Constitution may not be amended.

Chapter X. Amendment of the Constitution

The Constitution may not be amended so as to affect Islamic principles or the supremacy of the idea of constitutional monarchy. Proposed amendments shall be discussed in the Loya Jirgah and if accepted by majority vote, there shall be fresh elections, after which the amendment shall become law on a second vote of the Loya Jirgah.

Chapter XI. Transitional Provisions

Following signing of the Constitution there shall be general elections for a new Parliament. The Supreme Court shall be inaugurated one year later.

THE GOVERNMENT

HEAD OF STATE

His Majesty MOHAMMED ZAHIR SHAH, succeeded to the throne on the assassination of his father,
King Mohammed Nadir Shah 8 November 1933

THE CABINET*

(March 1971)

Prime Minister and Minister of Foreign Affairs: NOUR
AHMAD ETEMADI
First Deputy Prime Minister: ABDULLAH YAFTALI
Second Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Education:
Dr ABDUL QAYUM
Minister of National Defence: Gen. KHAN MOHAMMAD
Minister of the Interior: MOHAMMAD BASHEER LODIN
Minister of Justice: ABDUL SATAR SEERAT
Minister of Planning: Dr ABDUL WAHID SORABI
Minister of Finance: Dr MOHAMMAD AMAN

Minister of Commerce: Dr MOHAMMAD AKBAR OMAR
Minister of Public Works: MOHAMMAD YAQUB LALI
Minister of Information and Culture: (vacant)
Minister of Communications: MOHAMMAD AZEEM GERAN
Minister of Public Health: EBRAHIM MAJID SERAJ
Minister of Mines and Industries: AMANULLAH MANSOURI
Minister of Agriculture and Irrigation: ABDUL HAKIM
Ministers without Portfolio: Mrs SHAFIQA ZIAYEE, GULAM
ALI AEN
President, Department of Tribal Affairs: SAYED MASOUD
POHANYAR

* At the time of going to press this was being reconstituted (see Late Information section)

DIPLOMATIC REPRESENTATION

REPRESENTATIVES OF AFGHANISTAN ABROAD

(A) Ambassador, (M) Minister (Perm Rep) Permanent Representative

Argentina: (see U.S.A.)
Austria: (see France)
Belgium: (see France)
Bulgaria: (see Yugoslavia)
Burma: (see India)
Ceylon: (see Pakistan)
China, People's Republic: MOHAMMAD OSMAN SIDDI
Peking (A) (also accredited to Mongolia)
Czechoslovakia: ABDUL RAZAK ZIAI Prague (A)
Denmark: (see German Federal Republic)
Finland: (see U.S.S.R.)
France: ZALMAI MAHMUD-GHAZI, Paris (A) (also accredited
to Austria and Belgium)
Germany, Federal Republic: Dr MOHAMMAD YUSOV, Bonn
(A) (also accredited to Denmark, Sweden and Switzerland)
Ghana: (see U.A.R.)
Greece: (see Italy)
India: Dr ABDUL HAKIM TABIBI Delhi (A) (also accredited
to Burma)
Indonesia: GHULAM HASSAN SAIFI Djakarta (A)
Iran: SARDAR ASSADULLAH SERAJ, Teheran (A)
Iraq: CHALILULLAH CHALILI Baghdad (also accredited to
Jordan)
Italy: Dr ABDUL ZAHIR Rome (A) (also accredited to Greece
and Spain)
Japan: SAID KASSIM RESHTIA Tokyo (A)
Jordan: (see Saudi Arabia)
Lebanon: NAIM YUNUSI Beirut (M)
Mexico: (see U.S.A.)
Mongolia: (see China P.R.)
Netherlands: (see United Kingdom)
Norway: (see United Kingdom)
Pakistan: ALI AHMAD POPAL Karachi (A) (also accredited to
Ceylon and Thailand)
Poland: MOHAMMAD AMIN ETEMADI Warsaw (A)
Romania: (see U.S.S.R.)
Saudi Arabia: S. TAJUDDIN Jeddah (A) (also accredited to
Jordan)
Spain: (see Italy)
Sweden: (see German Federal Republic)
Switzerland: (see German Federal Republic)
Thailand: (see Pakistan)
Turkey: GHOLAM MOHAMMAD SULEIMAN Ankara (A)
U.S.S.R.: MOHAMMAD AREF, Moscow (A) (also accredited to
Finland and Romania)
U.A.R.: MOHAMMAD MUSSA SHAFIK, Cairo (A)
United Kingdom: (vacant) London (A) (also accredited to
Netherlands and Norway)
U.S.A.: ABDULLAH MALIKYAR, Washington (A) (also
accredited to Argentina and Mexico)
Yugoslavia: NASIR ZIA, Belgrade (A) (also accredited to
Bulgaria)

United Nations: ABDUL RAHMAN FAZHWAK, New York
(Perm Rep)

EMBASSIES AND LEGATIONS ACCREDITED TO AFGHANISTAN

(Kabul unless otherwise stated.)

(E) Embassy; (L) Legation.

Argentina: Teheran, Iran (E).
Australia: Rawalpindi, Pakistan (E).
Austria: Zarghouna Wat (L); *Minister:* Dr. FRANZ HERBATSCHKE.
Belgium: New Delhi, India (L).
Brazil: New Delhi, India (L).
Bulgaria: Shar Nau (E); *Ambassador:* VULKO GOCHREV.
Burma: New Delhi, India (E).
Canada: Rawalpindi, Pakistan (E).
Ceylon: New Delhi, India (E).
China, People's Republic: Sardar Shah Mahmoud Ghazi Wat (E); *Ambassador:* CHEN FENG.
Czechoslovakia: Sardar Shah Mahmoud Ghazi Wat (E); *Ambassador:* ZDENEK EIBEL.
Denmark: Teheran, Iran (E).
Finland: Ankara, Turkey (E).
France: Ansari Maidan (E); *Ambassador:* EUGÈNE WERNERTI.
German Federal Republic: Sher Ali Khan Wat (E); *Ambassador:* BREUER.
Ghana: New Delhi, India (E).
Greece: New Delhi, India (E).
Hungary: Baghdad, Iraq (E).
India: Malalai Wat (E); *Ambassador:* K. L. MEHTA.
Indonesia: Ansari Wat (E); *Ambassador:* SOEBAGIO SOERJANINGRAT.
Iran: Sher Ali Khan Wat (E); *Ambassador:* MAHMOUD FEROUGH.
Iraq: Karte-4 (E); *Chargé d'Affaires:* JALAL JAF.
Italy: Khadja Abdullah Ansari Wat (E); *Ambassador:* Dr. CARLO CIMINO.
Japan: Nawai Wat (E); *Ambassador:* HIDEKI MASAKI.
Jordan: Teheran, Iran (E).

Lebanon: Teheran, Iran (E).
Mexico: New Delhi, India (E).
Mongolia: New Delhi, India (E).
Nepal: New Delhi, India (E).
Netherlands: New Delhi, India (E).
Norway: Teheran, Iran (E).
Pakistan: Zarghouna Wat (E); *Ambassador:* Maj.-Gen. MOHAMMAD SHERIN KHAN.
Philippines: Karachi, Pakistan (E).
Poland: Sardar Shah Mahmoud (E); *Ambassador:* JAN PETRUS.
Romania: Teheran, Iran (E).
Saudi Arabia: Zarghouna Wat (E); *Ambassador:* HAMOUD AL-FAAD AL-ZAID.
Spain: Baghdad, Iraq (L).
Sudan: Karachi, Pakistan (L).
Sweden: Teheran, Iran (E).
Switzerland: Teheran, Iran (E).
Syria: (address not available) (E).
Thailand: New Delhi, India (L).
Turkey: Sardar Shah Mamoud Ghazi Wat (E); *Ambassador:* CEMIL VAFI.
United Arab Republic: Sardar Mohammad Hashim Khan Wat (E); *Ambassador:* SALAH-EL-DIN KANSOH.
United Kingdom: Parwan Mina (E); *Ambassador:* P. L. CARTER.
U.S.A.: Sher Ali Khan Wat (E); *Ambassador:* JOHN M. STEEVES.
U.S.S.R.: Dar-ul-Aman Wat (E); *Ambassador:* KONSTANTIN I. ALEXANDROV.
Yugoslavia: Malekyar Wat (E); *Ambassador:* IVAN MIROSEVIC.

PARLIAMENT*

HOUSE OF ELDERS

(MAJLIS-I-A'YAN)

President: ABDUL HADI DAWI.

84 members appointed by H.M. the King for life.

*See also *Constitution* above.

HOUSE OF THE PEOPLE

(SHURA-I-MILLI)

President: Dr. ABDUL ZAHER.

215 Members elected every four years.

Elections under the new Constitution took place in October 1965 and from August 29th to September 11th, 1969.

POLITICAL PARTIES

Voting at the 1965 elections was by personal choice of candidate. A Statute, under which political parties are to be established, has been passed by both Houses of Parliament (March 1969), but no officially authorized parties had been formed by early 1971.

JUDICIAL SYSTEM

The judicial system of Afghanistan provides for courts dealing with both civil and religious law. There is no jury in the Western sense, but two lawyers may be called in as impartial advisers.

Supreme Court. Chief Justice: Dr. ABDUL HAKIM ZYAE.

Courts of Appeal. There are seven Courts of Appeal.

High Court. The High Court is attached to the Ministry of Justice in Kabul.

Provincial Courts. These are held in the provincial capitals. Persons convicted in these courts may appeal to the High Court.

District Courts. Courts of First Instance. There is one court in each small district. Appeal is permitted to the Provincial Courts.

RELIGION

The official religion of Afghanistan is Islam. The great majority (85 per cent) are Muslims of the Sunni (Hanafi) sect, and the remainder belong to the Shi'a sect.

THE PRESS

DAILIES

- Anis (Friendship)** Kabul f 1927 evening Independent news and literary articles Persian and Pashtu circ 25 000 Editor in Ch ef M SHAFI RANGOZER Editor ABDUL HAMID MUBARIZ
- Haywad** Kabul f 1949 Pashtu Editor MIR SAID BARI MAN circ 5 000
- Islah (Reform)** Kabul f 1929 morning Independent but co-operating with the Government Persian and Pashtu circ 25 000 Chief Editor HABIBURRAHMAN JADEER
- Kabul Times** Kabul f 1962 English Editor in Ch ef S KHALIL Editor S RAHEL
- Badakshan** Faizabad f 1945 Persian and Pashtu
- Bedar** Mazar i Sharif f 1920 Persian and Pashtu
- Daiwan** Shiberghan
- Ett faql Islam** Herat f 1920 Persian and Pashtu
- Ettahadi Baghlian** Baghlian f 1921 Persian and Pashtu
- Hajmand** Bost f 1953 Pashtu
- Wangrahar** Jalalabad f 1918 Persian and Pashtu
- Selistan** Farah f 1947
- Tulof Afghan** Kandahar f 1924
- Wolanga** Gardiz f 1941 Pashtu

PERIODICALS

- Adab** Kabul f 1953 organ of the Faculty of Literature Univ of Kabul
- Alghan Journal of Public Health** Institute of Public Health Ansari Wat Kabul bi monthly Editor A. SATAR AHMADI MD
- Alghan Millet** Kabul f 1966 Editor QUDRATULLAH HADDAD
- Alghan Tebbi Mojalla** Faculty of Medicine Kabul University monthly
- Alghanistan** Kabul f 1946 quarterly English and French historical and cultural Historical and Literary Society of the Afghanistan Academy Kabul
- Akhbare Erfani** Ministry of Education Kabul f 1952 fortnightly
- Aryana** Kabul monthly Persian cultural and historical produced by the Historical and Literary Soc of the Afghanistan Academy Editor MOHAMMED ANWAR NAYYER
- Badany Rouzana** Department of Physical Education Kabul University quarterly

- Eqtesad** National Chamber of Commerce Kabul monthly
- Hawa** Afghan Air Authority Kabul f 1957
- Irfan** Ministry of Education Kabul f 1923 monthly Persian
- Kabul Pashtu Tolana** Kabul f 1931 bi monthly Pashtu literature history social sciences Editor ROHILI
- Kabul Pohantoon** Kabul University monthly
- Kandaw Sanaye O** Kabul f 1956 produced by the Ministry of Mines and Industry
- Karhana** Kabul f 1955 monthly produced by the Ministry of Agriculture circ 2 500 Editor M Y AINA
- Kochemiano Zhaqh** Ministry of Education Kabul f 1957 monthly
- Mairmen** Kabul f 1955 Persian and Pashtu produced by the Women's Welfare Association
- Mokhaberet** Ministry of Communications Kabul f 1957 monthly
- Pamir** Kabul f 1951 organ of the Municipality fortnightly
- Pashtun Zhaqh** Ansari Wat Kabul f 1940 programmes of broadcasts issued by Kabul Radio bi monthly
- Payame Haq** Ministry of Information Kabul f 1953 monthly
- Payame Wejdan** Kabul f 1956 weekly Editor ABDUL RAUF TURKMAN
- Sera Miasht** Red Crescent Society Kabul f 1958
- Talim wa Tarbia** Kabul f 1954 monthly published by Institute of Education
- Urdu** Kabul f 1922 monthly military journal issued by the Ministry of National Defence
- Zhwandoon** Kabul Persian illustrated circ 10 000 Editor MOHAMMED BASHIR RAFIQ
- Zeru** Pashtu Tolana Kabul f 1949 weekly

NEWS AGENCIES

- Bakhtar News Agency** Kabul f 1939 Dir A H MUBARIZ

The following Foreign Agencies are represented in Kabul Agency France-Presse (AFP) Deutsche Presse-Agentur (DPA) and Tass

PRESS ASSOCIATION

- Journalists' Association** c/o Department of Press and Information Sanan Wat Kabul

PUBLISHERS

- Book Publishing Institute** Kabul f 1966 by co-operation of the Government Press Bakhtar News Agency and leading newspapers
- Department of Educational Publications** Ministry of Education Kabul publishes text books for primary and secondary schools including Pashtu readers also two monthly magazines one in Pashtu and the other in Persian
- Institute of Geography** Faculty of Letters Kabul University publishes geographical and related works

RADIO

Radio Afghanistan: Ansari Wat, Kabul; Pres. Dr. A. L. JALALI, Prog. Chief G. H. KUSHAN; the Afghan Broadcasting station is under the supervision of the Ministry of Information and Culture; Home service in Dari and Pashtu; Foreign service in Urdu, English, Russian, German, Dari and Pashtu; 700,000 radio receivers.

There is no television.

FINANCE

(cap. = capital; p.u. = paid up; m. = million; Af. = Afghani.)

BANKING

CENTRAL BANK

Afghanistan Bank (Da): Jadeh Ibne Sina Wat, Kabul; f. 1939; the central bank; main functions: banknote issue, foreign exchange control and operations, credit extensions to banks and leading enterprises and companies, government and private depository, government fiscal agency; 55 local branches; cap. Af. 500m., dep. 4,200m.; Gov. HABIBULLAH MALI ACHACZAI; First Deputy Gov. SALLAHUDDIN TARZI; Second Deputy Gov. MAHMOOD; Sec. ABDULLAH HABASHZADAH.

Overseas Corporations:

The Trading Company of Afghanistan Inc. 122 West Thirtieth, New York, U.S.A.

The Trading Company of Afghanistan Ltd.; Friars House, New Broad St., London, E.C.2, England.

Pashtany Tejaraty Bank (Afghan Commercial Bank): Mohammad Jan Khan Watt, Kabul; f. 1954 to provide long- and short-term credits, forwarding facilities, opening letters of credit, purchase and sale of foreign exchange, transfer of capital, issuing travellers' cheques; cap. p.u. Af. 250m.; Pres. JANNAT KHAN GHARWAL; Vice-Pres. A. R. VALL; brs. in Afghanistan and abroad.

Agricultural and Cottage Industry Bank: Kabul; f. 1955 to provide credit facilities to peasant farmers and those

engaged in home industries; cap. Af. 85,573,000 (provided by the central bank); Pres. A. AFZAL.

Banke Millie Afghan (Afghan National Bank): Head Office: Jada Ibn Sina, Kabul; f. 1932; brs. throughout Afghanistan and in Pakistan; London Office: (as Afghan National Bank Ltd.) 22 Finsbury Square, E.C.2; offices in New York and Hamburg; cap. Af. 500m.; dep. 761m. (March 1968); Pres. A. GHANI GHAUSSY.

Construction and Mortgage Bank: Kabul; f. 1955 to provide building loans and short-term commercial credits; cap. Af. 60m.; Pres. Dr. AMAN.

It is proposed to establish an Industrial Development Bank. There are no foreign banks operating in Afghanistan.

INSURANCE

There is one national insurance company:

Afghan Insurance Co.: P.O.B. 329, 26, Mohd Jan Khan Wat, Kabul; f. March 1964; marine, aviation, fire, motor and accident insurance; cap. p.u. Af. 15m.; Pres. ABDUL RASHID; Gen. Man. N. H. SIMONDS.

Three foreign insurance companies are operating in the country: *Ingosstrakh* (Russian National Company) and the *Commercial Union Group* (Head Office: 24 Cornhill, London, E.C.3, England) are represented by agents; *Sterling General Insurance Co. Ltd.* (Head Office: Scindia House, P.O.B. 12, New Delhi 1, India) maintains a branch office.

TRADE AND INDUSTRY

CHAMBER OF COMMERCE

Afghan Chamber of Commerce: Darul Aman Watt, Kabul; Pres. A. GHAFUOR SERAJ.

TRADING CORPORATIONS

Cotton Export Corporation: Kabul; formed to facilitate cotton production, improve methods of cultivation, install modern ginning and pressing plants, and export cotton.

Kandahar Woollen Factory: Kandahar; formed for the export of wool.

Livestock Improvement Organization: Kabul; f. 1952; formed to improve the quality of Karakul, campaign against animal diseases and to fix buying prices in the interests of producers.

Pashtoon Co. Ltd.: f. 1934 for the export of fresh, dry and

canned fruit; 64 mems.; Mans. A. MOOSA, A. ISA, M. D. MOOSA.

Textile Company: Kabul; cotton manufacturing company.
Herat Pistachio Company: Herat; formed for the export of pistachio nuts.

Balkh Union: export and import agency handling exports of wool, hides and karakul.

Wool Company: deals with wool exports.

Carpet Export Company: Kabul.

State Co-operative Depot: Kabul; deals with export and imports of all commodities.

Government Officials' Co-operative: Kabul; export and import company.

TRADE UNIONS

There are no trade unions in Afghanistan.

TRANSPORT AND TOURISM

RAILWAYS

There are no railways in Afghanistan

ROADS

Ministry of Communication: Kabul, there are about 6700 km of all weather tarmac and gravel roads. A modern highway from Kandahar to Kabul was completed in 1968, and the Salang road tunnel beneath the Hindu Kush opened in 1964. Road development continues with the aid of Soviet and American loans.

Afghan Motor Service and Parts Co.: Zendaabanon Work shops P O B 86 Kabul, passenger services in Kabul long distance freight and passenger services from Kabul to most parts of the country, trucking services in all towns. Pres HAZIZULLAH RAHIMI Vice Pres KHAJIR MOHAMMAD

INLAND WATERWAYS

A river port on the Oxus has been built at Qizil Qala, linked by road to Kabul

CIVIL AVIATION

There are modern international terminals at Kandahar and Kabul

NATIONAL AIRLINE

Ariana Afghan Airlines Co. Ltd.: P O B 76 Kabul f 1955 internal services between Kabul Kandahar international services to London Paris Amsterdam Frankfurt Istanbul Beirut Teheran New Delhi

Lahore Amritsar, Tashkent Moscow and Peshawar Pres H R H Sardar Sultan MAHMOUD GHAFI Exec Vice-Pres CHARLES H BENNETT, Comptroller S G HAZRAT Dir of Operations AZIZ A MALIKYAR, Sec Commercial Dir A R SADOZAI

The following airlines also operate services to Afghanistan Aeroflot, I A C, Iran Air, Pakistan International Airways, T M A (cargo)

K L M Lufthansa and Pan American are also represented in Kabul

Bakhtar Afghan Airlines: Afghan Air Authority Bldg P O B 3058 Kabul operates domestic services between Kabul Herat Maimana Talugan Qilainau Bamyan Mazar and other centres fleet of Otter aircraft Dir A ARAKOZI

TOURISM

Afghan Tourist Organization: Mohammed Jan Khan Wat, Kabul, f 1958 Pres A W TARZI, Vice Pres R A SULTANI

ATOMIC ENERGY

Atomic Energy Commission: Faculty of Science, Kabul University, Kabul, Pres of Commission and Dean of Faculty Dr A G KARKAR

Under an agreement signed in September 1963 the U S S R is to provide Afghanistan with a nuclear reactor.

EDUCATION

The traditional system of education in Afghanistan is religious instruction by mullahs in the mosques, leading to higher religious education in the Ulema schools. These centres are still active but a modern educational system has been built up over the past sixty five years.

The first modern school Habibia, opened in Kabul in 1912. A Lycee and a Commercial College also opened in the next few years. After the revolution of 1929 the modernizing movement gained fresh impetus the government encouraged and assisted this process, accepting financial responsibility for all students who could gain places in the school system. The first school for girls opened in Kabul in 1933, and in the same year Kabul University was established with the inauguration of the Faculty of Medicine.

Under the Rule of King Mohammed Zahir Shah a large number of primary, middle and secondary schools have been opened all over the country. The University of Kabul has expanded steadily. In 1939 the Faculty of Law and Diplomacy was added, the Faculty of Science was opened in 1942 the Faculty of Letters in 1944 the Faculty of Theology in 1951 the Faculty of Engineering and Agriculture in 1957, of Economics in 1957 of Pharmacy in 1958. In 1963 a second university was established in Jalalabad, Nangarhar Province, again the nucleus was provided by a Medical Faculty.

The new constitution of 1964 proclaimed compulsory free education for the whole country, and guaranteed the

provision of educational facilities. It is now obligatory for every town with a population over 3 000 to provide a primary school. In 1969 72 new high schools were opened bringing the total to over 100.

The total number of students in 1966-67 was well over 600 000 including 452 000 in primary and secondary schools. The Ministry of Education is active in securing educational scholarships abroad for Afghan students. The Ministry plans to provide basic educational facilities for 50 per cent of the population by 1980 and country wide educational facilities in the following 25 years. Teacher training is undertaken directly or indirectly by a number of institutions. Adult education plays an important part in the government's programmes. Progress is also being made in women's education, and girls' schools are now found in all the major cities of Afghanistan. Effective measures are also being taken to educate the children of nomads. In addition to providing free teaching facilities, textbooks and materials are also provided free of charge by the government.

LEARNED SOCIETIES

AND RESEARCH INSTITUTES

Pakhtu-Tolana (Afghan Academy): Sher Ali Khan Street, Kabul f 1931, the objects of the society are to study the Pashtu language and literature and to popularize it throughout Afghanistan, Pres POHARD RSHTENE, publs *Kabul* (monthly) and *Zery* (weekly)

AFGHANISTAN—(LEARNED SOCIETIES, LIBRARIES, MUSEUMS, UNIVERSITIES, ETC.)

Members of the Academy:

HAKIM, HELALI ABDUL	SABIT, MOHAMMED IBRAHIM
KAKAR, M. YOUSUF	SADAKAT, ABDUL WAKIL
KAKER, MOHAMMED HASSAN	SA'DUDDIN, SHPOON
LODIN, DAWLAT MOHAMMED	SAIFI, AZIZURRAHMAN
MO'TAMED, M. AKBAR	TAZHAI, HABIBULLAH
PAKHUN MAL, AZIZULLAH	UTMAN, MOHAMMED ALIM
PATWAL, M. MOMEN	WASE'I, ABDUL KHALIQ
PAWLAD, SAIDAL SHAH	ZADRAN, M. ZAHIR
RESHAD, ABDUSHUKOUR	ZHWAK, MOHAMMED DIN
ROHI, M. SIDIQ	

Honorary Members of the Academy:

BENAWA, ABDURRAOUF	MAIWANDWAL, MOHAMMED
DAWI, ABDUL HADI	HASHIM
GRAN, ANWARUL HAQ	MAJROOH, SAYYED BAHAU'DDIN
ILHAM, M. RAHEEM	MAJROOH, SAYYED SHAMSUDDIN
JALALI, GHULAM JELANI	PAZHWAQ, ABDURRAHMAN
KAKAKHEL, MOHAMMED	SALIMI, MOHAMMED ARSALAN
SHAH KHYAL	SHAFEEQ, M. MOSA
KHOGYANAI, MOHAMMED	TARAKI, MOHAMMED KADEER
AMIN	

Honorary Foreign Members:

Prof. G. MORGENSTIERNE	Prof. DOVRIANKOV (U.S.S.R.)
(Norway)	

Tarikh Tolana (Historical Society): Kabul; f. 1940; objects of the society are to study and promote international knowledge of the history of Afghanistan; Pres. Prof. ABDUL HAI HABIBI; publs. *Aryana* (bi-monthly in Pashtu and Dari) and *Afghanistan* (English and French quarterly).

Members:

G. MUSTAFA MANDAZAI	MAIL-E-HERAWI
Dr. H. SAHAR	Miss FAHIMA AYUBI
MOHAMMED KAZEM AHANG	

American Center: Shahr-iNau, Kabul; f. 1950 and operated by U.S. Information Service; organizes film shows, art exhibitions, lectures, concerts, etc., and provides English-language courses; library of 7,000 vols., 100 periodical subscriptions (with emphasis on American subjects); Dir. C. EDWARD BERNIER.

Asia Foundation: P.O.B. 257, Kabul.

British Council: P.O.B. 453, 352 Zarghuna Maidan, Kabul; f. 1965; library of 8,000 vols.; Representative K. L. PEARSON.

Cercle Culturel Français: Shahr-iNau, Kabul.

Department of Mines and Geology: Ministry of Mines and Industries, Kabul; f. 1918; geological and mineralogical research and exploitation; library of 5,000 vols.; Pres. S. H. MIRZAD; Gen. Dir. of Mines A. A. AKEFIE; Gen. Dir. of Geology A. S. SALAH; publ. *Bulletin of Geology of Afghanistan*.

Goethe Institut: P.O.B. 191, Kabul; f. 1962; Dir. ERNST SCHÜRMANN.

Institute of Cartography: Ministry of Mines and Industries; Kabul; Pres. Eng. MUZAFFARUD DIN YAQUBI.

Institute of Public Health: Ansari Wat, Kabul; f. 1962, Functions: public health training and research; Government reference laboratory; study of indigenous diseases; compilation and publication of statistical data and analysis; Dir. Dr. S. M. SADIQUE; publs. fortnightly newspaper, *Afghan Journal of Public Health* (bi-monthly), books and pamphlets.

LIBRARIES

Institute of Education Library: Kabul University, Kabul; Dir. MOHAMMED ALI DASTAGIRZADA.

Library of the Habibia High School: Kabul.

Library of the National Bank: Kabul.

Library of the Press Department: Kabul; f. 1931; 28,000 vols. and 800 MSS. in Persian, Arabic and Pashtu languages; Dir. MOHAMMED SARWAR RONA.

Library of the Royal Palace: Kabul.

Public Library: Kabul; attached to the Ministry of Education; f. 1920, greatly enlarged 1966; 60,000 vols., 433 MSS., 30 current periodicals; research library.

University Library: Kabul; Librarian ABDUL AFU BABURY.

Women's Welfare Society Library: Kabul.

Provincial Libraries have been opened in Gardez, Ghazni, Khulm, Mazar-i-Sharif and Mir Bacha Kot by the Ministry of Information Library Dept.

MUSEUMS

Bamyan Museum: Bamyan.

Ghazni Museum: Ghazni.

Herat Museum: Herat.

Kabul Museum: Kabul; . 1922; contains archaeological collections of the prehistoric, Greco-Roman, Buddhist and Islamic periods; coin collections; ethnographical collections; Dir. A. A. MOTAMEDI.

Kandahar Museum: Kandahar.

Maimana Museum: Maimana.

Mazar-i-Sharif Museum: Mazar-i-Sharif.

UNIVERSITIES

KABUL UNIVERSITY

(Kabul Pohantoon)

KABUL

Founded 1931.

President: SAID ABDUL KADAR BABA, M.D.

Vice-President for Administration: Dr. S. M. ALEKOZAI.

Number of teachers: 879.

Number of students: 6,770.

UNIVERSITY OF NANGRAHAR

(Nangrahar Pohantoon)

JELAL ABAD

Founded 1963.

Chancellor: S. A. KADER BABA, M.D.

Dean: MIR S. ANSARY.

Number of teachers: 61.

Number of students: 410.

COLLEGES

Afghan Institute of Technology: Kabul; f. 1951; secondary level technical school; Departments of Aviation, Automotive-Diesel, Machine Tools, Building Construction, Civil and Electrical-Electronics Technology; 450 students; 50 staff members; 6,000-vol. library; Dir. GHULAM SAKHI, Assistant Dir. MUHAMMAD HASSAN MUTI.

Darul Mo' Allemein (D.M.A.) (Teachers' Training College): Kabul; f. 1913; number of students 3,000.

AFGHANISTAN—(COLLEGES)

Institute of Arabic and Religious Study: Kabul

Other centres include the Najmul Madares, Nangarhar, the Jamé and Ikhrol Madares, Herat, the Asadia Madrasa, Maris-i-Sharif, the Takharistan Madrasa, Kunduz, the Zahir Shahi Madrasa, Maimana.

Institute of Industrial Administration: Kabul, open to graduates of the *School of Commerce*.

Kabul Art School: Dild Mahro, nr. Kabul, music, painting and sculpture courses.

Polytechnic Institute: Sino Rd., Spweenkile, Kabul, f. 1967, technical education in communications, industry, urban construction, mining, civil engineering.

School of Agriculture: Kabul, f. 1934.

School of Commerce: Kabul, f. 1943, banking, commercial law, economics, business administration, finance.

School of Mechanics: Kabul, for apprentice trainees.

Teachers' Training Schools: Kandahar, f. 1936, Jalalabad, f. 1936, Herat, f. 1937, Khost.

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Algeria

PHYSICAL AND SOCIAL GEOGRAPHY

Algeria is the largest of the three countries in north west Africa that comprise the Maghreb, as the region of mountains, valleys and plateaux that lies between the sea and the Sahara desert is known. It is situated between Morocco and Tunisia, with a Mediterranean coastline of nearly 600 miles and a total area of some 900,000 sq. miles, over four fifths of which lies south of the Maghreb proper and within the western Sahara. Its extent, both from north to south and west to east, exceeds 1,200 miles. The Arabic name for the country, *al Jazair* (the Islands), is said to derive from the rocky islands along the coastline, which have always constituted a danger to ships approaching the harbours.

In the 1966 census the population was 12,101,994 and the overall density was 13.4 per sq. mile. However, a vast majority of the inhabitants live in the northern part of the country, particularly along the Mediterranean coast where both the capital, Algiers (population 943,000), and the second largest town, Oran (population 324,000), are located. The population is almost wholly Muslim, of whom a majority speak Arabic and the remainder Berber. The language of the original inhabitants of the Maghreb. Most educated Algerians, however, speak French. Nearly all the European settlers, who numbered about 1 million in 1960, have left the country since it attained its independence from France in 1962.

The primary contrast in the physical geography of Algeria is between the mountainous, relatively humid terrain of the north, which forms part of the Atlas mountain system, and the vast expanse of lower, flatter, desert to the south, which is part of the Saharan tableland. The Atlas Mountains trend from south west to north-east across the whole of the Maghreb. Structurally they resemble the "Alpine" mountain chains of Europe north of the Mediterranean and like them, they came into existence during the geologically recent Tertiary era. They are still unstable and liable to severe earthquakes such as that which partially destroyed the town of Orleansville in 1954. They consist of rocks, now uplifted, folded and fractured that once accumulated as submarine deposits beneath an ancestral Mediterranean sea. Limestones and sandstones are particularly extensive and they often present a barren appearance in areas where a cover of soil and vegetation is only thin or absent altogether.

In Algeria the Atlas mountain system is made up of three broad zones running parallel to the coast. The Tell Atlas, the High Plateaux and the Saharan Atlas. In the north and separated from the Mediterranean by only a narrow and discontinuous coastal plain is the complex series of mountains and valleys that comprise the Tell Atlas. Here individual ranges, plateaux and massifs vary in height from about 1,500 to 7,500 feet and are frequently separated from one another by deep valleys and gorges which divide the country into self contained topographic and economic units. Most distinctive of these are the massifs of the Great and Little Kabylie between Algiers and the Tunisian frontier, which have acted as mountain retreats where Berber ways of village life persist.

South of the Tell Atlas lies a zone of featureless plains known as the High Plateaux of the Shotts. To the west, near the Moroccan frontier they form a broad monotonous expanse of level terrain about 100 miles across and over 3,500 feet high. They gradually narrow and fall in height eastward and end in the Hodna basin, a huge enclosed depression the bottom of which is only 1,375 feet above

sea level. The surface of the plateaux consists of alluvial debris derived from erosion of the mountains to north and south and only here and there do minor ridges project through the thick mantle of alluvium to break the monotony of the level horizons. The plateaux owe their name to the presence of several vast basins of internal drainage, known as shotts, the largest of which is the Hodna basin. During rainy periods water accumulates in the shotts to form extensive shallow lakes which give way, as the water is absorbed and evaporated to saline mud flats and swamps.

The southern margin of the High Plateaux is marked by a series of mountain chains and massifs that form the Saharan Atlas. They are more broken than the Tell Atlas and present no serious barrier to communications between the High Plateaux and the Sahara. From west to east the chief mountain chains are the Ksour, Amour, Ouled Nail, Ziban and Aurès. The latter is the most impressive massif in the whole Algerian Atlas system and includes the highest peak Djebel Chelia, 7,638 feet. The relief of the Aurès is very bold, with narrow gorges cut between sheer cliffs surmounted by steep bare slopes, and to the east and north of the Hodna basin its ridges merge with the southernmost folds of the Tell Atlas. North-eastern Algeria forms therefore, a compact block of high relief in which the two Atlas mountain systems cease to be clearly separated. Within it there are a number of high plains studded with salt flats but their size is insignificant compared with the enormous shotts to the west.

The climate of northernmost Algeria, including the narrow coastal plain and the Tell Atlas southward to the margin of the High Plateaux, is of 'Mediterranean' type with warm wet winters and hot dry summers. Rainfall varies in amount from over 40 inches annually on some coastal mountains exposed to rain bearing winds to less than 5 inches in sheltered lee situations, and most of it occurs during the winter when depressions pass across the western Mediterranean most frequently. Complete drought lasts for three to four months during the summer and at this time too the notorious *surocco* occurs. It is a scorching, dry and dusty south wind blowing from the Sahara and is known locally as the *Chehili*. It blows on 40 or more days a year over the High Plateaux but nearer the coast its frequency is reduced to about 20 days. When it sets in, shade temperatures often rise rapidly to over 100°F and vegetation and crops, unable to withstand the intensity of evaporation, may wither and die within a few hours. As a result of low and uneven rainfall combined with high rates of evaporation the rivers of the Tell tend to be short and to suffer large seasonal variations in flow. Many dry out completely during the summer and are only full for brief periods following heavy winter rains. The longest perennially flowing river is the Oued Chélif which rises in the High Plateaux and crosses the Tell to reach the Mediterranean east of Oran. In October 1969 however, severe flooding affected the Aurès area (and much of Tunisia) the cause being exceptionally heavy rain over a very short period.

Along the northern margin of the High Plateaux, which approximately coincides with the limit of 16 inches mean annual rainfall, "Mediterranean" conditions give way to a semi arid or steppe climate in which summer drought lasts from five to six months and winters are colder and drier. Rainfall is reduced to between 16 and 8 inches annually and tends to occur in spring and autumn rather than in winter. It is moreover very variable from year to year and under these conditions the cultivation of cereal crops

without irrigation becomes quite unreliable. South of the Saharan Atlas annual rainfall decreases to below 8 inches and any regular cultivation without irrigation becomes impossible. There are no permanent rivers south of the Tell Atlas and any surface runoff following rain is carried by temporary watercourses towards local depressions, such as the shotts.

The soils and vegetation of northern Algeria reflect the climatic contrast between the humid Tell and the semi-arid lands farther south, but they have also suffered widely from the destructive effects of over-cultivation, over-grazing and deforestation. In the higher, wetter and more isolated parts of the Tell Atlas relatively thick soils support forests of Aleppo pine, cork oak and evergreen oak, while the lower, drier, and more accessible slopes tend to be bare or covered only with thin soils and a scrub growth of thuya, juniper and various drought-resistant shrubs. Only a few remnants survive of the once extensive forests of Atlas cedar which have been exploited for timber and fuel since classical times. They are found chiefly above 5,000 feet in the eastern Tell Atlas. South of the Tell there is very little woodland except in the higher and wetter parts of the Saharan Atlas. The surface of the High Plateaux is bare or covered only with scattered bushes and clumps of esparto and other coarse grasses.

South of the Saharan Atlas, Algeria extends for over 900 miles into the heart of the desert. Structurally, this huge area consists of a resistant platform of geologically ancient

rocks against which the Atlas Mountains were folded. Over most of the area relief is slight, with occasional plateaux, such as those of Eglab, Tademaït and Tassili-n-Ajjer, rising above vast spreads of gravel such as the Tanezrouft plain and huge sand accumulations such as the Great Western and Eastern Ergs. In the south-east, however, the great massif of Ahaggar rises to a height of 9,850 feet. Here erosion of volcanic and crystalline rocks has produced a lunar landscape of extreme ruggedness. Southward from the Ahaggar the massifs of Adrar des Iforas and Air extend across the Algerian frontier into the neighbouring countries of Mali and Niger.

The climate of Saharan Algeria is characterized by extremes of temperature, wind and aridity. Daily temperature ranges reach 90°F. and maximum shade temperatures of over 130°F. have been recorded. Sometimes very high temperatures are associated with violent dust storms. Mean average rainfall is everywhere less than five inches, and in some of the central parts of the desert it falls below half an inch. It is, however, extremely irregular and often torrential; a fall of several inches in one day may be followed by several years of absolute drought. These rigorous conditions are reflected in the extreme sparseness of the vegetation and in a division of the population into settled cultivators, who occupy oases dependent on permanent supplies of underground water, and nomadic pastoralists who make use of temporary pastures which become available after rain.

D.R.H.

HISTORY

Algeria as a political entity is a phenomenon of the last four hundred years: the history of its peoples, however, is of considerably greater antiquity. Little is known of the origin of the Berber people who have comprised the majority of the population of this part of Africa since the earliest times, but they had long been established there in numerous nomadic tribes when, at the time of the Punic Wars, the first ephemeral state-organisations may be distinguished in the area. The most important of these states was Numidia (208–148 B.C.), established by the chieftain Masinissa, which occupied most of present-day Algeria north of the Sahara. With the destruction of Carthage in 146 B.C., Numidia, greatly reduced in extent, was transformed into a Roman vassal-state. By the time of Augustus, Numidia was merely a senatorial province of the empire, while the rest of the area formed a loose confederacy of more or less independent tribes. Roman rule lasted until the fifth century. In the coastal centres of trade and culture a certain degree of assimilation to Roman ways took place, but in the mountains and deserts of the interior the Berber tribes maintained their independence by frequent revolt. The adoption of Christianity as the official religion of the Roman Empire, in the early part of the fourth century, provided a convenient ideological framework for Berber separatism: in particular, their adherence to the Donatist heresy provoked violent civil war and religious strife throughout this period. Under the impact of barbarian invasions, the Roman Empire in the west slowly disintegrated in the course of the fifth century, towards the end of which its rule in North Africa was replaced by the transient dominion of the Vandals. A nomadic people of Germanic origin, they established themselves in the east of present-day Algeria, but failed, like the Romans before them, to gain any real control over the Berber tribes of the hinterland. In A.D. 531, Roman, or rather Byzantine, rule was restored in North Africa, with the conquest by the emperor Justinian of the pro-

vinces of Africa (the modern Tunisia) and Numidia, and the establishment of a tenuous hold on the coast as far west as the region of modern Algiers. Elsewhere the Berber confederacies, centred in the Aurès and the Kabylie, maintained their independence.

The rise of Islam in Arabia, and its rapid expansion after the death of the Prophet (632), leading to the Arab conquest of Syria and Egypt, was quickly followed by the penetration of North Africa. The first Arab raids into North Africa (or the Maghreb, as the region comprising the present states of Morocco, Algeria, and Tunisia now came to be called) took place about the middle of the seventh century. The foundation of Kayrawan in 670 provided a permanent base for their operations, which remained for a time little more than raids. The towns remained under Byzantine control, while the Berber tribes, uniting against the invaders, killed the Arab leader, Ukba ibn Nafi (682), and set up a Berber state centred in the eastern Maghreb. Increasing Arab immigration towards the end of the seventh century finally put an end to Berber resistance, under its heroic and legendary warrior-queen Kahina (692). At the same time the last Byzantine garrisons were dislodged from their coastal strongholds, and the whole of the area was incorporated into the Umayyad Empire. The Berbers, for their part, became converted *en masse* to Islam, and, enrolling in its armies, went on with them to the conquest of the western Maghreb and of Spain.

This new-found Islamic unity of North Africa did not long endure. Dissatisfied with their inferior position as non-Arabs in what was in fact an Arab empire, the Berbers adopted Muslim-heresies as eagerly as they had previously embraced Christian ones.

The first signs of unrest appeared early in the eighth century, part of a general movement of discontent among

the non Arab peoples of the empire, which in the course of the succeeding years was to bring about the downfall of the Umayyad dynasty (750). By this time the Berbers had become converted to Kharijism, an esoteric left wing Muslim sect and in 756 under its auspices they destroyed completely the authority of the recently-established Abbasid Caliphate throughout the Maghreb. In the east of the area imperial authority was restored in 761, ushering in a period of forty years' anarchy and civil war. In the centre and west of the Maghreb, an area comprising much of present day Algeria, a number of small, mostly heretical states arose. Later, in the ninth century, the focal point of Berber Kharijism was transferred from Tlemcen to Tiaaret. Meanwhile, in the west, the authority of the caliphs had been superseded by that of an independent dynasty, the Aghlabids, who ruling from Kayrawan, attempted to extend their control into the central Maghreb. In opposition to their rule the Berbers of the Kabylie now embraced Shi' doctrines—in contrast with their previous adoption of Kharijism—a move which led in 910 to the establishment of the Fatimid dynasty in the central Maghreb. Fatimid rule, however, was not undisputed. From 943 to 947 they were faced with the terrible revolt of Abu Yazid, known as 'The man with a donkey', and from then on Fatimid interest in and power over the central Maghreb declined. After several attempts the capital of the dynasty was in 973 transferred to Egypt, while power in the Maghreb was again disputed between various Berber confederacies. In the centre and the east the Sinhaja tribes, the successors to the Kutama who had established the Fatimids, supported the minor dynasty of the Zirids; in the west the more nomadic Zenata established themselves under the remote suzerainty of the Spanish Umayyads. In the early eleventh century the Sinhaja Banu Hammad rose to the status of a local dynasty, ruling as neighbours of the kingdom of Kayrawan.

An event of some importance in the history of the Maghreb occurred c. 1050: the invasion of the Banu Hilal, a confederation of Arab tribes dislodged from Egypt. These nomads severely damaged the economy of North Africa, and represent the only considerable Arab immigration into the Maghreb since the original Arab conquest of the area. A period of anarchy ensued, but some order was restored by the Berber dynasty of the Almoravids who, coming from Morocco, brought the area of modern Algeria and Oran under their rule. The Banu Hammad, meanwhile, had become established at Bougie. Almoravid power rapidly declined, and c. 1147 they were succeeded by the Almohads. This dynasty, perhaps the most important to rule in North Africa in the medieval Islamic period, unified the whole of the Maghreb together with Muslim Spain. This was a time of cultural and economic prosperity for North Africa, especially at Tlemcen and witnessed the expansion of trade with the northern shores of the Mediterranean, but the precarious unity of the Maghreb was short-lived. By 1250 the area was again in a condition of political chaos and instability, with the Zenata Banu 'Abd al-Wad exercising such power as existed. A general decline set in, which was to last for over two centuries, during which time the general prevalence of the Berber language gradually gave way to Arabic, a further legacy of the Hilali invasions.

Throughout this period the chief seat of political power was at Tlemcen. In the interior various minor princes asserted their independence, while the coastal towns, including the minor port of Algiers, organised themselves into independent republics, the chief support of which came from piracy. This state of affairs, which lasted throughout the fourteenth century, was terminated by the sudden involvement of Algiers in matters of more than local significance.

The Spanish monarchy, bringing to completion its task of driving Muslim power from the Iberian peninsula with the conquest of Granada in 1492, now carried its crusade across the Mediterranean to North Africa. The fragmented political state of that area offered little obstacle to its progress. Mers el Kebir was captured in 1505, Oran in 1509 and Bougie in 1510, while Algiers, at that time a small port of little importance except as a centre for piracy, was reduced to submission in the same year. On the death of Ferdinand of Castile in 1516 the Algerines, in an attempt to throw off Spanish rule, sent envoys to the Turkish corsair Aruj, seeking his assistance. Aruj took possession of the town, together with other places on the littoral and Tlemcen in the interior, and caused himself to be proclaimed sultan. In 1518 Aruj was killed, and was succeeded by his brother Khayr al-Din Barbarossa, who, in order to consolidate his position, placed all the territories which he controlled under the protection of the Ottoman sultan. This decisive act, which brought together under a single jurisdiction the whole of the coast of North Africa and its immediate hinterland between Constantine and Oran, may be said to mark the emergence of Algeria as a political concept. Meanwhile, the struggle for North Africa, one aspect of the conflict between Ottoman and Hapsburg which ranged from the western Mediterranean to Hungary and the Indian Ocean, continued. In 1529 Khayr al-Din drove the Spaniards from the Peñon, the fortified rock which overlooks Algiers, while throughout the next decade constant Spanish efforts were made to re-establish their position in the area. Finally, in 1541, a great expedition led by the emperor Charles V in person, failed miserably in its objectives, and after that Algeria was left for three centuries to the Muslims. Ottoman rule in Algiers had already been further strengthened. In 1533 Khayr al-Din had been summoned to Istanbul to take charge of the Ottoman fleet. In his place a more regular administration was set up, under a succession of *beylerbeys* responsible directly to the sultan. The regime of the *beylerbeys* lasted in Algiers until 1587, when it was replaced by a government headed by a series of *pashas*, who were appointed for a term of three years. These again were succeeded in power in 1659 by the *aghas* (or commanders) of the corps of janissaries, replaced later by the *deys*, who retained their power until the French occupation in 1830. All these changes were, however, very much on the surface. From the mid-sixteenth century actual Ottoman supervision of Algerian affairs became increasingly a convenient fiction, perpetuated in the interests of both the Algerines themselves and the imperial authorities at Istanbul. The real power in Algiers gradually came into the hands of two main bodies. One, the nominal representative of Ottoman power, was the janissary corps, who were for the most part of Anatolian origin; the other, the so-called *taife-i rusia*, was the guild of corsair captains, men of widely differing origins, who for over three centuries were the main financial support of the state.

The Regency of Algiers reached the peak of its prosperity in the course of the seventeenth century. During this period the rulers of the state entered into diplomatic relations with the leading maritime states of western Europe—England, Holland and France, while these countries maintained their consuls or agents at Algiers. The profitable trade of piracy flourished throughout the century, bringing to Algiers great wealth in the form of captured ships, cargoes and men, and great notoriety as the centre of the North African slave trade. Throughout the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries Algiers looked outwards to the sea. Despite some early Turkish attempts to control the interior, many of the Berber tribes, especially in the Aurès and the Kabylie, maintained their indepen-

dence throughout the period of Turkish rule; others, more accessible to Algiers, paid to the *dey* a grudging tribute, or unwillingly recognised his suzerainty. With the eighteenth century, and the growth of European seapower in the Mediterranean, conditions became less favourable for corsair activity, and a period of decline set in. From a former figure of 100,000, the population of the city itself dropped to less than thirty thousand at the beginning of the nineteenth century, while in the interior, never firmly controlled by the Turks, the tribal chiefs extended their authority and a period of relative economic prosperity ensued.

In the period of the Napoleonic wars piracy and the economy of Algiers both underwent a certain revival, but this renewal of prosperity was shortlived. On the restoration of peace the European powers called upon the *dey* to abandon piracy, and in 1816 the British fleet bombarded Algiers. It was obvious that before long one of the European powers would take advantage of the growing anti-slavery movement in Europe, and the increasing weakness of Algiers itself, to go beyond naval demonstrations, and to land forces in the country. In the event, the conquest of Algiers was the work of France.

THE FRENCH CONQUEST

The excuse for intervention was an insult offered by the *dey* to the French consul in 1827: the real cause was the pressing need of Polignac, the chief minister under Charles X, to secure some credit for his administration in the eyes of the French public. On July 5, 1830 Algiers fell to a French expedition, the *dey* and most of the Turkish officials being sent into exile. But the Polignac administration was unable to gather the fruits of its triumph, for before further plans for the consolidation of French rule, and its extension to other coastal towns, could be put into effect, the Bourbon dynasty and its government were overthrown by revolution. A further casualty in the revolution was Polignac's plan for handing over the rest of the country, and the decision on its future, to a European congress; instead, for four years, the problem of what to do with Algiers now that it was in French hands was left to mark time. Away from Algiers itself the absence of any central authority strengthened still further the prestige of the tribal chiefs. Finally, in 1834, following the report of a special commission, the further conquest and annexation of Algeria was decided upon, and a governor-general appointed to put the new plans into effect.

The history of Algeria for the next quarter of a century is mainly concerned with the gradual reduction of the country by France, against bitter and continuing opposition. Constantine, the last stronghold of Turkish rule, was captured in 1837, and by 1841 French rule had been consolidated in most of the ports and their immediate environs. By 1844 most of the eastern part of Algeria had been brought under French control, but in the west the conquerors were faced with the formidable power of Abd el-Kadir. This Berber leader, a skilful diplomat and a military commander of genius, had at first concluded treaties with the French, which consolidated his position as leader of the Berber confederacies in the west. But in 1839 he declared war on France, achieving widespread unity between Berbers and Arabs against the invaders. He held out until 1847, when he was finally defeated by the persistence and ruthless tactics of the French general Bugeaud, the real architect of French rule in Algeria. During the late 'forties and 'fifties the tribes on the edge of the Sahara were pacified, while the virtual end of the conquest was achieved by the submission of the hitherto independent Berber confederacies of the Kabylie, in 1857. Further rebellion was to occur, however, throughout the

nineteenth century, and especially after France's defeat at the hands of Prussia in the war of 1870-71.

Meanwhile, a policy of colonisation, with widespread confiscation of land and its transference to settler groups, had been pushed forward. Bugeaud had at first encouraged colonisation in the coastal plains; after 1848 the influx of colonists was much increased, with the approval of the governments of the Second Republic and, in its early years, the Second Empire. A further stimulus to colonisation was provided by the widespread confiscation of lands resulting from the unsuccessful rebellion of 1871. By 1860 much of the best land in Algeria was in French hands, and was the scene of considerable subsequent agricultural development, while the French settlers themselves rapidly became the dominant power in the land. This was well seen some ten years later. Napoleon III had been favourably disposed towards the Algerian Muslim population, and had taken steps to protect tribal lands against settler encroachments, at the same time securing for Muslims the right to acquire French nationality. These measures had provoked strong opposition among the settlers, and in 1870, in the confusion of the Franco-Prussian War, the French colonists in Algeria expelled the imperial agents and set up a revolutionary commune.

After the confusion of the period of "commune" rule, and the subsequent Muslim revolt of 1871, the situation was regularised by the new French administration under Thiers. A civil administration with the status of a French departement was set up for much of Algeria, while the amount of territory under military rule steadily declined. From then until the end of the nineteenth century Algeria was the scene of considerable economic progress, and increasing European immigration, especially from Italy. A feature of this period was the growth of large scale agricultural and industrial enterprises, which concentrated still more power in the hands of the most powerful members of the settler groups. In 1900 Algeria secured administrative and financial autonomy, to be exercised through the so-called "Financial Delegations", composed of two-thirds European and one-third Muslim members, and empowered to fix the annual budget and to raise loans for further economic development.

In seventy years the Muslim people of Algeria had been reduced from relative prosperity to economic, social and cultural inferiority. Three million inhabitants had died, tribes had been broken up and the traditional economy altered during the prolonged "civilizing" campaigns. The settlers, however, experienced a high level of prosperity and economic progress in the years before the First World War. For the present, the French ascendancy seemed assured: the spread of nationalism throughout the Middle East, and the aftermath of the First World War, however, introduced the seeds of an Algerian national consciousness among the Muslim population, and marked the beginning of a reaction to the long period of French rule.

BIRTH OF NATIONALISM

Unlike some other lands of the Middle East, political and national consciousness did not emerge as a force to be reckoned with in Algeria until after the First World War. Algerian units had participated in that struggle, and in the early years of the post-war period nationalist sentiments made some headway amongst veterans of the war in Europe, and amongst the increasing numbers of Algerians who were going to France to study or to take up employment. In 1924 one of these students, Messali Hadj, founded in Paris the first Algerian nationalist newspaper, in collaboration with the French communist party: these close links with the communist movement were, however, severed after 1927, when Messali Hadj himself took over the running of the paper. After being driven underground by the French

government, Messali Hadj and his movement reappeared in 1933 as sponsors of a congress on the future of Algeria which called for total independence, the recall of French troops, and the establishment of a revolutionary government, together with large-scale reforms in land ownership and the nationalisation of industrial enterprises.

More significant though less regarded at the time, than the revolutionary doctrines of Messali Hadj were the more liberal doctrines put forward by an increasingly influential body of moderate French educated Muslim Algerians again in the years after World War I. The main aims of this group—formalised in 1930 as the Federation of Muslim Councillors (FCM)—was not separation from but integration with France, on a basis of complete equality. Algerian nationalism as such was specifically rejected.

During the thirties this more moderate body of Algerian opinion under the leadership of Ferhat Abbas, came to possess a certain amount of influence and the victory of the Popular Front in the French elections of 1936 made it appear that at least some of its aspirations might be peaceably achieved. The French government for its part, put forward a scheme of moderate reform—the Blum-Viollet plan—which would have granted full rights of citizenship to an increasing number of Algerian Muslims and in particular to members of the Muslim community well disposed to the principle of integration with France. These schemes, however, were frustrated by the violent opposition of the French settlers and the Algerian civil service to any amelioration of the position of the Muslim population, and the bill was dropped.

The years prior to the outbreak of World War II were marked by growing nationalist discontent, in which Messali Hadj released from prison in 1935, played a significant part, with the formation of the Party of the Algerian People (PPA). The outbreak of war in 1939, and the fall of France the following year, greatly strengthened the nationalists' hand for the future, while putting a temporary end to their activities. In Algeria the Vichy administration was strongly supported by the French settler groups, and at the same time showed itself to be antipathetic to any manifestations of Algerian national sentiment. The Allied landings in North Africa in 1942, and the impending fall of Vichy France, provided an opportune moment for the Algerian nationalists to put forward their postwar demands. These were at first of a constitutional nature. On December 22nd 1942, a group of moderate Algerians headed by Ferhat Abbas presented a memorandum to the French authorities and the Allied military command calling for the setting up of an Algerian Constituent Assembly, elected by universal suffrage and in line with the provisions of the Atlantic Charter and the principle of national self-determination. No demand was made however, for the setting up of Algerian independence outside the French framework. The French authorities remained unresponsive to these proposals which were followed early in 1943 by the "Manifesto of the Algerian People", which called for immediate reforms, including the introduction of Arabic as an official language, and at the same time dropping references to the reforms taking place within the French community. Further proposals were submitted in May 1943 envisaging the post-war creation of an Algerian state with a Constitution to be determined by a Constituent Assembly. On a wider front these new proposals looked forward to the eventual creation of a North African Union comprising Tunisia, Algeria and Morocco.

The Manifesto and its amendments were rejected out of hand by the recently established Free French administration in Algiers whereupon the Muslim members of the Financial Delegation withdrew from the Assembly (Sept. 1943). In face of growing Muslim discontent, and following

a visit to Algiers by General de Gaulle, a new statute for Algeria was put into effect in March 1944. This attempt at compromise satisfied neither the Algerian nationalists nor the European settlers, for although membership of the French electoral college was opened to 60,000 Muslims there were still 450,000 European voters. In the event only 32,000 Muslims accepted to be inscribed, while their share of the seats in the *communes mixtes* was restricted to 40 per cent, and all further discussion of Algeria's future relationship with France was ruled out. Shortly afterwards, Ferhat Abbas founded the "Friends of the Manifesto and Freedom" (A.M.L.), to work for the foundation of an autonomous Algerian republic, linked federally with France. This new movement was mainly based on the support of middle class Muslims though it gained a certain following among the masses, where, however, Messali Hadj's PPA had gained many followers during 1944-45.

POST-WAR DEVELOPMENTS

All possibility of an evolutionary settlement was destroyed by blunders of post-war French policy, together with opposition of the French settlers in Algeria to any concessions to Muslim sentiment or constitutional advancement. The ruthless suppression of the riots at Sétif in May 1945, which claimed the lives of some 15,000 Muslims and the subsequent arrest of Ferhat Abbas and dissolution of the A.M.L., drove many of the nationalist leaders to consider force as the only means of gaining their objective. For some time however, attempts to reach a constitutional or a compromise solution continued. In March 1946 Ferhat Abbas was released under an amnesty, and launched the Democratic Union of the Algerian Manifesto (UDMA), with a programme providing for the creation of an autonomous secular Algerian state within the French Union. Despite electoral successes in the French Assembly the UDMA failed to achieve any of its objectives, and at the end of September 1946 withdrew from the Assembly, refusing to participate in the ensuing elections. The breach was filled by the party formed by Messali Hadj at the end of the war—the Movement for the Triumph of Democratic Liberties (MTLD)—which demanded a radical solution for Algeria, with the creation of a sovereign Constituent Assembly, and the evacuation of the country by French troops, aims which stood no chance of adoption. In an effort at compromise, the French government had been engaged in drawing up a new Constitution, which passed into law on September 20th, 1947. On the one hand all Algerian citizens, including women, were given French citizenship and therefore the vote, and Arabic was recognised as equal in status to French, on the other hand the proposed new Algerian Assembly was to be divided into two colleges each of sixty members: the first of which would represent the 1½ million Europeans, the second the 9 million Muslims. Further provisions ruled out all possibility of anti-European legislation.

Yet even these moderate proposals were never brought fully into operation. When the MTLD gained successes in the Algerian municipal elections of October 1947 the coming elections to the Algerian Assembly were openly and clumsily distorted. Over half of the MTLD candidates were arrested beforehand, election meetings were forbidden, and numerous irregularities introduced at the polling stations. As a result only a quarter of the members returned to the second college in April 1948 were MTLD or UDMA: the remainder were nominally "independent" nonentities. Similar devices all aimed at the elimination of the two main parties from Algerian political life, were employed in all the local and national elections during the next six years as well as in the Algerian elections to the French National Assembly in June 1951. Other ameliorative measures of the 1947 Constitution were never put into effect. It was confidently expected that by these means all

opposition to French rule in Algeria would be destroyed, or at least rendered harmless; the result, however, was that the main forces of nationalism were driven underground.

As early as 1947 several of the younger members of the M.T.L.D. had formed the so-called "Secret Organisation" (O.S.), which collected arms and money from supporters, and built up a network of cells throughout Algeria, with the object of preparing for armed insurrection and the establishment of a revolutionary government. Two years later the O.S. felt itself strong enough to launch a terrorist attack in Oran: following on this the movement was discovered, and most of its leaders arrested. A nucleus of the O.S. survived, however, in the Kabylie region, ever a stronghold for dissident groups, while Ben Bella, the organiser of the attack, escaped in 1952 to Cairo. Meanwhile, under the stresses of the current situation in Algeria, a decisive split was taking place within the ranks of the M.T.L.D. The veteran Messali Hadj, declining into nebulous doctrines of pan-Arabism and political mysticism, gradually lost control of the party organisation, together with the confidence of its more activist members, who were desirous of immediate action. In 1953 the first open breach occurred: the following year the unity of the party was completely destroyed. In March of that year nine former members of the O.S. set up a "Revolutionary Council for Unity and Action" (C.R.U.A.), to prepare for an immediate armed revolt against French rule in Algeria.

WAR OF INDEPENDENCE

Between March and October 1954 the C.R.U.A. held a series of meetings in Switzerland, at which final plans were co-ordinated for the insurrection. Algeria was divided into six *wilayas* (military zones), and commanders were appointed for each of them. On October 10th it was decided to launch the revolt on November 1st: on the outbreak the C.R.U.A. changed its name to the National Liberation Front (F.L.N.), its armed forces being known as the National Liberation Army (A.L.N.). The revolt, which began in the Aurès, spread during the remainder of the year, and in the first part of 1955, to the whole of the Constantine area, the Kabylie, and the length of the Moroccan frontier west of Oran. By the end of 1956 the A.L.N. was active throughout the settled areas of Algeria.

In April 1956 Ferhat Abbas and Ahmed Francis of the more bourgeois U.D.M.A. and the religious leaders of the Ulema joined the F.L.N., making it representative of all shades of Algerian nationalist feeling apart from Messali Hadj's Algerian National Movement (M.N.A.). In August the F.L.N. held a secret congress at Soummam in the Kabylie to define its political objectives. A Socialist programme was drawn up for the future Algerian Republic, the government nucleus of which was assured by the formation of a central committee of 17 members, the National Council of the Algerian Revolution (C.R.N.A.) and a five-man co-ordinating committee (C.C.E.). This last was later to enlarge to fifteen members, to include Ferhat Abbas, together with those members of the movement exiled in Cairo, while the C.R.N.A. grew to 54 members. The Soummam Conference also approved plans for the launching of a terrorist offensive in Algiers: between September 1956 and June 1957 much loss of life was caused by F.L.N.-engineered bomb explosions. Terrorism was, however, virtually stamped out by increasingly severe French repression of the Muslim population, including the widespread use of torture and internment of civilians in so-called regroupment zones, often under harsh conditions. These methods aroused strong condemnation of French policy both at home and abroad: they were, however, successful, and caused the A.L.N. to return to largely guerilla activity from the middle of 1957. At the

same time electrified barriers were set up along the Tunisian and Moroccan borders, and in subsequent actions A.L.N. bands attempting to cross into Algeria met with heavy losses.

Meanwhile, following on the Soummam conference, a joint Moroccan-Tunisian plan had been put forward for the establishment of a North African federation linked with France, which would have brought about the end of the revolt in Algeria. F.L.N. leaders conducted negotiations in Morocco in October, and a further conference was arranged to take place later in the month in Tunis. On October 22nd a plane carrying Ben Bella and his suite from Morocco to Tunis was forced to land at Algiers, where the F.L.N. leaders were arrested, an action which destroyed any hope of an immediate negotiated settlement. Thus the bitter struggle dragged on, to the increasing discredit of successive weak French governments. In May 1957 the Mollet administration was overthrown; the following month the Bourges-Maunoury government put forward a new bill for Algeria, aimed at linking it indissolubly with France, but the bill was never passed. The inability of the French government to control or halt the rebellion now provoked growing resentment among the European population of Algeria, which was to lead to the fall of the discredited Fourth Republic. In May 1958 European-led Committees of Public Safety were set up in the major towns of Algeria: the following month General de Gaulle took office in Paris, shortly afterwards issuing his call for a "peace of the brave" in Algeria, and offering negotiations to the F.L.N. The F.L.N. for their part set up in mid-August a provisional Government of the Algerian Republic (G.P.R.A.), headed by Ferhat Abbas, and including Ben Bella and the other F.L.N. leaders then interned in France. No immediate respite was forthcoming, however, and the war continued, fighting being particularly heavy in the first part of 1959. The French forces, reorganized under General Challe, succeeded in driving the rebels back on most fronts, especially in the Kabylie, and by April 1960 it was claimed that over half of the A.L.N.'s forces had been either killed or captured. It seemed as if the rebellion was being overcome, but from the early spring of 1960 terrorist outrages again broke out in Algiers, while later in the year further French offensives were waged in the Aurès, to the accompaniment of growing tension on the borders of Tunisia and Morocco. Meanwhile, the first steps had been taken that would lead eventually to the ending of the revolt, and the achievement of Algerian independence.

NEGOTIATIONS FOR INDEPENDENCE

In September, General de Gaulle announced that Algeria was to be given a chance to decide its own fate, and to have recourse to self-determination. This provoked violent settler opposition, but in the face of it de Gaulle on November 10th offered the F.L.N. safe-conducts for their delegates to come to Paris and discuss peace terms. The F.L.N. replied by naming the rebel leaders captured in 1956 and still in French custody: in result the tentative negotiations were immediately broken off. In January 1960 occurred the first European insurrection in Algeria against de Gaulle and his policy of self-determination. Barricades were erected in the streets of Algiers, but a firm line was taken against the insurrectionists, and the trouble was soon overcome. The summer of 1960 saw the first exploratory talks between French and F.L.N. representatives, held in great secrecy in the vicinity of Paris, but these ended in failure. Shortly afterwards Ferhat Abbas departed for Peking and Moscow, where he gained encouragement for the revolt, and promises of support. Faced with the obvious danger of the internationalisation of the Algerian crisis, General de Gaulle announced in November his intention to hold a referendum on the organisation of government in Algeria, pending self-determination. In

December he visited the country himself to prepare the way. The referendum asked the electorate to approve a draft law on self determination, providing for a settlement by vote of Algeria's relations with France, after stabilisation of the situation, and for the institution of immediate reforms enabling the Algerians to participate in running their own country. The referendum was greeted in Algeria with mass abstentions from voting of the order of 50%. It was obviously useless to proceed without the F.L.N., so in February 1961 fresh French approaches were made through the medium of the President of Tunisia, and via secret talks in Switzerland. These led to a secret meeting in Rabat and to the arrangement of direct negotiations between French and F.L.N. representatives at Evian, on the Franco-Swiss border, for April 7th 1961. This first meeting never took place, the start being delayed by a French proposal to include representatives of the discredited M.N.A. in the negotiations. Talks actually began on May 20th but achieved little through an unfortunate choice of leaders broken off on June 20th they were resumed on July 20th and again broken off in early August over the question of the future of the Sahara and over the new Buzerta crisis and the French attack there. In Algeria the European population and segments of the Army had taken strong steps against the prospect of a negotiated cease fire in forming the so-called Secret Army Organisation (O.A.S.) On April 22nd four paratroop generals seized control of Algiers in an army putsch which proved abortive due to the loyalty of most regular army officers to de Gaulle. At the opening of the Evian negotiations the French Government had suspended offensive operations but was forced to resume them as rebel pressure and operations continued though on a smaller scale than before and often replaced by civilian demonstrations and political activity. Fighting continued, however, on a small scale until the final cease fire.

Secret contacts between the French government and the F.L.N. were re-established in October 1961. After a false start, negotiations were resumed in December 1961 and January 1962 in Geneva and Rome the five members of the Algerian provisional government interned in France taking part through a representative of the King of Morocco. In February 1962 meetings were held in strict secrecy in France at ministerial level the final phase of the negotiations being concluded at Evian on March 18th by the signing of a cease fire agreement and a general declaration on future policy. By the terms of the cease-fire hostilities were to be immediately suspended the general declaration provided for the establishment of an independent Algerian state, after a transitional period in which authority would still reside with the French High Commissioner. Provision was also made in the general declaration for the organisation of public powers during the transitional period, together with the safeguarding of individual rights and liberties in the future Algerian state. A further series of declarations issued the following day dealt with the political and judicial rights of French citizens in Algeria, and with future Franco-Algerian co-operation in all fields. In the military sphere France would retain the naval base at Mers el Kébir for 15 years and the nuclear testing site in the Sahara, together with various landing rights for five years.

In accordance with the Evian agreements a provisional government was formed on March 28th with Abderrahman Farès as provisional President, and an executive of F.L.N. members and other Muslims and Europeans. Ben Bella and the other Algerian leaders detained with him had already been released on March 18th, and had flown to Morocco while *de jure* recognition of the G.P.R.A. was quickly given by the Soviet Union, the East European and many Afro-Asian countries.

The signing of the Evian agreements was the signal for a final desperate effort by the O.A.S. to maintain its power in Algeria. A so-called National Council of French Resistance in Algeria was established with General Salan as commander-in-chief, with the object of forming a provisional government while violent attacks were made by O.A.S. commando units against the Muslim population, in an unsuccessful attempt to provoke them into breaking the cease fire. O.A.S. activities continued into April, but the organisation was seriously weakened by its failure to set up an "insurrectional zone" in the Orléansville area, and by the capture of General Salan on April 20th. From the end of April against a background of renewed terrorist activity and F.L.N. reprisals increasing numbers of Algerian settlers began leaving Algeria for France. After secret negotiations between F.L.N. and O.A.S. leaders in mid May, aimed at securing guarantees for the European population of Algeria, the O.A.S. suspended its terrorist activities from the end of the month. Shortly afterwards, however the negotiations broke down, and the destruction of public buildings began on June 7th. A further period of confused negotiations ensued, which disclosed a serious split in the O.A.S. itself and heralded the virtual end of European terrorist activity. By June 27th the situation was relatively calm, by which time over half the European population of Algeria had left for France.

The final steps towards the achievement of Algerian independence were now taken. A referendum held on July 1st on the country's future resulted in a 91% vote of the total electorate for independence, which was proclaimed by General de Gaulle two days later, on July 3rd, 1962.

THE INDEPENDENT STATE

The course of Algerian history since independence has not been tranquil. The achievement of power by the F.L.N. revealed serious tensions and weaknesses within the government, while the problems facing the new state after eight years of civil war were of formidable dimensions.

Since the reorganization of the G.P.R.A. in 1961, its leadership had been in the hands of the so-called "centralist" group, headed by Ben Khedda, consisting of former members of the M.T.L.D. and representing mainly the Berber section of the population. Their dominant political position was threatened by the release of the five members of the G.P.R.A. who had been interned in France—Ben Bella, Mohammed Khider, Mohammed Boudiaf, Ait Ahmed, and Rabah Bitat. Of these five Boudiaf and Ait Ahmed rallied temporarily to the support of Ben Khedda while the others formed yet another opposition faction alongside that of the moderate Ferhat Abbas who had been dropped from the G.P.R.A. leadership in 1961. The A.L.N. leadership was also split the commanders of the main armed forces in Tunisia and Morocco were opposed to the politicians of the G.P.R.A.; while the commanders of the internal guerrilla groups were opposed to all external political and military factions.

Immediate differences between the political factions appeared at the Tripoli conference at the end of May when the C.R.N.A. met for the first time to consider the future policies of the new state. A commission headed by Ben Bella produced a programme for the reorganization of independent Algeria. This proposed large-scale agrarian reform with the expropriation of large estates and establishment of peasant co-operatives and some form of state farms. A definite policy of nationalization included transport banks, insurance large-scale industry and a state monopoly of foreign trade in international relations. Algeria would follow a neutralist but strongly anti-colonial line especially in Africa, and would aim towards the unity of the Maghreb. Despite the opposition of Ben Khedda's

group the Tripoli Programme became the official F.L.N. policy on Algeria's future.

The serious divergences of opinion within the party revealed themselves openly on the proclamation of Algerian independence. On July 3rd Ben Khedda and the G.P.R.A. cabinet, with the exception of Ben Bella, flew to Algiers, where they installed themselves alongside the official Provisional Executive. At the same time Ben Khedda attempted to reassert his control of the A.L.N. by dismissing the commander-in-chief, Col. Boumedienne, and his aides. Ben Bella flew to Morocco to join Boumedienne and on July 11th they crossed into Algeria, setting up headquarters in Tlemcen. Here Ben Bella set up the Bureau Politique (Political Bureau) as the chief executive of the F.L.N. and a rival to the G.P.R.A. After a period of confused negotiations he was joined by some of the "historic chiefs", leaving Ben Khedda isolated in Algiers, and Boudiaf and Ait Ahmed in opposition. However, opposition to the Bureau Politique and Col. Boumedienne was not confined to these groups; several of the Wilaya leaders who felt that, as the internal resistance, they represented the true current of the revolution, opposed the efforts of the external political and military leaders to impose their own rule. On July 25th forces of the A.L.N. loyal to the Bureau Politique occupied Constantine and Bône in the east and Ben Khedda was forced to let the Bureau take over the functions of the G.P.R.A. During August the situation remained tense and there was no one *de facto* government of the whole country. The capital itself and most of the Algiers department were in the hands of Wilaya IV, who refused entry to the Bureau Politique. At the beginning of September Col. Boumedienne's forces marched on Algiers from Oran resulting in heavy clashes with the troops of Wilaya IV. The situation was partly saved from deteriorating into total civil war by the action of the Algerian General Workers' Union (U.G.T.A.) which organized mass demonstrations against the fighting.

Preparations for the elections had meanwhile been going forward. Of the 180 candidates who had been on the single list drawn up on August 16th, some sixty had by early September been purged (including Ben Khedda), and their places filled with lesser-known figures. The elections took place on September 20th, with conspicuous lack of public enthusiasm, some 99½% of the electorate being declared to have voted in favour of the proposed powers of the Constituent Assembly.

At the first session of the Assembly on September 25th, Ferhat Abbas was elected its President, and the powers and functions of the G.P.R.A. transferred to the new body. The formal proclamation of the Algerian Democratic Republic was then made, the following day Ben Bella being elected Prime Minister, with a cabinet drawn from among his personal followers, former A.L.N. staff officers, and political associates.

The new Algerian Government was faced with political opposition from rival parties such as Messali Hadj's reconstituted P.P.A., formerly the M.N.A., the Algerian Communist Party, largely discredited through its negative role in the war, and Boudiaf's Party of the Socialist Revolution (P.R.S.) standing for far-reaching socialist measures. All of these were officially banned by November. The government also managed to abolish the Wilaya system in December, though as the future showed this did not end the prestige of the Wilaya leaders. A third source of possible opposition came from organizations, like the students' union and the U.G.T.A., affiliated to the F.L.N. By December 1962 all but the U.G.T.A. had been placed firmly under F.L.N. control.

THE ECONOMIC CRISIS

The most important problem, however, was the economic plight of the country. Some 90 per cent (one million) of the European settlers, representing all the entrepreneurs, technicians, administrators, teachers, doctors, and skilled workers had left the country; factories, farms and shops had closed down leaving 70 per cent of the population unemployed. The eight years' war had left over one million dead, two million in concentration camps and 500,000 refugees in Tunisia and Morocco; as well as the destruction of public buildings and records by the O.A.S. Large gifts of food, money and clothing were sent by many countries to alleviate the immediate suffering. In December an emergency austerity plan was drawn up, while large loans and technical assistance from France enabled the government to continue functioning.

In January 1963 the F.L.N. managed to gain control of the U.G.T.A. executive, which was opposing the dictatorial nature of the government, by packing its first congress with unemployed and F.L.N. militants. In March the famous Decrees of March were issued by Ben Bella, legalizing the workers' committees, which aided by the U.G.T.A. had taken over the management of many of the deserted European estates and factories during the summer and autumn of 1962. The pretext for this was the inadequate exploitation of national resources by the absent owners. This system of workers' management known as *autogestion*, is similar in outline to that of Yugoslavia and became the basis of "Algerian socialism". The workers elect their own management board which works alongside a state-appointed director. On April 17th Ben Bella increased his powers by taking over the post of general secretary of the F.L.N., ousting Mohammed Khider who later went into exile, retaining control of the F.L.N. funds in Switzerland. In August Ben Bella secured the adoption by the Assembly of a draft Constitution providing for a presidential régime, with the F.L.N. as the sole political party. Under the new Constitution, which was approved by a referendum, Ben Bella was elected President (September 13th) for a period of five years, assuming the titles of head of state, leader of the government, and commander of the armed forces. These new measures aroused much opposition. Ferhat Abbas—now the leading spokesman for a policy of liberalism, and subsequently expelled from the F.L.N.—resigned his post as President of the Assembly. Discontent with Ben Bella's policies and Berber regionalism led to a revolt in the Kabylie during the late summer under Ait Ahmed's Front of Socialist Forces (F.F.S.) and ex-Wilaya chief Col. Mohand Ou El Hadj. After some clashes Ben Bella reached agreement with Col. Mohand Ou El Hadj in face of the border war with Morocco; but Ait Ahmed remained in the maquis. In October in an attempt to regain popularity Ben Bella nationalized the remaining French estates, placing them under *autogestion*, and suppressed the remaining French-controlled newspapers in Algeria.

After independence, Algeria's relations with its neighbours deteriorated, as the differences between them became more apparent. The most serious clashes occurred between Algeria and Morocco, where long-standing disputes over areas on their common frontier broke out in October 1963 into open conflict, in the vicinity of the strategic posts of Hassi-Beida and Tinjoub. The actual hostilities were not on a large scale, and were soon brought to an end by the mediation of interested African states, but have left a legacy of bitterness between the two countries. During 1964, however, the tension between Algeria and her neighbours lessened, largely as a result of the Arab "Summit Conference", held at Cairo in January 1964, and the implementation of an agreement between Algeria and Morocco, settling their border dispute, in March.

THE FALL OF BEN BELLA

In the last year of its existence the Ben Bella régime appeared to be in the process of achieving for Algeria not only a certain measure of internal stability but also a place of some importance in the councils of the uncommitted nations. In April 1964 Ben Bella visited Moscow and Soviet Turkestan and the following month conferred with the Soviet Premier. The main result of these talks was the granting by U.S.S.R. to Algeria of \$45 million for the construction of a metallurgical plant at Bône and of further assistance in the planning and construction of other technical and educational foundations. A simultaneous and important step forward in the economic development of the country was the grant by the world Bank of a \$35 million loan towards the cost of the Arzew gas liquefaction plant designed to exploit the extensive resources of natural gas lying under the Sahara. The plant itself was opened on September 27 1964 and the first cargo of liquefied methane gas was discharged in England in early October.

As far as Algeria's relations with her neighbours were concerned the last eighteen months under Ben Bella saw a definite improvement. Relations with Morocco became increasingly cordial during 1964. Prisoners captured by both sides during the hostilities of the previous autumn were exchanged in April and at the end of that month the Ethiopian and Malian members of the joint commission delimiting the demilitarized zone were withdrawn on the completion of their mission. On May 11th a joint communiqué announced further steps towards the restoration of normal relations between the two countries which were implemented in the course of the succeeding months. The Algerian Moroccan border was reopened in June and further discussions in the field of economic and technical cooperation were provided for. The Organization of African Unity's Special Arbitration Commission announced in October the approaching completion of its duties and the impending submission of its recommendations to the two governments concerned. Further to implement these new policies of cooperation an Algerian Moroccan trade agreement was signed in Rabat on November 25th 1964.

In the wider sphere of Maghrebian co-operation the three heads of state of Morocco, Algeria and Tunisia had met together for the first time at the Organization of African Unity's conference in Cairo in July. Later in the year the Economics ministers of the Maghreb met in Rabat (November 26th-27th) and decided to establish a permanent joint consultative committee to correlate general economic plans and to co-ordinate projects of industrialisation.

The outstanding event of Algerian domestic politics in 1964 was the long awaited first Congress of the F.L.N. in April. This was the last occasion that most of the historic chiefs and their clans met together. Despite opposition from the right and silence from the A.N.P. delegates Ben Bella achieved acceptance of the Algiers Charter. This criticized the past mistakes of the F.L.N. defined relations between party state and the army and attempted to create a theoretical basis for Algerian socialism centred on *autogestion* as a way of avoiding Soviet bureaucracy and capitalism. Soon after the F.F.S. again led a revolt in the Kabylie while Col Chabaani, commander of the A.N.P. in the south also rebelled against the government. Both Chabaani and Ait Ahmed were eventually captured. Chabaani was executed (the first since independence) while Ait Ahmed was reprieved in view of his evident popularity. Most of the other historic chiefs were eliminated from public life during 1964. In the early months of 1965 the Algerian Government was largely occupied with preparations for an Afro Asian conference planned for the tenth

anniversary of the Bandung Conference and due to open in Algiers on June 29th. The holding of this conference would have set the final seal on Ben Bella's personal reputation both as undisputed leader of the Algerian people and as a force to be reckoned with in the affairs of the uncommitted nations of Asia and Africa.

But the conference was not to take place. In the early hours of June 19th Ben Bella was deposed in a swift and bloodless military coup d'état. Ben Bella himself was arrested and held under close confinement in the Sahara charged with high treason. The leader of the coup was Col Houari Boumedienne who in 1962 had engaged his highly trained and revolutionary Liberation Army in support of Ben Bella and had been since then the undisputed strong man behind the President.

On June 19th it was announced that a Council of the Revolution had been formed to take over the government of the country. While the former president was denounced as a traitor to Algeria and a dictator the coup appeared to foreshadow little change in Algeria's political orientation. Col Boumedienne defined the domestic policy of the Revolutionary Council as the re-establishment of the principles of the Revolution towards an authentic brand of socialism and an end to the internal division of the Ben Bella régime and the personal nature of his role. Rapid Chinese recognition of the new régime and largely conjectural information concerning the attitudes and personality of Col Boumedienne led early observers of the coup to expect a decisive swing to the left in Algeria's international position, a diagnosis not born out by subsequent developments. More accurate was the Egyptian reaction. Although visibly shocked by the coup and concerned for the safety of Ben Bella whose links with Cairo had been close, the main weight of Egyptian official opinion tended to the view that the coup reflected a deep and serious split within Algerian ruling circles centred on the figure of M. Ahmed Boutefflika.

The immediate reason for the coup was Ben Bella's attempt to eliminate the army and its supporters from political power. Earlier in the year he had announced the creation of a popular militia which the army saw as an attempt to form his own military force. He had also dismissed Medeghri, the Minister of the Interior and one of Boumedienne's supporters, the last straw was his attempt at the end of May to force the resignation of Boutefflika, Minister of Foreign Affairs and Boumedienne's lieutenant. In addition an important number of administrators and politicians were led to envisage a coup in face of Algeria's deteriorating economic situation and their own exclusion from power by Ben Bella's increasingly dictatorial tendencies. Ben Bella's elimination of most of the traditional leaders, constant attacks on the U.G.T.A. and his failure to turn the F.L.N. into a real mass party had left him without any organized support. Thus immediate overt opposition to the coup was confined to street demonstrations by students, youth and women. The F.L.N. bereft of its leader fairly quickly accepted the coup while the U.G.T.A. eventually issued an ambiguous statement that expressed no real support for Boumedienne. In September the government arrested a number of known left wingers including former officials of the banned Algerian Communist Party and announced that the Organization of Popular Resistance (O.R.P.) the most militant of the opposition groups had been broken up.

Despite Boumedienne's intention to continue with the Afro Asian conference and strong Chinese support for this the opposition of most of the other delegates ended in the conference being postponed. Eventually the whole project was allowed to lapse in view of the conflict between India and Pakistan.

THE BOUMEDIENNE REGIME

On July 5th Col. Boumedienne formally assumed the presidency of the 26-man Revolutionary Council, the "supreme political body" in Algeria. The Council itself consisted mostly of military figures—former regional guerilla leaders, high-ranking officers, and close associates of Col. Boumedienne in the Ben Bella cabinet. Under the authority of the Revolutionary Council, President Boumedienne announced the names of a new 20-man government on July 10th. President Boumedienne, besides his post as President of the Council, occupied the position of Prime Minister and Minister of Defence in the civilian government. M. Rabah Bitat was appointed Minister of State, and M. Aziz Bouteflika continued to occupy the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. All in all, the new government, of which nine members had participated in Ben Bella's last government, was seen as representing a variety of elements in Algerian government, including both the technocrats and experts in development, and the radical wing of the F.L.N. To consolidate the authority of the F.L.N. in government, and to ensure the proper functioning of the F.L.N. party, a five-man secretariat under M. Cherif Belkacem was set up on July 17th.

The policies of the new government were outlined by President Boumedienne as a continuing adherence to the doctrine of non-alignment in international relations. Beyond this, Algeria was committed to the realization of Maghreb and Arab unity, and to the strengthening of her ties with the socialist camp. Externally, he said, Algeria would continue to support peoples who were struggling for their freedom and independence. In domestic policies, the President showed himself eager to dispel rumours of large-scale nationalization of land: the aim of the government was not to expropriate the land under peasant ownership, nor to abolish private property: the traditional sector of the economy would be modified only by the formation of non-compulsory co-operative associations. Meanwhile, the abuses of personal power linked with the previous regime would be remedied. The creation of a sound economy based on an "authentic socialist society" would be the main task of the government.

The remainder of 1965 was largely taken up with domestic consolidation and with attempts by Algeria to break out of her diplomatic isolation since the *coup*. A promising sign of continued good relations with France was the conclusion on July 23rd of the joint oil and natural gas treaty, providing for the exploitation of Algeria's important supplies of oil and natural gas on advantageous terms. This rapprochement was followed up in October by the visit of M. Bouteflika to France, for talks with President de Gaulle. The whole future of Franco-Algerian co-operation was discussed, and the good relations prevailing were intensified. The main problems outstanding were the future of French aid under the Evian agreements and the future of the Mers el-Kebir naval base near Oran. Also outstanding was a solution to the problem of "vacant properties" abandoned in Algeria by French settlers. Important on the Algerian side was the offering of guarantees against nationalization to tempt back French investment capital to Algeria, and against the decline in the sales of Algerian wines to France, together with the hope of an increase in French military aid.

Early Soviet suspicions of Algeria's new government, mentioned above, were dispelled by the visit and warm welcome to Moscow of President Boumedienne in December 1965. Assurances were given that the main policies of Ben Bella's period would be continued, despite the arrest of local leftists, while the Soviet line on Viet-Nam was fully endorsed. Algeria's relations with the United States were also improved: in January 1966 American aid, in abeyance since June 1965, was resumed, and surplus wheat and

technical assistance was promised, as the U.S. government was now convinced that the Boumedienne regime was on a "hopeful course" as far as the western world was concerned.

During 1966 the main emphasis was still on consolidation, both political and economic, in Algeria. Although the army remained the basis of President Boumedienne's power, an attempt was made to rebuild the F.L.N. party organization and, despite general apathy, to recruit new members. President Boumedienne stressed the importance of a one-party system of government in which contradictions between the army and the government should not arise, the task of the F.L.N. being to "animate and direct".

Feeling against the new regime, shown particularly in demonstrations and student strikes in Algiers in January and February, became less evident, particularly after a number of arrests of trade union leaders in July. Signs that not all discord had been eliminated were, however, provided by the defection in August of M. Hadj Smain, former Minister of Reconstruction and Housing (whose ministry had been abolished in April after his resignation); of M. Mahsas, Minister of Agriculture, in September; of M. Boumaza, Minister of Information, in October; and of Slimane Rebba, national secretary of the Union Générale des Travailleurs Algériens, also in October. Ait Ahmed, in detention since 1964 (see above), had escaped from Algeria at the end of April. President Boumedienne nevertheless dismissed the opposition groups in exile as "out of circulation". The assassination of Mohammed Khider in Madrid by an unknown gunman in January 1967 gave rise to the suggestion that he had been killed to prevent the hand-over to three non-communist opposition groups in exile—the Clandestine Organization of the Algerian Revolution (O.C.R.A.), the Socialist Forces Front (F.F.S.) and the Committee for the Defence of the Revolution (C.N.D.R.)—of substantial F.L.N. funds under his control on condition that the groups merged.

INTERNAL DEVELOPMENT

Although the Algerian National Assembly remained in abeyance and the new regime showed no signs of seeking a popular mandate, preparations were made in 1966, accompanied by a government publicity campaign, for elections to the Communal Councils, the proclaimed purpose being to stimulate local initiative and bring about decentralization.

New penal and civil legal codes were promulgated during 1966, the judiciary were Algerianised, and tribunals to try "economic crimes", with power to impose the death penalty, were set up in July. New conditions of service and training schemes for public employees were introduced with the aim of improving the standard of administration. A new university, in Oran, was opened in December.

State participation in fields previously left to private enterprise increased. A state-owned construction company was set up and it was decided in March that all marketing operations and the distribution of revenue of the oil and gas industry, whether inside or outside Algeria, should be subject to government supervision. On May 7th the nationalization was announced of eleven foreign-owned mines and of property of absentee owners, and on May 27th all insurance activities were placed under state control. A National Bank of Algeria, specializing in short-term credit, particularly for the nationalized sector of the economy, was inaugurated on July 2nd.

Algeria continued to be heavily dependent on external aid for industrial development. A mission from the World Bank investigated development possibilities in March and April and bilateral agreements were signed with several countries during the year. A new investment code, designed to attract both domestic and foreign private capital and

containing assurances of indemnification in the event of nationalization, was promulgated in September.

Industrial activity remained at a low level, while agriculture continued to be depressed and a poor wheat harvest, resulting in a deficiency estimated at between 800 000 and 1,200 000 tons, made necessary substantial purchases on the world market. State loans totalling DA 100 million were made available in October to peasant farmers and cooperatives for purchases of seed and equipment in an attempt to increase production, and land redistribution was postponed until after the 1967 harvest.

FOREIGN RELATIONS

Bearing in mind the régime's commitment to socialism, 'anti-imperialism' and a militant stand on the Palestine question, Algeria's foreign relations for some time after 1965 were conducted with some caution and in accordance with the requirements of building up national strength. The government's handling of the problems caused by the landing of two 'hijacked' aircraft in its territory may be cited as evidence of this. Moïse Tshombe, the Katangan separatist leader, was imprisoned in Algeria from the summer of 1967 until he died of a heart attack in June 1969, despite attempts by the Congolese government to extradite him to Kinshasa, where he would have faced a death sentence. In August 1968 Arab commandos forced an El Al (the Israeli airline) Boeing to land at Algiers. It was evident that this act was unwelcome to the government, which was not prepared for the consequences of the international furor which followed and the aircraft was eventually released early in September.

The relationship with France remains of paramount importance because of France's position as Algeria's main customer and the source of substantial economic and technical assistance. An agreement was concluded in April 1966 for French technical and educational assistance over twenty years, another agreement with France in July covered the setting up of a new television system, and further oil prospecting in the Sahara by the joint French-Algerian oil organization, ASCOOP, resulted in a new find in November. On 23rd December an agreement was signed providing for the cancellation of Algeria's pre-independence debts, reducing Algerian indebtedness to France to DA 400 million.

After 1966 relations with France deteriorated. In 1967 political pressures at home caused the French government to revoke the agreement on wine exports reached in 1964. The slow rate of growth of oil production compared to Libya and other countries led to sustained criticism of the French interests which largely control the petroleum industry; it was said that these interests had concentrated on developing their oil fields outside Algeria and had taken insufficient interest in opening up new fields in the Sahara. The French companies were also accused of fixing oil prices to Algeria's disadvantage. French fears of the Soviet Navy being allowed to use the Mers El Kébir base led to a further worsening in relations towards the end of 1968, culminating in the cancellation of a visit by the French Foreign Minister, M. Debré.

There was a perceptible improvement in relations during 1969-70, partly as an extension of the improvement in French relations with the Arab world in general. It appears that Algeria is anxious to maintain formal links with France to counterbalance the growing Soviet influence. Culturally the country remains a 'francophone' territory; there are still many French teachers although the teaching of Arabic is gradually being extended throughout the school system. Large numbers of Algerians work in France, there is a general preference for such French consumer goods as may still be imported, and France continues to provide

some assistance with training and equipment for the Algerian armed forces (See below, *Dispute with France*).

The Algerian friendship with the Soviet Union has become steadily firmer since 1965 though this trend has been interrupted by minor disputes from time to time. In 1966, for example, an official delegation walked out of a Moscow conference because of the presence there of members of the outlawed Algerian Communist party. Both during and since the Six Day War there have been demonstrations against the U.S.S.R. for its 'lack of support' of the Arab militants. The economic and military ties are now, however, as strong as the Soviet Union possesses with any Arab state except the U.A.R., Syria and possibly Iraq. The oil industry apart, Soviet advisers are taking a leading role in the development of Algeria's small industrial base and of its considerable mineral resources while the agreement in 1968 to take approximately half the country's wine exports was a major relief for the agricultural sector. The military connection is at least equally strong; the Algerian army is now largely trained and equipped by the U.S.S.R., while the Soviet fleet makes frequent use of the harbours at Algiers and Oran. The Soviet Air Force has access to several formerly French facilities in the interior, of which the base at Tamanrasset (in the extreme south) is especially useful as a staging post for traffic heading south. The Eastern European Communist countries also have friendly relations with the régime and are making a further contribution to the various development programmes under way.

Diplomatic relations with the U.S.A. were broken off in 1967 and have not been restored. Algeria maintains a highly critical, and often openly hostile, attitude to the U.S. in general and its foreign policy in particular, condemnation was introduced in 1967 partly owing to official fears of an American sponsored attempt to dislodge the régime. However, there is still a substantial U.S. investment in the oil industry, and American expertise in this field is respected and encouraged, a contract to sell liquefied natural gas in quantity to the US was signed in 1969. Relations with the United Kingdom broken off in 1965 over Rhodesia were restored in April 1968. Algeria recognized the German Democratic Republic in May 1970, but also expressed willingness to resume diplomatic relations with Federal Germany.

Algerian interest in the rest of Africa has been maintained through the facilities the government affords the liberation movements of white ruled Africa (A.N.C., FRELIMO, MPLA, PAIGC, ZAPU, etc.), as well as those opposed to indigenous governments (the Eritrean Liberation Front and the National Liberation Front of Chad). The First Pan African Cultural Festival was held in Algiers during 1969.

The renewed tension with Morocco over frontier disputes in March and April 1967 was alleviated by the Palestine war but re-emerged during the autumn as a result of the increased American military aid to Morocco. However, relations improved during 1968, and in January 1969 President Boumedienne paid his first official visit to Morocco and had talks with King Hassan II. In June 1969 the frontier posts were officially re-opened for the first time since 1963. Relations between Algeria and her neighbours have been greatly improved recently—in December 1969 an agreement was signed with Mauritania and in January 1970 a friendship treaty was signed with Tunisia, pledging peace between the two countries and agreeing on their common borders. In May 1970, King Hassan of Morocco and Pres. Boumedienne signed an agreement in Tlemcen, settling their long-standing border dispute and pledging mutual co-operation on the question of the Spanish presence in North Africa. An agreement between Algeria and Mali is also expected. Whilst Algeria welcomed

the Libyan revolution, the orientation of its leaders towards Egypt and the Sudan rather than the Maghreb has limited the closeness of relations between the two régimes. An agreement to co-ordinate oil policies has, however, been signed.

Algerian involvement in the Palestine war was small owing to its shortness, but several squadrons of MiGs and some troops were sent to Egypt. The government took action against British and American economic interests as a result of these countries alleged military involvement with Israel. On the signing of a cease-fire there were street demonstrations against Nasser's "treason". There were similar demonstrations against the Soviet Union over her lack of support for the Arab countries and Boumedienne visited Moscow in an attempt to get a clear statement of Soviet policy over Israel. At the Khartoum conference and the United Nations Algeria, with Syria, remained the most belligerent of the Arab countries calling for a "people's war" of the type that they fought against the French. As a token of support, Algeria maintained a fighting force of some 2,000 men along the Suez Canal until August 1970.

France handed over the Saharan military bases in July 1967 and the Mers El Kebir naval base on January 31st, 1968. French forces also started to withdraw from the Bou-Sfer airbase near Mers El Kebir at the end of 1970, although they could have remained there until 1977 under Franco-Algerian agreements.

OPPOSITION TO BOUMEDIENNE

The uneasy alliance between opponents of Ben Bella, which enabled Col. Boumedienne to take over in June 1965, finally broke down at the end of 1967. Boumedienne's close supporters until then were: the so-called "Oujda group"—Bouteflika (Minister of Foreign Affairs), Medeghri (the Interior), Kaid Ahmed (Minister of Finance until December 11th, 1967, and now head of the F.L.N.) and Cherif Belkacem (head of the party executive and subsequently Minister of Finance); ex-members of the G.P.R.A. such as Ben Yahia (Information), Lamino Khane (Public Works), and Belaid Abdesselam (Industry and Energy); and the new professionals in the administration and army. Opposed to these groups was a much more amorphous coalition of left-wing ministers—Ali Yahia (Agriculture) and Abdelaziz Zerdani (Labour), the U.G.T.A., the students and some sections of the army, notably the ex-Wilaya leaders. This last group were faced with the rapid imposition of a technocratic and centralized conception of socialism by the first group, leading obviously to the complete destruction of the original tenets of Algerian socialism, most specifically that of *autogestion*—workers' self-management in agriculture and industry. Besides this the ex-Wilaya leaders felt that the original principle of the 1965 *coup*—collegial rule, was being supplanted by the power of the small group round Boumedienne, a return to dictatorship on the Ben Bella pattern.

In the first half of 1967 this conflict was muted except for a student strike in February and student demonstrations on May 1st. Indeed the communal elections held for the first time in February were proclaimed an official success with a 71 per cent turnout. Other reports show that the opposition policy of abstention was followed in the Kabylie and Oran regions, where a very low poll was claimed, and in the Algiers region with only a 50 per cent poll. The Palestine war had the effect of promoting a certain amount of unity in the country but by the end of June the conflict had broken out again. Abdesselam launched a series of attacks on union officials and left-wing employees in several areas of the socialist sector in industry, particularly oil and gas. In reply the U.G.T.A. threatened to hold a general strike, only averted by Boumedienne's mediation and the appointment of a committee of enquiry.

In the autumn Ali Yahia resigned from the Ministry of Agriculture over Ahmed Kaid's refusal to supply finances to help the *autogéré* sector of agriculture. In face of the growing crisis the ex-Wilaya leaders demanded a meeting of the Council of the Revolution, which was refused by Boumedienne who was uncertain of getting a majority. At the November 1st parade on the anniversary of the Revolution Tahar Zbiri, army chief of staff and prominent ex-Wilaya leader, was absent. On December 11th Kaid Ahmed was put in charge of the F.L.N., replacing the old executive of Cherif Belkacem and several ex-Wilaya leaders.

Against the growing power of the "Oujda group" and the ex-G.P.R.A. politicians Col. Zbiri launched an armed rising in the Mitidja on December 14th but this was put down by December 16th. The rising failed because most of the ex-Wilayards held only honorary posts in the A.N.P., all the key posts being held by the younger professionals loyal to Boumedienne. Col. Zbiri, however, was not captured and was joined in hiding by Abdelaziz Zerdani, the left-wing Minister of Labour, and other supporters in the army, administration, party and unions. Cols. Mohand Ou El Hadj, Salah Boubnider and Katib Youcef, ex-members of the F.L.N. executive, also disappeared. A wave of arrests in the unions and administration and selective dismissals in the F.L.N. and A.N.P. helped to secure Boumedienne's position.

A prolonged strike by students and teachers at Algiers University during February 1968 over arrests of student leaders and F.L.N. attempts to impose a new loyal union committee showed that opposition to Boumedienne was by no means crushed.

In the spring of 1968 there were numerous reports of guerrilla activity in the Aurès and Kabylie by opponents of the régime. The Organization of Popular Resistance (O.R.P.), the only effective opposition group in the country, far from being crushed by the régime, appeared to be active both in these areas and in the student union. In a ministerial reorganization on March 7th Boumedienne filled three vacant posts with well-known supporters—Cherif Belkacem (Minister of Finance), Tayebi Larbi (Minister of Agriculture) and Mohand Said Mazouni (Minister of Labour). Boumedienne's insecurity was further emphasized by an attempted assassination on April 25th in Algiers. The President escaped with minor injuries but only two of his assailants were accounted for.

THE REGIME'S GROWING STRENGTH

During the last half of 1968 the position of the government began to strengthen. President Boumedienne felt able to make several trips into the provinces without special security precautions in the autumn of 1968. In March 1969 a number of secret trials were held; the fact that court proceedings of any kind took place was seen as a sign of strength, since political prisoners were usually detained indefinitely without trial. Considerable numbers of the less important prisoners were released during the year.

Following on from the February 1967 communal elections the second stage of the reform of governmental institutions was put into operation in May 1969 with the election of assemblies for the fifteen administrative districts (Wilayas). Again, electors in each Wilaya had the choice between F.L.N. candidates, and there was a 72 per cent turnout. With the expiry in February 1971 of the mandate of the communal assemblies, new elections were held for the 691 assemblies, and there was a slightly improved response from the six million voters of about 75 per cent. However, the third and final stage of the institutional reforms—elections for a National Assembly, the first since 1964—has yet to be initiated.

Further evidence of Boumedienne's increasing strength followed the celebration in June 1970 of his first five years in power. In that month he undertook an extensive tour of western Algeria. In July the first major cabinet changes since he took over only served to emphasize the regime's stability—all the President's key colleagues retained their places and the main point of interest was the splitting of the Education Ministry into separate Ministries for Primary and Secondary Education and for Higher Education and Scientific Research, a development which underlined the government's economic and social priorities. On the anniversary of the revolution in November Boumedienne felt able to amnesty 100 people in prison or under house arrest including the more important prisoners. Among those who benefited were three close associates of Ben Bella—Hadj Ben Alla (former Speaker of the National Assembly) Mohamed Nekache (former Minister of Public Health) and Abdelrahmane Sherif (former Minister to the Presidency)—all of whom were arrested at the same time as Ben Bella in June 1965 (Ben Bella himself is still under detention and is believed to be being guarded by officers in a secluded Algiers villa). Also freed under the amnesty were three leaders of the ORP, arrested in September 1965 including Bachir Hadj Ali, former Secretary of the Communist Party and more recent opponents of the régime who had been tried in 1969.

The release of such former enemies of Boumedienne gave some indication of the weakness of the underground opposition. The only opposition group to be heard of recently (mainly through its clandestine bulletin *la Voix du Peuple*) is the Party of the Socialist Vanguard (P A G S) formed from remnants of the ORP. But even this has been drawing closer to government thinking since the June war and its support appears now to be mainly among students.

In fact it has been among the school and university students that discontent with the government has been most evident. A strike in December by secondary school children against working conditions was supported by university students and led to violent clashes with the police. More seriously the arrest in January 1971 of eight Algiers university students (two of whom were later released) resulted in a strike at the university, the dissolution by the government of the National Union of Algerian Students (U N E A), the introduction of a university security force and in February the banning of all meetings, demonstrations and distribution of leaflets on the campus. The six detained students were accused of subversive activities and of having connections with the P A G S, which the government also claimed controlled the U N E A. Whether political disaffection among students was wide enough to justify such draconian measures is difficult to establish. While most students are sympathetic to the aims of the F L N and its achievements, many would be affected by poor employment prospects. In the 1966 census 610,000 people were enumerated as unemployed, 260,000 of them being young people looking for a first job and the general situation is still chronic.

DISPUTE WITH FRANCE

The corollary of Boumedienne's strengthening position at home was his more militant attitude towards France and on the Palestinian question. In particular he could afford to demand more from France for her share of Algeria's oil and what began as a dispute between the two countries over how much per barrel the French oil companies should pay the Algerians culminated in a dispute over how much compensation the Algerians should pay the French companies for nationalizing their interests.

The stages by which this situation was reached followed logically. In the first half of 1970 the Algerian Government pressed the French oil companies to accept an increase in the price at which each barrel of oil exported from Algeria was assessed for fiscal purposes (the tax reference price). The two companies concerned the *Compagnie Française des Pétroles* (C F P) and the *Entreprise de Recherches et d'Activités Pétrolières* (E R A P) were responsible for some two thirds of Algeria's total production. In July after negotiations had broken down the Algerian Government unilaterally decided the new price of \$2.85 per barrel, 77 cents above the former level.

Talks were resumed at government level in September but given Algeria's willingness to become a Mediterranean Cuba rather than remain a victim of what she considered French neo-colonialism they continued fitfully and without progress until they were abandoned on February 4th 1971. The French thought they were in a stronger position after the agreement in Teheran of February 14th between the international oil companies and the Gulf states which raised posted prices by only 35 cents but on the 24th President Boumedienne announced the takeover by the government (with a 51 per cent holding) of C F P and E R A P. The same companies' gas and pipeline interests were taken over completely.

The French Government regarded these moves as breaches of the 1965 agreements but could only ask for fair compensation. The Algerians offer of \$100 million was treated with derision by the French who wanted at least eight times as much. In April France decided to discontinue the talks on the oil situation and Franco-Algerian relations appeared to have reached their lowest ebb for years. It was announced that many French technicians and teachers were going to leave Algeria, there were attacks on some of the 650,000 Algerian immigrants in France. The French Government applied a boycott against all Algerian oil and tried to get other major consumers to do the same. At the end of June C F P agreed to operate as a 49 per cent shareholder in Alrep, a new joint Algerian-French company. Compensation and tax reference terms were also agreed. Talks between the Algerian Government and E R A P began in July.

But as in other spheres Boumedienne's militant socialist and nationalist stance has been tempered with realism. Both he and the French appreciate the importance of the Franco-Algerian relationship. Hence the dispute over oil has been ignored where it has suited both sides. In July 1970 agreement was reached with Renault for the construction of a car plant at Oran. In February 1971 an agreement was signed for the supply of natural gas to France over 15 years. As late as May 1971 Algerian gas was still being sold to the French state gas board.

The Boumedienne government's stand on the Palestinian question has remained uncompromisingly militant in the face of the weakening support of other Arab states for the Palestine guerrillas. The Algerians have never accepted the 1967 UN resolution nor the ceasefire (this was the reason given for the withdrawal of Algerian troops from the Suez Canal in August 1970), radio stations of Palestine liberation movements banished from Cairo in July 1970 were allowed to broadcast from Algiers, the Jordanian Government was blamed for the fighting between the army and guerrillas in Jordan. American peace proposals have been rejected. However at the same time Boumedienne is trying to draw closer to the U S A (without going so far as to restore diplomatic relations) because a resumption of dealings is considered desirable with the World Bank which has not granted Algeria any aid since 1963. Hence a diplomat of some importance is to be sent to look after Algerian interests at the Guinean embassy in Washington.

ECONOMIC SURVEY

Algeria covers an area of 2,381,743 square kilometres of which a large part is desert. At the census of 1966 the population was returned at 12.1 million and it grew to an estimated 13.5 million in mid-1970. Between 1958 and 1966 the population grew by 2 per cent annually, probably because of the campaign against epidemics and famine. Since the political troubles and independence, the great majority of Europeans have returned to France (an estimated 65,000 remained in mid-1965); prior to this exodus, 82 per cent of Europeans and 27 per cent of Muslims lived in towns. The number of Muslims in towns is rising rapidly as migration from the rural areas quickens. The largest towns are Algiers, the capital (one million, including the suburbs), Oran (440,000 with its suburbs), Constantine (280,000), Annaba (Bône) (180,000) and Sidi-Bel-Abbès (101,000).

Algeria has varied natural resources. In the coastal region are highly fertile plains and valleys, where profitable returns are made from cereals and vineyards. However, the rest of the country serves little agricultural purpose, though in the mountains, grazing and forestry bring a small income for the native population. Mineral resources are abundant and the discovery of oil and gas deposits was extremely important.

After independence in 1962, the government of M. Ahmed Ben Bella moved to the left, under pressure from the extremist elements of his party. While official policy was of a socialist character, full-scale nationalization was avoided. The government of Col. Boumedienne also proclaims a socialist policy. During his first year in power this was little evident, but in 1966 he brought in additional nationalization measures, nationalizing foreign-owned mines, unoccupied lands (left by Europeans at independence) and insurance companies. These were followed in 1968 by further measures directed against the private sector of industry.

While government policy is theoretically hostile to private enterprise, at present it is recognised that the country cannot manage without private investment, particularly in industry. Lack of technical know-how among Algerians means that industrial expansion is currently dependent on foreign firms. However, the private sector may still prove to be working towards its own extinction, since its active life appears limited in time and scope. Nevertheless, an investment code was drawn up in 1966 which guarantees non-discrimination against foreign firms. It also offers tax incentives to firms contributing to the economic development of Algeria and guarantees the repatriation of profits within certain limits. The repatriation of capital will be guaranteed in some cases; for the rest, exchange control regulations will apply. As an intermediate stage towards wholesale nationalization, the government advocates joint enterprises, in which it participates financially, so that it has a certain measure of influence over private enterprise. Initially, high priority was given to light consumer goods industries which maximize employment in relation to capital employed and which also reduce imports. In this category are textiles and leather goods. More recently the government has concentrated on a few large-scale projects, such as the Annaba steel complex, the Algiers oil refinery and the Arzew gas liquefaction plant.

Nationalized industries include tobacco manufacture, the largest single industry in the country, which was previously run almost entirely by Europeans. It produces about 250 million francs worth of goods annually, contributing around 80 million new francs to government revenue.

Several large hotels have been nationalized—they are now run by a central organization. The government has also taken over a number of small and medium-sized (mostly Muslim) industrial concerns including many in the textile, leather and food industries. The state set up an "Office National des Transports" in 1963 which is intended to have an eventual monopoly of all internal transport. Virtually all sections of the oil industry have been nationalized. In February 1971 the government took over the French petroleum companies which account for about 70 per cent of the country's oil production. The remaining 30 per cent is manufactured by the state oil company SONATRACH, which has been responsible for most developments and expansion in all sectors of the oil and natural gas industries since 1966.

The country's gross domestic product, at current prices, has risen from 13.3 billion dinars in 1964 to 19.8 billion dinars in 1969, equivalent to an average annual growth of over 8 per cent in the five-year period. Per capita income in 1969 was about 1,500 dinars. The Algerian economy, bolstered by expanding oil production, has been undergoing a radical transformation. It has been moving away gradually from agricultural emphasis to industrialization; the authorities have accepted that industrialization is the best long-term means of solving the country's two major economic problems—reorganization of agriculture and utilization of surplus and underemployed manpower. According to the last census in 1966, the active work force was put at 2.5 million, of which 1.5 million (55 per cent) were in the agricultural sector, while about 200,000 were employed by industry. The same census put unemployment at 610,000 and the young in search of their first job at 262,000. A large part of those classed as unemployed were chronically unemployed.

AGRICULTURE

Algeria is still mainly an agricultural country. There are 13.3 million hectares of agricultural land of which 6.2 million are arable, 370,000 are devoted to vines, 200,000 are orchards and 5.2 million are pastures (often desert or semi-desert). Most of the Sahara is devoted to semi-desert pasturage. The most valuable crop is the grape harvest; whilst wheat, barley and oats, grown for local consumption, cover a large area. Other crops include maize, sorghum, millet, rye and rice as well as citrus fruit, olives, figs and dates, and tobacco. Algeria is the third largest date producer in the world. Agricultural development is restricted by problems such as erosion, primitive methods of production, overpopulation and underemployment.

Before independence, roughly 30 per cent of the cultivated land and most of the irrigated areas were owned by Europeans. This is now changed—firstly, many Europeans left Algeria and secondly, many have had their land taken over by the state as part of the general policy of socialization of land. In the long term, the loss of European technical know-how will be detrimental to Algerian agricultural development. Agriculture is also vulnerable to adverse weather conditions, especially droughts and floods. Severe flooding in October 1969, particularly in the Aurès area, left over 150,000 people homeless and largely destroyed the date crop.

In the 1970–73 Four-Year Plan nearly 4,300 million dinars, or 16 per cent of total investment, is allocated to agriculture. This is a relatively low proportion considering that about 70 per cent of the country's population is employed in agriculture.

Land Reform

The first regulations under which settlers were able to hold and transfer land were introduced in October 1962. From that date the state took over any property declared vacant at the same time all property transactions were made illegal in order to prevent profiteering by Muslims. The area of land abandoned and taken over by the state under these first regulations was estimated at 2.5 million acres. Under French government pressure a guarantee fund was set up to provide compensation for expropriated settlers.

Under the first decree the settlers remained the legal owners of the land while the state used it. Six months later however in March 1963 another government decree declared that the state was taking over ownership of abandoned land. This was probably a political move since nothing material was gained. A number of large French landowners subsequently had their land taken away although it was still occupied. The measure was not purely aimed at the French—it also affected Muslim and other property owners. Small landowners in occupation whether French or Muslim remained untouched. In May 1966 all remaining unoccupied property which had been evacuated by settlers was finally taken over by the state.

The land expropriated by the state is managed by *comités de gestion* (workers committees) as state farms. By September 1963 1,525 such organisations had been established of which 411 were in Oran, 234 in Constantine and 41 in Kabylie. The area under autogestion at this date was about 1.7 million ha. After the total nationalisation of French land in October 1963 state farm land accounted for 2.3 million ha, roughly half the cultivable land in Algeria. The socialist agricultural sector employs 100,000 workers and their families out of a total peasant population of 7 million (of which 2 million men are of working age). However it accounts for 75 per cent of the country's agricultural production and over 60 per cent of its exports (excluding oil). State farms account for 85 per cent of the area under the vine.

Crops

The most important crops include

Grapes: The coastal areas of the Mediterranean produce grapes. Vines have been grown in Algeria since antiquity merely for local consumption, however after the coming of the French in 1830 vine growing received substantial encouragement and wines still represent the principal agricultural export. In terms of quantity Algeria has for many years been the world's largest wine exporter, mainly of low quality wine marketed in France. Exports fell sharply after independence. Production of wine has dropped from 18.6 million hectolitres in 1960 to only 6.6 million in 1967 and 8 million in 1970 largely as a result of the withdrawal of European skill and capital. In 1967 the French government revoked the agreement on wine imports which resulted in a large increase in the already considerable unsaleable surplus. The problem was slightly eased by the small harvest that year. In 1968 the USSR agreed to buy about half the present production but for only about half the price paid by the French. In 1971 French imports of Algerian wine virtually ceased on account of hostility from French wine producers and the EEC ruling on wine imports from non member countries.

Cereals: Practically all settler cultivators of cereals have left the country—foreign ownership of wheat land was particularly resented by the Algerian peasantry. Grown principally in the Constantine, Annaba, Sétif and Tيارت areas the area under wheat in 1964 was 2,200,000 hectares. Production has fluctuated considerably since independence, falling as low as 700,000 tons in drought years but

reaching 1,800,000 tons in 1963–64. In 1966–67 it was 1,266,000 tons.

The area under barley in 1964 was 668,000 hectares. Production was 847,000 tons in 1960–61 but it has failed to reach this level since and has fallen sharply since 1964. In 1966–67 the harvest amounted to 300,000 tons. Rice, maize and sorghum are also grown.

Olives: Olives are grown in the western coastal belt. Production fluctuates because of the two-year flowering cycle of the olive but rose from 14,000 tons in 1960–61 to 32,000 tons in 1967–68.

Citrus Fruits: Citrus is grown in the coastal districts. In 1965 the crop was 415,000 tons comprising 255,000 tons of oranges, 45,300 tons of mandarins, 75,000 tons of clementines, 15,000 tons of lemons and 15,000 tons of grapefruit. In 1966 the crop rose to 463,000 tons of which 216,000 tons were exported, mostly to France, Federal Germany, United Kingdom, Benelux and the USSR.

Tobacco: Tobacco is the main industrial crop. Some 10–12,000 tons of leaf are processed annually producing 3,500 tons of tobacco. It employs some 13,000 persons.

Livestock: Sheep and goats are raised principally by Muslims. At the end of 1966 sheep numbered 13 million. Cattle, donkeys, horses, pigs and goats are also kept. Livestock raising was severely hit by the military policy of regrouping rural communities and has taken several years to recover.

Forestry

Forests covered some 3.04 million hectares in 1961. Though largely brushwood there are large areas of cork oak trees, Aleppo pine, evergreen oak and cedar, dwarf palm is grown in the plains and alfalfa on the table-land. The timber is used for industrial purposes—railway sleepers and telegraph poles as well as firewood and in the tanning industry.

Fishing

In 1959 under 5,000 persons were employed in fishing. Sardines, anchovies, sprats and tunny fish are caught. The catch shrank from 22,250 tons annually to around 17,000 tons in both 1963 and 1964, but rose again to 20,000 tons in 1966 and 22,000 tons in 1967.

MINERALS

Algeria has rich mineral resources and these are already an important item in the country's foreign trade. The future promises even larger exports as petroleum and gas are exploited more intensely. Since before the petroleum era Algeria has mined and exported high grade iron ore, phosphates, lead, zinc and antimony. Production generally has fluctuated over recent years. An index of mining production excluding oil and gas (1963=100) reached 131 in 1965 but only 71 in 1966 and 97 in 1967, rising again to 127 in 1968. In 1964 the mining industry excluding oil employed 14,000 persons. In May 1966 the government nationalized eleven foreign owned iron ore, lead, copper and zinc mines promising compensation. The most important company affected was the French Société de l'Ouenza which accounted for over 75 per cent of total iron ore production.

Iron Ore: Iron ore is found at Beni Saf, Zaouar, Tamezrit and near the eastern frontier at Ouenza and Bou Khadra. The average grade of ore is between 50 and 60 per cent. Lack of transport facilities prevents the exploitation of substantial deposits at Tindouf in the Sahara. Production reached a peak in 1960 at 3,444,000 tons. It declined in subsequent years but reached a post independence peak of 3,132,000 tons in 1965, since when there has been another decline. Production was only 1,764,000 tons in 1966 and

2,568,000 tons in 1967. However, it increased to 3,453,000 tons in 1968 and 3,765,000 tons in 1969. The deposits at Ouenza represent 75 per cent of total production. The mine at Khanguet-el-Mouhad near the Tunisian frontier began exploitation in 1958. Italy is the biggest customer, followed by the United Kingdom.

Coal. Bituminous coal is mined at Colomb Béhar-Kenadza and Ksiksou but adequate and regular transport is needed. Production dropped steadily from 153,000 tons in 1958 to 34,800 tons in 1964, rose to 44,000 tons in 1966, but dropped to only 16,800 tons in 1967 and very little in 1968 and 1969. Most of this coal is consumed locally, though a little is exported to Morocco. A feasibility study is being carried out on the possible development of coal deposits at Abadla, near Colomb-Béhar.

Zinc. The most important deposit is found on the Algerian-Moroccan frontier at El-Abed-Oued Zouder, which is an extension of the Moroccan deposits. Two forms of zinc are found in Algeria—blende and calamine. From 1960 to 1965 production fluctuated only slightly around 65,000 tons, but in 1966 it dropped to around a third of this level. By 1969 it had recovered to 56,000 tons. Most of this production is exported to France, Spain, Belgium and West Germany.

Lime Phosphates. There is a deposit at present exploited—at Kouif on the Tunisian frontier, which is nearly exhausted. It is used by the fertilizer industry. Another mine at M'Zaita was closed in 1957. Exploitation of large deposits at Djebel-Onk, 340 km. from Annaba, began in 1960. Total production dropped from 420,000 tons in 1961 and 1962 to 72,000 tons in 1964 and 86,000 tons in 1965 and 93,900 tons in 1966. With full-scale operations at Djebel-Onk production is eventually expected to reach a much higher level. France and Spain are the principal buyers of Algeria's phosphates exports.

Other Minerals. Lead is mined at El Abed on the Moroccan border; production in 1969 was 7,000 tons. Other mineral resources include antimony, tungsten, manganese, mercury, copper and salt. Under study are plans for an aluminium smelter, possibly at Mostaganem.

PETROLEUM

Oil. Production of crude oil in the Sahara on a commercial scale began in 1958. The original principal producing areas were at Hassi Massaoud in Central Algeria and round Edjeleh-Zarzaitine in the Polignac Basin near the Libyan frontier. In 1966 production was boosted by substantial quantities of crude from fields at Gassi Touil, Rhourde el Baguel and Rhourde Nouss with the opening of the third pipeline to the coast. Subsequent discoveries of oil have been made at Nezla, Hoaud Berkaoui, Ouargla, Mesdar and El Borma, and more recently at Hassi Keskesa, Guellala and Tin Fouyé. In 1969 Algeria joined the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC).

From 1.2 million tons in 1959, Algerian production of crude oil rose to a ceiling of 26 million tons in 1964 and 1965, limited by the capacity of the two pipelines to the coast, one from the eastern fields through Tunisia to la Skhirra, owned by Cie. de Recherches et d'Exploitation de Pétrole au Sahara and the other from Hassi Massaoud to Bejaia on the Algerian coast, owned by SN Repal and Cie. Française des Pétroles (Algérie). The Hassi Massaoud pipeline also serves other fields further inland. The combined capacity of these two pipelines is now over 30 million tons, as a result of the installation of additional pumping stations. The government set up its own company, Société Nationale pour la Recherche, la Production, le Transport, la Transformation et la Commercialisation des Hydrocarbures (SONATRACH) to be responsible for the construction of a third pipeline 28-inch in diameter and 805 km. long from Hassi Massaoud to Arzew on the coast. This pipeline

came into operation early in 1966, with an initial capacity of 10 million tons of crude oil per year, raised in 1967 to 18 million tons per year and by 1970 to the maximum of 22 million tons per year. The new pipeline permitted a steady increase in total production to over 42 million tons in 1968, 44 million tons in 1969 and 47.5 million in 1970.

Algeria's fourth crude oil pipeline is under construction from Mesdar to Skikda. The first section will link the Mesdar oilfield to Haoud el Hamra (to be completed in 1970) and a second section will extend to Skikda (to be completed in 1971). It will have an initial capacity of 18 million tons per year with the possibility of expansion to 30 million tons.

The government has its own stake in the oil industry mainly through the rapidly expanding SONATRACH organization. It has a 50 per cent participation in the Société Nationale de Recherches et d'Exploitation des Pétroles en Algérie (SN REPAL) which with the Cie. Française des Pétroles owns the Hassi Massaoud oilfield and the Hassi R'Mel gas field. The other field is worked by CREPS (Cie. de Recherches et d'Exploitation de Pétrole au Sahara), owned jointly by Royal Dutch/Shell and French government petroleum companies and holding companies.

In 1966 SONATRACH bought BP's distribution network and its share in the Algiers refinery. A year later the Esso and Mobil marketing organizations were nationalized, and in May 1968 the nine remaining networks (mostly French except for Shell Algérie) were also taken over and SONATRACH became the sole domestic distributor. The Algerian market is, however, small and shrinking, amounting to around one million tons per annum. SONATRACH acquired majority control of the Algiers refinery (capacity 2.5 million tons/year) in 1969, when it obtained Total's share in the refinery. The minority shareholders in the refinery are CFP (20 per cent) and Shell (24 per cent). Crude supplies are delivered by a 135 km. spur from the main pipeline to Bejaia. A small 100,000 tons per year refinery at Hassi Massaoud supplies the Saharan market. A 2.5 million ton/year refinery is under construction at Arzew and another of the same size at Skikda, both are owned by SONATRACH.

In 1970 SONATRACH signed a number of contracts for the development of the petroleum industry with the U.S.S.R. organization Technoexport. The first contract relates to long-term petroleum exploitation with systematic research of the Algerian sub-soil; the contract sets an annual production target of 100 million tons of petroleum. The second concentrates on the improvement of production from existing deposits, notably that of Hassi-Messaoud; it aims to increase the deposit's annual output from 20 million tons to 30 million tons. The third contract relates to commencing production of mixed deposits of petroleum and gas which has hitherto never interested companies with concessions.

Natural Gas. Natural gas may become as valuable to Algeria as oil. Reserves are currently estimated at three million million cubic metres. A pipeline from Hassi R'Mel, one of the world's largest gas fields, to Arzew, Algiers and Oran was opened in 1961. The Cie. Algérienne du Méthane Liquide (CAMEL) has a liquefaction plant at Arzew and shipments of natural gas in liquefied form in specially constructed tankers to the U.K. began in October 1964 and to France in March 1965. The U.K. takes 0.7 million tons and France 0.3 million tons annually under contract. Shipments to the U.K. were interrupted for a short time in 1967 after the outbreak of the Arab-Israeli war. Gas sales are increasing but are still very small compared with the reserves; in 1968 sales exceeded 2,000 million cubic metres. Natural gas is currently produced from fields at Hassi R'Mel, Hassi Massaoud, Nord In Amenas and Rhourde el

ALGERIA—(ECONOMIC SURVEY)

Baguel In March 1968 a new field with estimated reserves of 30 000 million cubic metres was discovered at Gassi El Adem some 60 miles south of Hassi Messaoud

In June 1967 an agreement in principle was signed covering the sale of 3 500 million cubic metres of natural gas annually to France as outlined in the 1965 agreement between the two countries. The contract for 15 years was to have begun in 1971 but was later postponed to 1972. France has thus become Algeria's largest customer for natural gas as well as for petroleum. Another pipeline will be built from the gas field at Hassi R'Mel to a new liquefaction plant on the coast at Skikda (formerly Philippeville) to be operated jointly by SONATRACH (50 per cent) and the French State oil company *Entreprise de Recherches et d'Activités Pétrolières et Cie Française des Pétroles (Algérie)*. Scheduled for completion in 1970 it will have a 40-inch diameter and an initial capacity of six billion cubic metres annually which could be doubled at a later date. A group of French firms has secured the contract to build the Skikda liquefaction plant which will have an initial output on completion in 1972 of 3 700 million cubic metres annually of liquefied natural gas (5 000 million ultimately) as well as quantities of ethane and butane/propane.

A fertilizer complex is being built at Annaba which is scheduled for completion in 1972. It will produce 1,500 tons/day of sulphuric acid, 500 tons of phosphoric acid and 500 tons of fertilizer. It will be supplied with phosphates from Djebel Onk and with ammonia from the new petrochemical plant at Arzew which came into operation in 1969. The plant is capable of producing 1 000 tons/day of ammonia as well as quantities of nitric acid, ammonium nitrate and urea. SONATRACH has called for tenders for 120 000 ton/year ethylene plant and an ammonia plant (initial capacity 1 500 ton/day) both at Skikda.

In 1969 the contract was awarded for the construction of an LPG/condensate pipeline between Hassi Messaoud and Arzew. Production of condensate at Hassi R'Mel amounted to 524 000 tons in 1968 but will increase steeply when the pipeline to Skikda comes into operation. In the past LPG at Hassi Messaoud has been flared.

Discussions on sales of natural gas to Spain and Italy have been going on for some years but have still not been finalized. In the meantime some small shipments have been made to Spain and US on a short term basis. In October 1969 SONATRACH finally concluded an import and sale to *El Paso Natural Gas Company* under which the US company will import to 000 million cubic metres of natural gas annually over 25 years.

In December 1970 SONATRACH concluded an agreement with Columbia Natural Gas on the provision of 1 quid natural gas whereby SONATRACH will deliver 4 000 million cubic metres of liquefied gas per annum for 25 years. This makes a total commitment of Algerian gas to be supplied annually to the USA. Algeria does not at the present time have the industrial infrastructure to fulfil this obligation. The new four year plan for 1970-73 however provides for the expansion of natural gas liquefaction at Arzew where a second liquefaction plant and a new pipeline are to be constructed at a total cost of over \$600 million of which it is hoped that \$250 million will be in foreign currency. Construction of a methane factory at Arzew is to commence shortly. The 35 million dinars required to finance the factory will be provided by a British loan repayable in seven years as from the end of 1972 (when production is due to start) at 5 per cent interest. The factory will have a daily productive capacity of 300 tons and will form part of an industrial complex which will also comprise installations for the production of synthetic resins.

Oil Law The original Sahara Oil Code of 1958 provided for a 50/50 profit sharing between the operating company and the government based on realized prices. The oil code was confirmed in the 1962 Evian agreement but in July 1965 certain alterations were made after long negotiations between the French and Algerian governments affecting the operations of the French oil companies.

Under the 1965 agreement the tenure of existing concessions was guaranteed but some of the financial incentives originally offered to attract exploration were modified or withdrawn. Henceforth tax was calculated on a fixed price (\$2.08 per barrel) nearer the posted price instead of realized prices. Also the 50/50 profit split was abandoned. Between 1965 and 1967 the tax was 53 per cent. In 1968 54 per cent and from 1969 onwards 55 per cent.

A novel feature of the agreement was the proposal for a co-operative association between a French state company and an Algerian state company to engage directly in exploration (and production if oil was found). The area covered by the co-operative association was to be obtained by the obligatory surrender by French companies of exploration permits within certain defined areas which looked promising and were accessible to existing pipelines and where they had so far not found oil. Where French companies were associated with non-French companies alternative arrangements were to be made. Each of the partners in the co-operative association was to be responsible for financing its own costs but the French company was to help the Algerian company by means of loans.

The French partner was SOPEFAL, a state company set up specifically for the purpose and the Algerian SONATRACH. The co-operative association began operations in July 1966 and subsequently registered several exploration successes notably at Medjar (south-east of Hassi Messaoud), El Borma near the Tunisian frontier, Hassi Keskessa, Oued Noumer and the new gasfield at Gassi El Adem. SONATRACH's own share of crude oil production in 1967 amounted to over 4.5 million tons and rose to 9 million tons in 1969.

Under a July 1964 decree restrictions were placed on all transfers of currency from Algeria to France. Oil companies in particular were not allowed to transfer abroad more than 50 per cent of their gross turnover. Companies such as drilling firms and other servicing firms were not to transfer any funds without permission which was given for up to 35 per cent of turnover. At the time of the Israeli Arab war in June 1967 the percentage of earnings to be kept in Algeria by non-French companies was raised to 100 per cent. All British and American companies were put under state supervision but no change of ownership was then involved.

After the signing of the 1965 French Algerian agreement the Algerian government tried to make all other companies agree to stricter fiscal terms and arbitration terms although not the same as those applicable to the French companies. The companies involved were American—Sinclair, Phillips, Mobil, Tidewater/Veedol and El Paso—together with *Cie des Pétroles d'Algérie (CPA)* in which the Royal Dutch/Shell group has 65 per cent and French interests 35 per cent holdings. Under strong protest these companies finally paid the increased taxes demanded.

In 1968 and 1969 the government put pressure on all producing companies except Getty to raise posted prices which with the exception of CPA they eventually agreed to do reluctantly. The new posted prices effective March 31st 1969 were \$2.665 per barrel ex Arzew, \$2.65 ex Bougie and \$2.61 ex La Skhirra, representing rises of 30-31 cents and a return to pre-1964 price levels.

Getty (formerly Tidewater/Veedol) was the first of the American companies to agree new terms. At the end of

1968 it signed an agreement under which it established a joint venture association with SONATRACH for exploration and production, with the state company having a 51 per cent participation and acting as operator. SONATRACH thus secured a share in the Rhourde el Baguel oilfield (production 4 million tons in 1967). Tax reference prices were set at a level between those for French companies and those for other American companies. Getty has to retain 75 per cent of its earnings in Algeria.

In June 1970 the local interests of Shell, Phillips, Elwerath and AMIF were nationalized, following protracted negotiations which failed to achieve agreement on tax reference prices. The four companies, which together produced about 5 million tons of crude annually, were merged into SONATRACH, which thus became Algeria's largest producer.

In February 1971, Algeria nationalized the French oil companies operating in the country, as well as pipeline networks and natural gas deposits. This decision follows a long period of tension in relations with France which began in July 1970, when the government announced that the taxation reference price was to be increased. Since that time, negotiations have been in progress almost constantly and, for a period, it seemed that relations were improving as a result of the French order to its petroleum companies to pay an advance on back taxation. However, relations between France and Algeria in the petroleum sphere now seem to be at an end. The government has announced that its decision to nationalize is not open to negotiation and that control and management must be the responsibility of Algerians. French companies produce about 33 million tons of oil a year out of the country's total oil production of 47.5 million tons per annum. (See also Algeria, History.)

INDUSTRY

The industrial sector of the Algerian economy is still very small. Industries are confined to food processing, building materials and the chemical industries linked to the phosphate and other mineral deposits, and textiles. The government lays particular emphasis on the industrialisation of the country—under the Constantine plan, large tax concessions were among incentives offered in an effort to speed up industrialisation. However, little has been realised as a result of the political troubles and uncertainty. The market received a serious setback in 1962, when the French soldiers and settlers left the country and manufacturing industry suffered accordingly from a fall in demand, a shortage of technicians and flight of capital. This damage has yet to be made up. Two of the three large-scale projects, begun under the Constantine Plan, have materialized—the Algiers refinery and the Arzew gas liquefaction plant. The third, the Annaba (Bône) steel complex, came into operation in June 1969 after long delays. The complex includes a smelter, steelworks, rolling mill as well as a pipe-mill. The pipe is used by SONATRACH for new oil and gas pipelines. Among new industries planned in the eastern part of the country are the Ghazaouet plant for zinc (10,000 tons per year) and an aluminium plant (100–120,000 tons per year). Other industrial projects are planned by French firms under the terms of the French “tied” loans with the participation of the Algerian government. These include motor factories (Renault), tractors (Fiat and Simca), two textile factories at Constantine and Souk-Ahras. Other projects financed by “tied” loan are the Bon-Namoussa dam and water supplies for Annaba and Duzerville. Further projects are being made possible by foreign aid, but private foreign investment is still reluctant to come to Algeria. In May and June 1968 over 40 companies in the food, chemical, mechanical and construction material industries were nationalized. The West Germans have secured contracts for the construction of an engin-

eer complex at Constantine, which will produce 10,000 engines and 5,000 tractors annually. Three new paper mills are planned; one at El Harrach will be due for completion by 1972. The Italian firm Impianti will build fruit and vegetable canneries in Algeria. The total cost of the two factories will amount to about 1,350 million CFA and it is envisaged that construction will be completed by 1972. Each factory will have an annual capacity of 15,000 tons of fruit and vegetables.

Plans are being implemented for the construction of an industrial complex near Medea, which will come into production in 1973. The complex, which will aim to employ about 1,000, will include foundries, a workshop making pumps and sluices and auxiliary installations. The foundries will include a cast-iron foundry, with productive capacity of 7,500 tons a year, a steel foundry with a capacity of 2,800 tons per year and a small bronze foundry. The workshop for sluices will have a capacity of 3,000 tons per annum of cast-iron finished products and 750 tons a year of steel products.

New power stations are planned at Annaba, Oran and Skikda, with a combined capacity of 440 MW., as part of the rural electrification scheme for the construction of a central-electric generator at Skikda was signed in August 1970 with Czech and French interests. The Skikda project will be the first of its kind in Algeria, and the most powerful in Africa with a capacity of 274 MW. Consumption of electric power in Algeria is expected to increase by about one-quarter during 1970–74 and SONELGAZ aims to double electricity output in five years. Another generator is already being built at Annaba and that at Oran will be enlarged. The distribution network for natural gas is also being extended. Because of the new domestic and industrial demand for gas from 1,000 million cubic metres in 1969 to 4,000 million cubic metres annually in three to four years time.

Industrialization has become the keynote of the government's economic policy and the major investment effort in the 1970–73 Plan is being devoted to this end. Of the \$5,200 million investment envisaged over the plan period about 45 per cent will go to industry, resulting, hopefully, in a rate of growth of 13 per cent per annum on average during 1970–74, compared with 8–9 per cent per annum in 1965–69.

TRADE

Ever since 1948 until recently Algerian foreign trade figures have shown a surplus of imports over exports. The collapse of the domestic market after the departure of the French army and most of the French settlers reduced imports sharply. In 1962 petroleum exports were included in Algerian figures for the first time, i.e. after the two Saharan departments joined Algeria. Oil and natural gas exports have transformed Algerian export figures, as in the case of Libya where oil has only comparatively recently been discovered and where similarly exports were previously limited to agricultural products and some minerals. Algerian exports used to be about 2,000 million dinars but in 1963 the figure was 3,747 million dinars of which oil accounted for 2,167 million dinars. In 1964 exports dropped slightly, amounting to 3,569 million dinars of which oil represented 1,923 million. Small trade deficits were recorded in 1964 and 1965, but there were converted into small surpluses for the following two years. In 1967 imports amounted to 3,155 million dinars, exports to 3,572 million dinars, of which crude oil represented 2,479 million dinars. In 1968 and 1969 a very sharp increase was registered in both imports and exports; in the latter year exports totalled 4,611 million dinars, and imports 4,981 million dinars. In the past Algeria's other main exports have been lime, citrus fruit and iron ore, but export

markets for wine are now difficult to find. In recent years exports of petroleum products and natural gas have become increasingly important. Other exports include vegetables, tobacco, hides and skins, dates and phosphates. Imports consist mainly of foodstuffs (25 per cent in 1967), and capital equipment (31 per cent).

Because Algeria was part of metropolitan France before independence, the lion's share of its trade is still with the former colonial power. France took 81 per cent of Algerian exports in 1961 and supplied 82 per cent of its imports. This share has fallen, but by 1968 France still took 50 per cent of Algerian exports and supplied 70 per cent of its imports. In recent years the U.S.A., Federal Germany and Italy have been Algeria's other main suppliers and the second two, plus the U.K., have also been her principal customers. Trade with Eastern European countries, particularly the Soviet Union, is thought to have been increasing rapidly. A trade agreement with the USSR was signed in March 1969 which will make it Algeria's second trading partner. By virtue of its old relationship with France, Algeria shares in the privileges and advantages of the European Common Market (EEC), benefiting from tariff concessions and development loans. The form of Algeria's future link with the EEC is still being debated complicated by French commercial ties with Algeria.

FINANCE

Until independence, Algeria was mostly dependent on France for its central banking and monetary system, though some of the usual central banking functions were carried out by the Banque d'Algérie. The Banque Centrale d'Algérie, the sole bank of issue of the new Algerian franc, started its operations on January 1st 1963; it has all the usual central banking powers. The Algerian Dinar, which in 1964 replaced the franc, remained at par with the French franc, until the devaluation of the French franc in 1969 when the parity of the Algerian dinar remained unchanged. The banking system has been largely taken over by the state, various restrictions having discouraged private banks (almost all of which were foreign owned, most being subsidiaries of French companies) from continuing their operations in the country. A state monopoly on all foreign financial transactions was imposed in November 1967, this followed a similar monopoly imposed on insurance in June 1966. There are several co-operative agricultural banks, assisted by government funds.

Public Finance

The main sources of budgetary revenue are income tax, turnover tax, customs and indirect taxes and more recently, petroleum receipts which now represent the second largest revenue source. Before independence contributions from France towards day-to-day administrative expenditure, included in the French budget, made it possible to balance the budget, but after 1962 the French no longer contributed. At the time of the political troubles with France the budgetary position deteriorated sharply, when a large proportion of normal tax revenue was lost.

Under the 1968 ordinary budget expenditure is estimated at 3,339 million dinars, some 6.5 per cent higher than 1967. As usual education and defence receive priority. Actual expenditure under the development budgets fell considerably short of target in 1966 and 1967. Estimates for expenditure under the development budget in 1968 were 3,061 million dinars, of which half was to be devoted to industrial projects, with oil and gas receiving the bulk. The 1969 budget shows income at 5,340 million dinars of which 1,250 million dinars are derived from oil and gas.

Before independence Algerian development was largely financed by direct contributions from the French government and by French subscriptions to loans raised by the

"Caisse de l'équipement de l'Algérie". Under the Evian agreement, the French undertook to maintain its aid to Algeria at the pre independence level. In 1963 the French Government gave 950 million francs towards the capital budget and in 1964 997 million francs. Under the 1965 agreement with France the French government agreed to give Algeria 1,000 million francs over five years of which 20 per cent is a gift and the remainder a loan.

A large part of the balance is covered by credits from other foreign countries, both Eastern and Western. Russia is granting a long term loan of 500 million dinars and Communist China 250 million dinars. In 1967 a \$10 million agreement was signed under which Algeria will supply 4.5 million tons of oil to the German Federal Republic over five years in return for capital equipment for the Algerian zinc mines. In 1968 the Italian Government promised a \$10 million loan for the import of Italian industrial equipment. However, since 1963 a contribution for development expenditure has come from petroleum receipts which has since increased substantially.

A development plan, called the Constantine plan, covered the period 1959-69 and envisaged expenditure of 48 billion francs, half of each from the private and public sectors largely on heavy industry. This was abandoned and the Boumedienne government drew up a seven year development plan envisaging a 7 per cent annual growth rate. Industrialization will be the main aim—47 per cent of total investment will go to industry, while agriculture will take 15.7 per cent. Total investment over seven years is estimated at \$1,800 million. A large part of industrial investment will be devoted to the development of petroleum, petrochemicals and the steel industry. Within the framework of the seven year plan, a three-year industrialization programme covering the years 1967 to 1969 was formulated incorporating several projects begun earlier, such as the Annaba steel complex and the ammonia plant at Arzew. Investment totalling 5,400 million dinars was planned over the three years. A new, more ambitious development plan covers the four years 1970 to 1973. Investment is estimated at 26,400 million dinars. The plan aims at a 9 per cent annual growth rate. Emphasis is still on industry which accounts for 45 per cent of investment with oil and gas and steel, mining and chemicals heading the list of priorities, while agriculture receives 15 per cent of investment. Finance for the plan will be derived from oil revenues (20 per cent), profits of state companies, taxes and private investment, some 25 per cent is estimated to come from foreign sources. In August 1970 a series of financial measures were introduced to re-enforce the means of financing the four year plan. Strict limits were set on the amount of foreign currency Algerians could take abroad; businessmen are allowed the equivalent of 100 dinars for each trip. In 1969 Algerians travelling abroad took about 200 million dinars out of the country, while the nation's tourist earnings were only 60 million dinars. Quotas were also fixed for non essential imports: the list includes pigs and pork, game, cheese, silks, biscuits, many kinds of vegetables and fresh fruit, diamonds and precious stones for non industrial purposes, etc. With a few exceptions all the listed goods come from France.

A "Caisse Algérienne de Développement" (Algerian Development Fund) was set up in May 1963, to take over from the French "Caisse d'Équipement d'Algérie". Among other powers, the fund is authorised to extend investment credits for periods up to 30 years, to guarantee investment credits granted by international, foreign or domestic finance institutions and to help finance and import capital goods and establish factories in Algeria. It took over the financial assets of the "Caisse d'Équipement" and also receives funds from the government.

STATISTICAL SURVEY

AREA AND POPULATION

(1966)

AREA (sq. km.)							POPULATION
Total Area	Arable	Pasture	Vineyards	Fruit	Forests	Scrub	Total Population
2,381,743	62,000	96,000	3,700	2,000	35,000	383,750	12,101,994*

* Includes European population estimated at 80,000; omits an estimated 500,000 Algerians abroad.

POPULATION BY DEPARTMENTS

(1966 Census)

Algiers . . .	1,648,200	Oran . . .	958,460
Annaba . . .	950,000	Saida . . .	236,900
Aurès . . .	765,000	Saoura . . .	211,000
Constantine . . .	1,513,100	Sétif . . .	1,237,900
El Asnam . . .	789,600	Tiaret . . .	362,000
Médéa . . .	870,200	Tizi-Ouzou . . .	830,800
Mostaganem . . .	778,800	Tlemcen . . .	444,100
Oasis . . .	505,500		

CHIEF TOWNS

POPULATION (1966 Census)

Algiers (capital) . . .	942,769	Skikda § . . .	88,000¶
Oran . . .	324,481	Mostaganem . . .	74,876
Constantine . . .	254,744	El Asnam† . . .	69,580
Annaba* . . .	168,744	Batna . . .	68,856
Sidi Bel Abbès . . .	105,000¶	Bejaia† . . .	65,012
Sétif . . .	98,384	Biskra . . .	59,052
Tlemcen . . .	96,072	Médéa . . .	53,951
Blida . . .	93,000¶	Tizi Ouzou . . .	53,291

* Formerly Bône. † Formerly Orleansville. ‡ Formerly Bougie. § Formerly Philippeville. ¶ Estimates.

AGRICULTURE

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCE

('000 metric tons)

	1963	1964	1965	1966
Wheat	1,495	1,798	1,330	700
Barley	690	790	377	n.a.
Wine*	1,228	1,248	1,048	1,200
Olive Oil	15	17	18	28
Citrus Fruit	366	410	405	n.a.
Fresh Vegetables ('000 quintals) . . .	3,987	2,841	2,830	n.a.

* Wine production (hectolitres) 1967: 6,666,768; 1968: 10,046,767.

ALGERIA—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

LIVESTOCK (1966—'000)

Sheep	13 000
Goats	7,000
Cattle	3,000
Horses, Asses, Mules	1,500
Chickens	10,000

MINING (metric tons)

	1963	1964	1965	1966
Iron Ore	1,976,900	2,739,000	3,132,000	1,762,000
Coal	38,000	34,800	45,000	n a
Lead	11,763	13 600	14,900	6,300
Zinc	55,923	64,200	63,000	24 600
Iron Pyrites	37,750	61,000	56,876	49 000
Phosphates	348,100	72,000	86,000	93 900
Fuller's earth	81,608	49,200	59,890	n a
Magnesium Sulphate	n a.	20,400	16,410	n a
Barium Sulphate	33,000	31,400	42,770	n a
Crude Oil	23,646,353	26,487,778	26,480,788	33,253,000
Natural Gas (million cu metres)	400	699	1,754	n a.

Crude oil (1967) 39 078,000 tons, (1968) 43,000,000 tons, (1969) 46 000,000 tons
 Iron ore (1967) 2,428,000 tons, (1968) 2,962,000 tons

FINANCE

1 Algerian Dinar = 100 centimes

11 84 Algerian Dinars = £1 sterling; 4 9 Algerian Dinars = U.S. \$1.00.

100 Algerian Dinars = £8 41 sterling = U.S. \$20 24

The Algerian Dinar replaced the Algerian franc, of the same value, in 1964.

BUDGET CURRENT REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE (million dinars)

	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969
Budget (balanced, except in 1965, when 222m dinar deficit)	2,632	2,831	3,200	3,332	3,539	3,890

ALGERIA—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

INVESTMENT EXPENDITURE

	1970	1971
Agriculture	793	1,010
Industry	3,100	3,100
Infrastructure	494	1,543
Education	784	825
Housing and Health	238	220
Others	714	390
TOTAL	6,507	7,088
Add Current Expenditure	4,447	4,915
TOTAL EXPENDITURE	10,954	12,003

FOUR-YEAR DEVELOPMENT PLAN 1970-73

	UNIT	1969 PRODUCTION (ESTIMATE)	1973 (TARGET)
Crude Petroleum	million tons	46	65
Natural Gas	million cu. metres	2,500	6,500
Liquefied Natural Gas	" " "	2,000	5,500
Iron Ore	"'ooo tons "	3,500	3,700
Zinc Concentrates	tons	43,000	127,000
Phosphates	"	520,000	1,470,000
Electricity	million kWh.	1,500	2,800
Crude Steel	tons	—	430,000
Sulphuric Acid	"	61,000	100,000
Manufactured fertilizers	"	120,000	700,000
Refined Sugar	"	—	160,000
Cement	"	950,000	1,800,000
Paper Pulp	"	17,000	70,000
Cotton, Synthetic and Wool Fabrics	million sq. metres	53.4	110

EXTERNAL TRADE (million Algerian Dinars)

	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969
Imports	3,314	3,154	3,155	3,486	4,830
Exports	3,145	3,070	3,572	3,816	4,494

COMMODITIES ('ooo Dinars)

IMPORTS	1967	1968	EXPORTS	1967	1968
Food	775,082	662,531	Petroleum, Crude	2,479,476	2,811,619
Machinery, Non-Electrical	381,314	799,942	Wines	268,699	368,058
Chemicals	312,599	415,400	Edible Fruits and Nuts, Peel of		
Textiles and Textile Articles	285,530	368,285	Melons or Citrus Fruit	150,781	138,625
Transport Equipment	247,930	331,389	Natural Gas	140,709	147,614
Iron and Steel and articles thereof	230,248	405,293	Petroleum Products	126,585	97,060
Electrical Machinery	117,871	161,116	Preparations of Fruit and		
Paper, Paperboard and articles			Vegetables	33,419	39,947
thereof	74,223	72,008	Metallic Ores and Slags	21,067	127,151
			of which iron ore	8,293	105,161

ALGERIA—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

COUNTRIES

	IMPORTS			EXPORTS		
	1967	1968	1969	1967	1968	1969
France	1,877.6	1,989.0	2,138.3	2,118.0	2,075.6	2,458.7
EEC, excluding France	278.5	533.0	1,094.8	731.6	887.6	961.1
Eastern Europe	262.3	192.3	332.9	105.5	202.9	384.2
United States	251.5	303.4	434.0	67.9	21.7	9.0

TRANSPORT

Railways (1967): Passenger-km. 713m., Freight ton-km. 984m.

Roads (1966): Cars 90,000, Buses, Lorries and Commercial Vehicles 76,000 current licences.

Shipping (1968): Vessels entered 5,980; Freight entered 5,025,000 tons; Freight cleared 20,720,000 tons.

Civil Aviation (1968): Passenger arrivals 286,035; Passenger departures 311,733.

TOURISM

Hotel Beds (1968): 8,000.

EDUCATION

(1968-69)

	Boys	Girls	Total
Primary	976,110	575,379	1,551,489
Secondary	85,994	35,407	124,401
Technical	29,848	9,750	39,598
Teacher-Training			
Colleges	4,137	1,601	5,738
Higher	8,283	2,398	10,681

Source: Direction Générale du Plan et des Etudes Economiques, Ministère de l'Economie Nationale, Algiers.

THE CONSTITUTION

(Approved by popular referendum, September 1963)

Preamble

History of the Front for National Liberation (FLN). Fundamental objectives of the Republic. Need for single-party rule.

Articles 1-11; Main Aims and Principles

Algeria is a Democratic and Popular Republic. It forms part of the Arab Maghreb, the Arab World and of Africa. Islam is the official religion, but the State guarantees freedom of opinion and belief and free expression of religion. Arabic is the official language of the State. The capital of Algeria is Algiers, headquarters of the National Assembly and the Government. The National Popular Army ensures the defence of territory and takes part in the country's social and economic activities. The basic administrative unit of the Republic is the Commune.

The main aims of the Republic are to safeguard national independence, territorial integrity and national unity; to exercise power by the people; to build a socialist democracy; to guarantee the right to work and to free education; to eliminate the vestiges of colonialism; to defend individual freedoms; to fight discrimination, in particular that based on race or religion; to strive for peace in the world. The Republic conforms to the Universal Declaration of the Rights of Man.

Articles 12-22; Fundamental Rights

All citizens of both sexes have the same rights and the same duties. All citizens over 19 years have the right to vote. The domicile cannot be violated and secrecy of correspondence is guaranteed to all citizens. No one can be arrested or tried except for legal offences and according to legal procedure. All have a right to a decent life and a fair share of the national income. The Family, main unit of society, is under State protection. Education is compulsory and is offered to all. The Republic guarantees freedom of the Press and other means of information, freedom of association, freedom of speech and public discourse and freedom to hold meetings. Trade unionism, the right to strike, and the participation of workers in the administration of business will be upheld within the framework of the relevant laws. The Republic guarantees political asylum to all who fight for freedom.

The rights and freedoms referred to may not be used to hinder national independence, or to affect territorial integrity, national unity, the institution of the Republic, the socialist aims of the people or the principle of unity of the F.L.N.

Articles 23-26; The National Liberation Front (F.L.N.)

The F.L.N. is the only *avant-garde* party in Algeria. It outlines policy and controls the activity of the National Assembly and the Government. It reflects the deep aspirations of the masses. It educates and leads them. It achieves the objectives of the revolution and establishes socialism in Algeria.

Articles 27-38; Sovereign Rights—The National Assembly

Sovereign rights belong to the people. They are exercised by representatives in the National Assembly, nominated by the F.L.N. and elected for five years by direct and secret ballot. The method of election, number of representatives, and conditions of eligibility are fixed by law and reviewed by a Commission.

The Assembly meets within two weeks of election of its members and confers power on them. It then elects its

President, Bureau, and Special Committees. The President of the National Assembly occupies the second highest position in the State.

The President of the Republic and Members of the Assembly have the power to initiate laws. All members of the Government have the right to attend debates and to address the Assembly. Control over Government acts is exercised by: hearings of Ministers in Committees; written questions; oral questions with or without debate.

Articles 39-59; The Executive

The executive power lies with the Head of State, the President of the Republic. He is nominated by the Party, and is elected by universal direct and secret ballot, for a five-year term. Any Moslem of Algerian origin having all civil and political rights and being 36 years of age or older, may be elected President of the Republic. The President is sworn in by the National Assembly. Foreign diplomats are accredited to the President. The President, on the advice of the Minister for Foreign Affairs, appoints Algeria's Ambassadors and Envoys.

The President: signs, ratifies (in consultation with the Assembly), and ensures the execution of Treaties and other International Agreements; is Supreme Leader of the Armed Forces; declares war and draws up terms for peace, with the approval of the National Assembly; presides over the Higher Councils of Defence and the Law; exercises the right to grant a legal reprieve; nominates Ministers, of whom two-thirds must be members of the Assembly; has sole responsibility before the Assembly; defines and directs Government policies; proclaims and publishes Laws and ensures that they are executed; appoints all civil servants and defence personnel.

The President must promulgate Laws within ten days of their formal transmission by the National Assembly. Within this time limit the President can ask the Assembly to deliberate a second time, and this request cannot be refused. The period of ten days can be reduced at the request of the Assembly in matters of urgent necessity. If the President of the Republic does not proclaim the Laws within the time limit, the President of the Assembly shall do so.

A motion of censure may be tabled against the President if signed by one-third of the members of the Assembly. A majority vote in the Assembly on such a motion shall entail the resignation of the President and the automatic dissolution of the Assembly. This vote by public ballot shall take place after five clear days have expired from the time of tabling the motion. In the case of resignation, death or incapacitation of the President, the President of the Assembly shall carry out the duties of President of the Republic with the assistance of the heads of permanent committees of the Assembly. He shall arrange within two months elections for a new President, and if necessary for a new National Assembly.

The President of the Republic may ask the Assembly to give him the power to make Laws by Decree for a limited period. Such Decrees shall be taken in the Council of Ministers and submitted for ratification by the Assembly within three months. In the case of emergency, the President can take exceptional measures to safeguard national independence and the Institutions of the Republic. The National Assembly then has the full right to meet automatically.

ALGERIA—(THE CONSTITUTION, THE GOVERNMENT)

Articles 60-62, Justice

Justice is done in the name of the Algerian People. The right to defence before the law is recognised and guaranteed. Judges obey only the Law and the interests of the Socialist Revolution. Their independence is guaranteed by Law and by the existence of a Higher Council of Law.

Articles 63-64 The Constitutional Council

The Constitutional Council consists of the President of the Supreme Court, the Presidents of the Civil and Administrative Chambers of the Supreme Court, three nominated members of the National Assembly and a member nominated by the President of the Republic. The members of the Constitutional Council elect their own President, who has no casting vote. Either the President of the Republic or the President of the Assembly may ask the Constitutional Council to judge the validity of Laws and Decrees.

Articles 65-70 Higher Organizations

The Higher Council of the Law consists of the President, the Minister of Justice, the President and Attorney General of the Supreme Court, a Lawyer of the Supreme Court, two Magistrates, one of whom is a judge, elected by their colleagues and six Members of the Assembly elected by the permanent Committee of Justice.

The Higher Council of Defence consists of the President, the Ministers of National Defence, the Interior and Foreign Affairs, the President of the Assembly's Commission for

National Defence and two Members nominated by the President of the Republic.

The Higher Economic and Social Council consists of five Members of the Assembly, the Director of Economic Planning, the Governor of the Central Bank of Algeria, members of the national organizations and representatives of major national economic and social activities appointed by the President. It elects its own President.

Articles 71-74 Constitutional Alterations

The initiative for altering the Constitution lies jointly with the President of the Republic and the National Assembly. Two readings and two votes with absolute majority must be given at an interval of two months to draft any bill. This draft shall then be submitted for approval to the People by referendum. A bill approved by the People shall be proclaimed Law within eight days of the referendum.

Articles 75-78 Temporary Measures

The national hymn is *Kassamen* until such time as an extra-constitutional law shall fix a new national hymn.

The use of French in education shall continue only until the realisation of all Arabic education becomes possible.

After approval of the Constitution by popular referendum it shall be promulgated within eight days. The election of the President of the Republic shall take place within one month of the approval of the Constitution.

THE GOVERNMENT

REVOLUTIONARY COUNCIL

Set up in June 1963 following the arrest of President Ben Bella. With Col. HOUARI BOUMEDIENNE as its President the Council includes the following members:

MOULAY ABDELKADER
ARMED BELHOUCHE
CHERIF BELKACEM
MOHAMMED BEN AHMED

AHMED BENCHERIF
BOUHADJAR BENHADDOU
CHEDDI BENJEDID
ABDERRAHMAN BEN SALEH

ABDELAZIZ BOUTEFLIKA
AHMED DRAIA
AHMED KAID
TAYEBI LARBI

AHMED MEDEGHRI
YAHYAOUTI MOHAMMED
SALAH
SALAH SOUFI

COUNCIL OF MINISTERS

(July 1971)

Prime Minister and Minister of Defence: Col. HOUARI BOUMEDIENNE
Minister of Transport: RABAH BITAT
Minister of the Interior: AHMED MEDEGHRI
Minister of Justice: BOUALEM BEN HAMOUDA
Minister of Industry and Energy: BELAID ABDESSALEM
Minister of Foreign Affairs: ABDELAZIZ BOUTEFLIKA
Minister of Finance: SMAIL MAHROUG
Minister of Agriculture and Agrarian Reform: TAYEBI LARBI
Minister of Primary and Secondary Education: ABDELKRIM BEN MAHMOUD
Minister of Higher Education and Scientific Research: MOHAMMED BEN YAHIA
Minister of Health: OMAR BOUDJELLAL

Minister of Public Works: ABDELKADER ZAIBEK
Minister of Posts and Telecommunications: MOHAMMED KADI
Minister of Commerce: LAYECHI YAKER
Minister of Labour and Social Affairs: MOHAMED SAID MAZOUNI
Minister of Youth and Sports: ABDALLAH FADEL
Minister of Tourism: ABDELAZIZ MAOUI
Minister for Habous: MOULOUD KASSEM
Minister for Ex-Servicemen: MAHMOUD GUENNEZ
Minister of Information: AHMED TALEB
Secretary of State for Planning: KAMEL ABDULLAH KHODJA
Secretary of State: ABDULLAH ARBAOUI

DIPLOMATIC REPRESENTATION

REPRESENTATIVES OF ALGERIA ABROAD

(A) Ambassador; (CA) Chargé d'Affaires.

Argentina: MOHAMMED KELLOV, Buenos Aires (A) (also accred. to Bolivia and Chile).
Belgium: Dr. MESSAOUD AIT CHA'LAL, Brussels (A) (also accred. to Luxembourg, Netherlands and EEC).
Bolivia: (see Argentina).
Brazil: HAFID KARAMANE, Brasilia (A).
Bulgaria: HOCINE BENYELLES, Sofia (CA).
Canada: JAMAL HOUHOU, Ottawa (CA).
Chile: (see Argentina).
China (People's Republic): MOHAMMED CHERIF SAHLI, Peking (A) (also accred. to Viet-Nam D. R.).
Congo (People's Republic): AHMAD HAMID BENSELEM, Brazzaville (CA).
Cuba: ABDULKARIM SOUSSI, Havana (A).
Czechoslovakia: (vacant), Prague (A) (also accred. to Hungary).
Dahomey: (see Ghana).
Finland: (see Sweden).
France: MOHAMMED BADJAWI, Paris (A).
German Democratic Republic: ABD-AL-HAFIZ MANSOURI, Berlin (A).
Ghana: A. BOUCHOUK, Accra (A) (also accredited to Dahomey).
Guinea: DJELLOUL NEMMICHE, Conakry (A).
Hungary: (see Czechoslovakia).
India: ALI LAKHDARI, New Delhi (A) (also accredited to Malaysia).
Indonesia: (vacant), Djakarta (A).
Iraq: TEWFIK MADANI, Baghdad (A).
Italy: ABDULGHANI AKBI, Rome (A).
Ivory Coast: ALI ABDELLAOUI, Abidjan (A) (also accredited to Niger and Upper Volta).
Japan: BRAHIM GHAFI, Tokyo (A).
Jordan: IBRAHIM KABOUYA, Amman (A).
Kuwait: AHMED YEKKEN AL GHASSIRI, Kuwait (A).
Lebanon: MOHAMMAD YAZID.

Libya: ALI KAFI, Tripoli (A).
Luxembourg: (see Belgium).
Malaysia: (see India).
Mali: B. AIDI, Bamako (A).
Mauritania: SALAH BENKOBBI, Nouakchott (A).
Mexico: (see U.S.A.).
Morocco: NOUREDDINE DELLECI, Rabat (A).
Netherlands: (see Belgium).
Niger: (see Ivory Coast).
Nigeria: NOURREDINE DJOUDI, Lagos (A).
Norway: (see Sweden).
Pakistan: AHMED DAKHILI, Karachi (CA).
Romania: (see Yugoslavia).
Saudi Arabia: (vacant), Jeddah (A).
Senegal: MOHAMED KARA TERKI, Dakar (A).
Spain: MUHAMMED KHALID KHELLADI, Madrid (A).
Sweden: HACENE AZIZ, Stockholm (A) (also accred. to Finland, Denmark and Norway).
Switzerland: ABD-AL-RAHIM SETTOUTI, Berne (A).
Syria: LARBI SAADOUNI, Damascus (A).
Tanzania: TAHAR GAID, Dar es Salaam (CA).
Tunisia: TEDJINI HADDAN, Tunis (A).
U.S.S.R.: REDHA MALEK, Moscow (A).
U.A.R.: BRAHIM MEZHOUDI, Cairo (A).
United Kingdom: ABDELAZIZ YADI, London (CA).
Upper Volta: (see Ivory Coast).
Viet-Nam, Democratic Republic: (see China, People's Republic).
Yugoslavia: LARBI DEMAGHLATROUS, Belgrade (A) (also accred. to Romania).

United Nations: ABDEL-LATIF RAHAL, New York (Perm. Rep.).

European Economic Community: (see Belgium).

EMBASSIES ACCREDITED TO ALGERIA

(Algiers unless otherwise stated)

Albania: 50 rue Oukil Mohammed, Birmandreis; *Ambassador:* RIZA TAUSHANI.
Argentina: 7 rue Hamani; *Ambassador:* HORATIO ALBERT PORTELLA.
Austria: Cité Dar el Kef, rue Shakespeare, El Mouradia; *Ambassador:* ALBERT FILZ.
Belgium: 18 ave. Claude Debussy; *Ambassador:* PAUL DENIS.
Brazil: 48 blvd. Mohammed V; *Ambassador:* PAULO LEAO DE MOURA.
Bulgaria: 13 blvd. Bougara Mohammed; *Ambassador:* BORIS VAPTZAROV.
Cameroon: 28 chemin Sheikh Bachir Brahimi; *Ambassador:* FERDINAND LEOPOLD AYONO.

Canada: Berne, Switzerland.
China, People's Republic: 34 blvd. des Martyrs; *Ambassador:* YANG CHI-LIANG.
Congo, People's Republic (Brazzaville): 115 rue Ziad Abdelkader; *Ambassador:* D. MOUNTSAKA.
Cuba: 14 rue Claude Barndard, Le Golf; *Ambassador:* RAFAEL FERNANDEZ MOYA.
Czechoslovakia: Villa Malika, Parc Gattliff; *Ambassador:* VACLAV PLESCOT.
Denmark: 23 blvd. Zirout Youcef; *Ambassador:* DIPLEV GORGEN SCHEEL.
Finland: 2 blvd. Mohammed V; *Ambassador:* O. SAIKKY.
France: rue Larbi Alik, Hydra; *Ambassador:* JEAN BASDEVANT.

ALGERIA—(DIPLOMATIC REPRESENTATION)

German Democratic Republic: (address not available)
Ambassador SEGFRIED KAMFF
Ghana: 62 rue Parmentier Kubba, *Ambassador* YAW
 ALBERT OSEBRE
Greece: 38 rue Didouche Mourad, *Ambassador* G. P
 KAPSAMBELIS
Guinea: 43 blvd. Central Said Hamdine Hydra, *Ambassa*
dor D A IBRAHIMA
Hungary: 18 ave Lyautey, *Ambassador* ZSIGMOND
 ZOLTANE
India: 119 rue Didouche Mourad, *Ambassador* MOHAMMED
 YUNUS
Indonesia: rue Etienne Baillac, Mouradia *Ambassador*
 ARIFIN HARAHAP
Iran: 60 rue Didouche Mourad *Ambassador* DJARANGUIR
 TAFAZOLI
Iraq: 4 rue Areski Abri Hydra *Ambassador* Dr ABDEL
 KRIM KANSANA
Italy: 37 chemin Sheikh Bachir Brahimi, *Ambassador*
 A. F. DI GROPELLO
Ivory Coast: Parc Paradou Hydra *Ambassador* IBRAHIMA
 TOUKE
Japan: 3 rue du Lucien Reynard *Ambassador* YUKIHISA
 TAMURA
Jordan: 25 blvd Colonel Amirouche *Ambassador* Dr
 ATTIVATE AHMED
Kenya: Cairo U A R
Korea, Democratic People's Republic: 49 rue Salvandy
Ambassador O YONG-CHIN
Kuwait: rue Didouche Mourad *Ambassador* NOURI ABD-
 AL-SALAM SHUWAIB
Lebanon: 9 rue Kaid Ahmed el Biar, *Ambassador*
 MOHAMMED ADRA
Libya: 15 chemin Bachir Brahimi *Ambassador* MUHAM
 MED BUSATRI
Madagascar: rue Abdelkadir Aonis, *Ambassador* BESY
 ARTHUR
Mal: Paris France
Mauritania: 33 rue Vercors Bouzanah, *Ambassador* SAAD
 BOUH KANE
Mexico: Cairo, U A R.
Mongolia: rue Marcel Suites Hydra *Ambassador* D
 CHARAV

Algeria also recognizes Afghanistan the Central African Republic Peru Venezuela and the Provisional Revolutionary Government of South Viet Nam

Morocco: 6 rue des Cèdres *Ambassador* MUHAMMED
 STIJLMASSI
Nepal: Cairo, U A R
Netherlands: 23 blvd. Zirout Youcef, *Ambassador* G J
 ANTONIUS VELLING
Nigeria: 2 rue de l'Abrevoir, *Chargé d'Affaires* SOKOYA
 JAMES
Norway: Rabat Morocco
Pakistan: 14 ave Souddani Boudjemâa *Ambassador*
 MAHMOUD SHAFQAT
Poland: 37 ave Mustafa Ali Khodja El Biar, *Ambassador*
 EDWARD WYCHOWANIEC
Romania: 24 rue Si Areski Hydra, *Ambassador* NICOLAE
 SIPOS
Saudi Arabia: chemin des Glycines *Ambassador* RIAD AL
 KHATIB
Senegal: 50 ave Souidani Boudjemâa *Ambassador*
 LATYR KAMARA
Spain: 10 rue Tirtman, *Ambassador* CARLOS INIESTA CANO
Sudan: 27 rue de Carthage, Hydra, *Ambassador*
 ABOUBAKR OSMAN MUHAMMED SALEH
Sweden: 4 blvd. Mohammed V *Ambassador* CLAES KONIG
Switzerland: 27 blvd Zirout Youcef *Ambassador* JEAN-
 DENIS GRANDJAN
Syria: chemin de la Madeleine El Biar, *Ambassador* Dr
 M K BAAS
Tunisia: 11 rue du Bois de Boulogne Hydra, *Ambassador*
 HABIB SHATLY
Turkey: Villa dar el Ouard, blvd. Colonel Bougara
Ambassador EFDAL DERINGIL
U S S R: chemin du Prince d Annam, El Biar, *Ambassador*
 SERGE GROUZINOV
United Arab Republic: chemin de la Madeleine, Hydra,
Ambassador NAGUIB H EL SADR
United Kingdom: 7 chemin des Glycines *Ambassador*
 RONALD BURROUGHS
Vatican: (address not available), *Apostolic Delegate* Mgr
 SANTE PORTALUPI
Viet-Nam, Democratic Republic (North Viet-Nam): rue de
 Chenoua, Hydra, *Ambassador* NGUYEN DUC THIENG
Yemen: 74 rue Mokhtar el Menaoud Bouraba, *Chargé*
d Affaires A M AL ROUDI
Yugoslavia: 7 rue d'Anjou, Hydra, *Ambassador* OSMAN
 DJICILIL

NATIONAL ASSEMBLY

General Elections were held in September 1964 when a single list of candidates presented by the F.L.N. was returned unopposed. The Assembly has not met since 1966.

In October 1969 President Boumedienne announced that a general election would be held during 1970; none was in fact held, and by mid-1971 no firm date for an election had been announced.

There are twelve Permanent Commissions.

POLITICAL PARTIES

Government is based on a one-party system.

Front de Libération Nationale (F.L.N.): place Emir Abdelkader, Algiers; f. 1954; socialist in outlook, the party is divided into a Secretariat, a Central Committee, Federations, Dairas and Kamas; Secretariat: Secretary AHMED KAID.

There are several small opposition groups; all are proscribed and in exile in France or in other Arab countries.

JUDICIAL SYSTEM

The highest court of justice is the Supreme Court in Algiers. Justice is exercised through 132 courts grouped on a regional basis. Three special Criminal Courts have been set up in Oran, Constantine and Algiers to deal with economic crimes against the state. From these there is no appeal. A "Revolutionary Court" was established late in 1968 with jurisdiction over political offences.

President of Supreme Court: M. GATY.

Procurator-General: M. MOSTEFAI.

President of Revolutionary Court: Major ABDELGHANI.

RELIGION

It is estimated that 12 million Algerians are Muslims and the new government has declared Islam the official religion. The Europeans, and a few Arabs, are Christians, mostly Roman Catholics.

Archbishop of Algiers: H.E. Cardinal LEON-ETIENNE DUVAL; 13 rue Khelifa Boukhalfa, Algiers.

THE PRESS

DAILIES

ALGIERS

al Chaab: 20 rue de la Liberté; f. 1962; F.L.N. journal in Arabic.

el Moudjahid: 20 rue de la Liberté; f. 1965; F.L.N. journal in French.

CONSTANTINE

an-Nasr: 100 rue Larbi Ben M'Hidi; French language.

ORAN

al Joumhouria—La République: 6 rue Ben Schouer; f. 1962; French language.

WEEKLIES AND TWICE WEEKLIES

ALGIERS

Algérie Actualité: 20 rue de la Liberté, Algiers; f. 1965; French language weekly.

Bulletin Officiel des Annonces des Marchés Publics Algériens et du Registre du Commerce Algérien: 9 rue Trolhier; twice weekly; Dir. RÉMI SAINT-ANDRÉ.

Office des Nouvelles Algériennes (O.N.A.): 52 rue Didouche Mourad, Algiers; Dir. AHMED KHELIL.

Révolution Africaine: 9 blvd. Khemisti, Algiers; F.L.N. journal in French; weekly; Socialist.

Révolution et Travail: Maison du Peuple; journal of U.G.T.A. in Arabic and French editions; weekly; Dir. BENNIKOUS ABDELKADER.

La Voix de la Mosquée: rue Pêcherie.

PERIODICALS

L'Algérie Economique: 7 blvd. de la République, Algiers; summary of items and commentaries issued by the State news agency; twice monthly.

Bulletin Economique et Juridique: 40-42 rue Ben M'hidi, Algiers; published by Office Algérien d'Action Economique et Touristique (O.F.A.L.A.C.); monthly.

el Djeich: Office de l'Armée Nationale Populaire, Algiers; f. 1963; monthly; Algerian army review; Arabic and French.

Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne: 9 rue Trolhier; f. 1962.

Le Mois en Algérie: 1 ave. Pasteur, Algiers; general review of economic development; monthly.

Nouvelles Economiques: 6 blvd. Anatole-France, Algiers; bulletin of the Algiers Chamber of Commerce; bi-monthly.

Santé: Fédération Nationale de la Santé, U.G.T.A. Maison du Peuple, place du 1 Mai, Algiers; f. 1956; devoted to the cause of medical progress in Algeria; bi-monthly; French; edited by Fédération Nationale de la Santé.

al Shabab: Algiers; f. 1970; published by the F.L.N. youth organization.

Situation Economique: 6 blvd. Anatole-France, Algiers; annual.

PRESS AGENCIES

Algérie Presse Service (A.P.S.): 6 rue Jules Ferry, Algiers; f. 1962; Dir. MOHAMED BOUZID.

FOREIGN BUREAUX

Algiers

ANSA: 6 rue Abdelkrim Khattabi; Bureau Chief ADRIANA ANTONIOLI BOUTI.

Associated Press: B.P. 769; Bureau Chief MICHAEL GOLD-SMITH.

Bulgarian Telegraph Agency (BTA): Zaatcha 5, Muradia; Bureau Chief GORAN GOTEV.

Czechoslovak News Agency (Četeka): 7 rue Lafayette, Imm. Lafayette.

Middle East News: 10 ave. Pasteur, B.P. 800.

Novosti: B.P. 24, Muradia.

The following are also represented: Agence France-Presse, Deutsche Presse-Agentur (DPA), Maghreb Arabe Presse, Prensa Latina, Reuters, Tass, UPI.

PUBLISHER

All privately owned publishing firms have been replaced by a single national organization:

Société Nationale d'Edition et de Diffusion (SNED): 3 blvd. Zirout Youcef, Algiers; f. 1966; publishes books of all types, and is sole importer, exporter and distributor of books and periodicals.

RADIO AND TELEVISION

RADIO

Radiodiffusion Télévision Algérienne (R.T.A.): Imm RTA, 21 boulevard des Martyrs Algiers, Government controlled, Dir MOHAMMED REZZOUG
Arabic Network stations at Algiers, Oran, Constantine
French Network stations at Algiers, Constantine, Oran
Kabyle Network station at Algiers
Supplementary Network stations at Bouira, Tiemcen, Sétif, Souk Ahras, Batna, Bejaia, Tougourt, Laghouat

In 1969 there were 700 000 radio receivers

TELEVISION

Radiodiffusion Télévision Algérienne (R.T.A.): Algiers stations at Algiers, Oran, Tizi Ouzou, Chrea and Constantine, the national network is due to be completed during 1970, but further transmitters will be built to improve reception in the south. Television is taking a major part in the national education programme. Dir M ZITTOU

In 1969 there were 100,000 receivers

FINANCE

(cap = capital, dep = deposits, m = million, AD = Algerian Dinars, Fr = French Francs)

BANKING

ALGIER

CENTRAL BANK

Banque Centrale d'Algérie: 5 boulevard Zouit-Youcef, Algiers, f 1963, cap 40m AD, took over the role of the Banque de l'Algérie, Jan 1st 1963, as the central bank of issue, Gov SEGHIR MOSTAFAI

From November 1967 only the following banks are authorized to conduct exchange transactions and to deal with banks abroad

Banque Extérieure d'Algérie: 11 blvd Colonel Amrouche, Algiers, f 1967 by transfer of the assets of Crédit Lyonnais, Société Générale, Barclays Bank France (Ltd), Crédit du Nord, and Banque Industrielle de l'Algérie et de la Méditerranée in Algeria, chiefly concerned with foreign trade transactions and the financing of industrial development in Algeria cap 20m AD brs in Algiers and ten other principal cities in Algeria

Banque Nationale d'Algérie: 8 blvd Ernesto Ché Guévara, Algiers, f 1966 by transfer of the assets in Algeria of Crédit Foncier d'Algérie et de Tunisie, Banque de Paris et des Pays Bas, and other foreign banks, cap 20m AD, dep (Dec 1968) 3,161m AD, 138 brs. Pres ABDELMALEK TENAM, Sec-Gen MOHAMMED AGAG

Crédit Populaire d'Algérie: 2 blvd Colonel Amrouche, Algiers, f 1966, re-grouping of former credit banks, brs in Algiers, Constantine, Oran and Annaba

INSURANCE

A state monopoly on insurance transactions was introduced on June 1st, 1966

Caisse Algérienne d'Assurance et de Réassurance: 48 rue Dhouche Mourad, Algiers, f 1963 as a public corporation Admin. Gen. C BENELHADJ SAID

Caisse Centrale de Réassurance des Mutuelles Agricoles: 24 blvd. Victor Hugo, Algiers

Société Algérienne d'Assurances: 5 blvd. de la République, Algiers, f 1963; state sponsored company, Chair and Man. Dir MOHAMED BEVSALEM

TRADE AND INDUSTRY

CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE

Chambre de Commerce d'Algier: 6 blvd Anatole France, Algiers, Administrator HACHEMI LARABI

Chambre de Commerce et d'Industrie d'Annaba: Palais Consulaire 4 rue du Cénra, Annaba, Pres AMARA AMAR

Chambre de Commerce de Bejaia: B.P. 105, Bejaia f 1892, 9 mems, Pres HAMOU KEBACHE, Sec-Gen MOHAMED SAID MOUACI

Chambre de Commerce de Constantine: Palais Consulaire ave Zebane, Constantine, Pres BEN MALLI ABDESSELAM

Chambre de Commerce d'Oran: 8 boulevard de la Soummam Oran 16 mems, Pres TAIEB BRAHIM MOKHTAR Sec Gen ABDELHAK NOR'EDDINE, Publs *Rapport Economique Mensuel*, *Bulletin Trimestriel d'Informations Economiques*

Chambre de Commerce et d'Industrie de Mostaganem: avenue Bénédict Bendelhaba, Mostaganem, f 1901, 8 mems, Pres MOHAMED BELHADJ, Sec Gen HARRAG BENBEROU

Chambre de Commerce et d'Industrie de Skikda: avenue Sauten Pinelli Port, Skikda, f 1844, 12 mems; Pres NADJER MOHAMED

Chambre de Commerce Espagnole: 8 rue Amjère, Algiers

Chambre de Commerce Italienne: 6 rue Hamami, Algiers

Jeune Chambre Economique d'Algier: rue de Nîmes, Algiers, Pres M DONNEAUD

There are also Chambers of Commerce at Colomb-Béchar, Ghordaa and Tiemcen

EMPLOYERS' ORGANIZATIONS

Confédération Générale Economique Algérienne—CGEA: 1 rue de Languedoc, Algiers, the principal employers organization also *Chambre française de Commerce et d'Industrie*

Union Générale des Commerçants Algériens: Place des Martyrs, Algiers

PRINCIPAL TRADE UNIONS

Union Générale des Travailleurs Algériens—UGTA: Maison du Peuple, Algiers, f 1956, 300,000 mems, Sec Gen ABDELKADER BENIKOUS, publ *Révolution et Travail* (weekly)

AFFILIATES

Fédération des Travailleurs de l'Alimentation et du Commerce (Federation of Food and Commerce Workers) Maison du Peuple, Algiers, f 1965 14 000 mems; Gen Sec MOULOUD KARENE

Fédération du Bois, du Bâtiment, des Travaux Publics et des Activités Annexes (Federation of Building Trades Workers) Maison du Peuple, Algiers, f 1964, 17 000 mems, Gen. Sec MOKRANE HADDADI

Fédération des Travailleurs de l'Education et de la Culture—FTEC (Federation of Teachers) Maison du Peuple, Algiers, f 1962, 13 000 mems; Gen Sec. MOHAMED FARES

Fédération Nationale des Cheminots (National Federation of Railwaymen) 3 rue Alexandre Dumas, Algiers, Sec-Gen MEZIANE MISRAOUI

ALGERIA—(TRADE AND INDUSTRY, OIL)

Fédération Nationale de l'Energie Electrique et du Gaz d'Algérie—FNEEGA (*National Federation of Utility Workers*): Maison du Peuple, Place du 1er Mai, Algiers; f. 1963; 5,000 mems.; Gen. Sec. CHABANE LABOU.

Fédération des Travailleurs des Mines et Carrières (*Federation of Mine and Quarry Workers*): Maison du Peuple, Algiers; f. 1965; Sec.-Gen. LABOU CHABANE.

Fédération des Travailleurs Municipaux d'Algérie (*Federation of Municipal Employees*): Maison du Peuple, Algiers; 15,000 mems.; Gen. Sec. AHMED ZITOUNI.

Fédération des Travailleurs du Pétrole, du Gaz et Assimilés (*Federation of Oil and Gas Workers*): 21 boulevard Colonel Amirouche, Algiers; f. 1964; 8,000 mems.; Gen. Sec. MOUSSA KEBAILI.

Fédération des Ports, Docks et Aéroports (*Federation of Dock and Airport Workers*): Maison du Peuple, Algiers; f. 1964; 2,500 mems.; Gen. Sec. SAID OUKALI.

Fédération des Postes et Télécommunications (*Federation of Postal and Telecommunications Workers*): Maison du Peuple, Algiers; f. 1964; 6,000 mems.; Gen. Sec. AHMED HAMOUI.

Fédération Nationale de la Santé (*Federation of Hospital Workers*): Maison du Peuple, Algiers; f. 1962; 15,000 mems.; Gen. Sec. BACHIR MERAD.

Fédération Nationale des Travailleurs de la Terre—FNNT (*Federation of Farm Workers*): 4 rue Arago, Algiers; f. 1964; Gen. Sec. BELKACEM BOUCHAFA.

DEVELOPMENT

Caisse Algérienne de Développement: Villa Joly, ave. Franklin Roosevelt, Algiers; f. 1963; Government-sponsored Development Fund to finance industrial and commercial enterprises and exercise credit control by means of medium- and long-term credits in the private sector.

Caisse Centrale de Coopération Economique (C.C.C.E.): 22 rue Larbi Alik, Hydra, Algiers; f. 1968; Dir. JEAN GAMBETTE.

Caisse Nationale des Marchés de l'Etat: 4 boulevard Mohammed V, Algiers; f. 1962; Dir. M. ANDRÉ.

Office Algérien d'Action Commerciale—O.F.A.L.A.C.: 40-42 rue Benmehidi Larbi, Algiers; f. 1962; quality control and technical advice to exporters; Dir. H. HANOUIZ.

Organisme de Coopération Industrielle—O.C.I.: Imm. Colisée, rue Ahmed Bey, B.P. 801, Algiers; f. 1965 to carry out the duties of the *Organisme Saharien* in the field of industry; loans granted 1,000 m. A.D.; Pres. ABDERRAHMANE KHENE; Dir.-Gen. GABRIEL VAN LAETHEM.

Société Centrale pour l'Equipment du Territoire—S.C.E.T. Coopération: 8 rue Sergent Addoun, Algiers; Dir. A. GAMBRELLE.

Société Nationale d'Etudes de Gestion, de Réalisations et d'Exploitations Industrielles—S.N.E.R.I.: 50 rue Khélifa Boukhalfa, Algiers.

NATIONALIZED INDUSTRIES

Office Algérien des Pêches: Algiers; state trawling organization; to acquire 80 trawlers under the 1970-73 Four-Year Plan.

Société Nationale Algérienne de Construction Mechanique (SONACOME): Algiers; sole manufacturer and importer of motor vehicles, agricultural equipment and allied products.

Société Nationale d'Edition et de Publicité (ANEP): 1 Ave. Pasteur, Algiers.

Société Nationale des Industries Textiles (SONITEX): 5 rue Abane Ramdane and 2 rue An-Nassim El Hammadi, Algiers.

Société Nationale Métallique: Algiers; f. 1968.

Société Nationale des Matériaux de Construction: Algiers; f. 1968.

Société Nationale de Recherches et d'Exploitations Minières (SONATREM): 127 Bd. Salah Bouakouir, Algiers.

STATE TRADING ORGANIZATIONS

Office Algérien Interprofessionnel des Céréales (OAIC): Algiers; monopoly of trade in cereals.

Office des Fruits et Légumes d'Algérie (OFLA): 12 ave. des Trois Frères Bouadou, Birmandreïs, Algiers; division of the Ministry of Agriculture and Agrarian Reform; exports vegetables, fresh and dried fruit and associated by-products to Europe.

Office National de Commercialisation (ONACO): 31 rue Larbi Ben M'hidi, Algiers; monopoly of bulk trade in basic foodstuffs except cereals; brs. in over forty towns.

Office Nationale de Commercialisation des Vins (ONCV): Algiers; monopoly exporter of wine; exports amounted to 483,000 hectolitres in 1970, of which 224,000 hl. went to France and 179,000 hl. to the Soviet Union.

Société Nationale des Tabacs et Allumettes (SNTA): Algiers; monopoly importer of tobacco and matches.

Société Nationale de la Sidérurgie (SNS): 2 rue du Chenova, Hydra-Algiers; sole importer of most semi-finished and manufactured metal products; commissioned feasibility study of an aluminium smelter for Algiers February 1970; Dir. Gen. MOHAMMED LIASSINE.

Other state buying organizations are being set up following the Government announcement of its intention of bringing all foreign trade under its control. Such organizations already exist for dairy products, wood and wood products, textiles, footwear, and hides and skins.

TRADE FAIR

Foire Internationale d'Alger: Palais des Expositions, Pins Maritimes, B.P. 571, Algiers; annual; fortnight in September.

OIL

Principal Companies

ALGERIAN COMPANIES

L'Association Coopérative (ASCOOP): 126 rue Didouche Mourad, Algiers; f. 1966 as the body controlling exploitation of Saharan oil and gas; owned equally by SONATRACH and SOPEFAL of France, which acts through ERAP.

SONATRACH: 80 Ave. Ghermoul, Algiers; f. 1963; state-owned; Chair. SID AHMED GHOZALI; exploration, exploitation, transport, refining and marketing of oil products; the sole marketing organization for oil and gas products in Algeria since May 1968, when the state took over all foreign marketing interests.

Société Nationale de Recherche et d'Exploitation des Pétroles en Algérie (S.N. REPAL): chemin du Réservoir, Hydra, Algiers; f. 1946; 1,663 mems.; Pres. N. AIT LAOUSSINE; oil exploration, and development, mainly in Northern Algeria and Sahara; SONATRACH has an interest of about 37 per cent following its acquisition of the Shell interests in Algeria in 1970.

ALGERIA—(OIL, TRANSPORT)

FOREIGN COMPANIES

(Note A 51 per cent interest in all the companies listed below was compulsorily acquired by the Algerian government in February 1971)

Compagnie Française des Pétroles (Algérie) (CFP-A) 10 rue du Sahara Algiers 8c Pres and Gen Man J BENZERIT operates in the southern Sahara and has interests in the Hassi Messaoud and Ouargla Est oilfields and Hassi K Mel gasfield

Compagnie de Recherches et d'Exploitation du Pétrole du Sahara (CREPS) 5 rue Daguerré Algiers Chair P MOCH holds concessions for Edjeleh Zarzautne T guen tourne and elsewhere in the Libyan frontier area

Société Nationale des Pétroles d'Aquitaine (SNPA) 2 bld Mohammed V Algiers Chair P GUILLAUMAT Gen Man A. BOULLOT exploration to the south of Hassi Messaoud production in El Gassi El Agreb since 1961

Compagnie d'Exploration Pétrolière (CEP) 6 boulevard Mohammed V Algiers Chair and Gen Man A DE MARGNE production from Ohanet field since 1961 and later from further wells to the east.

Compagnie des Pétroles France Afrique (COPEFA) 7 rue Nelaton Paris 15e France Pres and Gen Man A DEMARGNE exploration in Algeria.

Compagnie des Pétroles d'Algérie (CPA) 7 rue Daguerré Algiers Pres and Dir Gen M LACOUR GAYET Asst Dir -Gen B MORIN production from Tin Fonyé Nord Ohanet Sud/Krebb/Timédratione Acheb Alrar Est Gassi Toul Est

EURAFREP SA 75 Champs Elysées Paris 18 bis avenue Claude Debussy Algiers Chair R MAYER Gen Man A JULLIEN Gen Sec A DE LASTOURS holds interests in 5 Algerian Sahara oil fields

The local interests of four companies Shell Phillips Elwerath and AMIF were nationalized and merged into SONATRACH in June 1970 those of a fifth company Mobil were similarly requisitioned in November 1970

NATURAL GAS

Société d'Exploitation des Hydrocarbures de Hassi R'Mel (SEHR) concession at Hassi R'Mel estimated reserves 900 000 million cubic metres equivalent to a possible annual production of 25 000 million cubic metres

Compagnie Algérienne du Méthane Liquide (CAMEL) B P 11 Arzew promotes export of liq d natural gas 63 000 million cub c feet exported annually
See also next page *Oil Transport*

TRANSPORT

RAILWAYS

Société Nationale des Chemins de Fer Algériens 21 bld Mohammed V Algiers f 1959 3 951 km of track of which 2 690 km are of standard gauge (299 km electrified) and 1 261 of metre gauge daily passenger services from Algiers to the principal provincial cities and a service to Casablanca via Oran

ROADS

There are 35 541 km of roads (8 500 km Routes Nationales 13 835 km Departmental roads and 13 200 km local roads) The French administration built a good road system (partly for military purposes) but in some areas

surfaces have deteriorated since independence due to lack of maintenance New roads have been built linking the Sahara oil fields with the coast Algeria is a member of the Trans Sahara Liaison Committee which is organizing the construction of a road across the Sahara Work on the El Golea In Salah section in Algeria is due to begin in 1970

Société Nationale des Transports Routiers 27 rue des 3 Frères Bouaddon Algiers f 1967 holds a monopoly of goods transport by road Dir Gen DJELFAOUTI MOHAMMED

MOTORISTS ORGANIZATION

Touring Club d'Algérie Algiers

SHIPPING

Algiers is the main port with 13 16 fathoms anchorage in the Bay of Algiers and anchorage for the largest vessels in Agha Bay The port has a total quayside of 27 500 feet in three basins The Old Port with 8-30 feet depth alongside Mustapha Basin 23 36 feet depth alongside and the Agha Basin

Annaba s 120 acre harbour has 31-36 feet depth with 400 feet of quayside for petrol tankers The Inner Port (Grande Darse) has 6 450 feet of quayside with 30 feet depth along side Oran 3 300 acre harbour has 9 270 feet of quayside with 24 39 feet depth alongside accommodating vessels of up to 550 feet Arzew has 6 070 feet of quayside of which a third has 26 feet depth alongside There are also important ports at Bedja a Djidjelli Ghazaouet Skikda (for oil) and Mostaganem.

Compagnie Nationale Algérienne de Navigation (CNAN) quai d Ajaccio B P 280 Algiers f 1964 State-owned company managing its own fleet and vessels on time charter concerned in the transport of oil gas wine early fruit and other goods 5 vessels agencies and monopoly of handling facilities in all Algerian ports office in Marseilles and reps in Paris all French ports and the principal ports in many other countries

Cie des Bateaux à Vapeur du Nord 9 rue Jacques Bingen Paris 17e f 1853 tonnage 5 790 d w Pres JEAN POIGNY cargo services to Algerian ports

Cie Charles le Borgne quai de Sète Algiers Paris Office 97 ave des Champs Elysées f 1735 cargo services to all destinations offices in Oran Béjaia Skikda and Annaba

Cie Générale Transatlantique Head Office 6 rue Anber Paris 9e Algiers 6 boulevard Carnot regular passenger and cargo services from Marseilles to Algiers and Oran

Cie de Navigation Mixte 1 la Canebière Marseilles f 1850 tonnage 39 292 gross Pres G DE CAZALET Dir -Gen J L MASSIERA passenger and cargo service to Algiers and Oran

Société d'Armement et de Navigation Ch Schiaffino & Cie 90 rue de Murel Paris 8e tonnage 52 300 Dir LAURENT SCHIAFFINO

CIVIL AVIATION

Algiers s main airport Dar el Beida at Algiers is a class A airport of international standing At Constantine Annaba and Oran are smaller modern airports able to accommodate jet aircraft

Air Algérie 1 place Maurice Audin B P 858 Algiers f 1946 internal services and extensive services to Europe and North Africa operating fleet of 5 Caravelles 1 DC-4 4 Conqair 640 (2 Boeing 727 are to enter service during 1971) Pres and Dir Gen AIR MES SAOUDENE

ALGERIA—(TRANSPORT, TOURISM, ATOMIC ENERGY, EDUCATION, ETC.)

FOREIGN LINES

The following foreign airlines operate services to Algiers: Aeroflot, Air France, Alitalia, Aviaco (Spain), Balkan (Bulgaria), C.S.A. (Czechoslovakia), Interflug (German Democratic Republic), Royal Air Maroc, Saudi Arabian Airlines, Swissair, Tunis Air, U.A.A. (United Arab Airlines).

OIL TRANSPORT

COMPANIES

Société Pétrolière de Gêrancel (SOPEG): 37 ave. Pierre 1er de Serbie, Paris 8e; Algiers: 10 rue du Sahara, Hydra; f. 1957 as a subsidiary of C.F.P.-A. and S. N. REPAL; operates crude oil pipelines from Haoud el Hamra to Bejaia; Pres. and Dir.-Gen. J. BOUVET.

Compagnie de Transport par Pipe-line au Sahara (TRAPSA): a subsidiary of G.R.E.P.S., with concessions at Edjeleh and Zarzaitine; operates crude oil pipeline from In Amenas (Edjeleh) to La Skhirra on the Tunisian coast and from Tin Fouyé to In Amenas.

Société Nationale pour la Recherche, la Production, le Transport, la Transformation et la Commercialisation des Hydrocarbures (SONATRACH): Imm. Mauretania, Agha, Algiers; f. 1963 to build a new pipeline from Hassi-Messaoud to Arzew with present capacity of 18,000,000 tons p.a., to be increased eventually to 23,000,000 tons p.a.; pipeline commissioned 1966; a second pipeline is planned from Hassi-Messaoud and Bejaia to a refinery at Algiers, and a third pipeline from Hassi R'Mel to Skikda, will come into operation in the 1970-71 period. Dir. SID AHMED GHOZALI.

Société de Transport de Pétrole de l'Est Saharien (T.R.A.P.E.S.): Ohanet; operates a crude oil pipeline from Ohanet to Hassi-Messaoud.

Société Nationale des Pétroles d'Aquitaine (S.N.P.A.): operates crude oil pipeline from El Gassi-El Agreb to Hassi-Messaoud.

TOURISM

Agence Touristique Algérienne: 2 Place Ben Badis, Algiers; f. 1962; branches in Paris, Frankfurt and Stockholm.

The first Pan African Cultural Festival was held in Algiers in July 1969. Thirty-five African states were represented by over 4,000 artists.

THEATRE

Théâtre National Algérien: Opéra Municipal, Algiers; performances in Arabic and French in Algiers and all main cities.

ATOMIC ENERGY

Institut d'Etudes Nucléaires d'Alger: B.P. 1147, Algiers; f. 1958; research into nuclear physics, solid and electronic physics; two Van de Graaff accelerators, 3 MeV and 2 MeV; one Sames accelerator 600 KeV and one isotope separator of the Saclay type; Dir. Prof. M. ALLAB.

EDUCATION

Education in Algeria follows the pattern laid down during the French administration, but its scope has been greatly extended. It is estimated that by early 1970 over 1,800,000 children were receiving some education, but this represents little more than half the school age sector of a predominant-

ly youthful population. Facilities for secondary education are still very limited. Before independence most teachers were French, but now 80 per cent of the primary school staffs are Algerians; this proportion drops to about 40 per cent in secondary and higher education, where teaching is still almost exclusively in French. Arabic is being increasingly used in primary education, this trend being assisted by the import of Arabic-speaking teachers from Egypt and Syria and the recruiting of Algerian *moniteurs* or assistant teachers in primary schools. Some 700 French teachers are paid by the French Government. At higher levels scientific and technical subjects are being given priority in the allocation of resources. Meanwhile a large-scale campaign to combat adult illiteracy is being pursued with enthusiasm, instruction being given in some cases by students who have only recently left school. Much use is made of the broadcasting services for adult education. The University of Algiers is the oldest in North Africa. There is also a university in Oran, a university centre in Constantine which is due to receive full independence shortly, and a number of technical colleges. Many Algerians study in France.

LEARNED SOCIETIES AND RESEARCH INSTITUTES

British Council: 6 avenue Souidani Boudjemaa, Algiers; library of 9,000 vols.; Rep. E. EVANS, M.B.E.

Bureau de Recherches Géologiques et Minières: B.P. 24, Birmandreis, Algiers; Hdqs. in Paris; Dir. M. TRENTINELLA.

Centre Algérien de Recherches et Expérimentations Forestières (CAREF): B.P. 156, Petit-Atlas, Algiers; f. 1959; Dir. ZERIAA LAMRI; publ. *Les Annales du CAREF*.

Centre Français de Documentation Technique: 7 rue du Capitaine Médecin Kassani Issad, Algiers; f. in Algeria 1965; distributes scientific, technical and industrial information; library of 7,000 vols.; Dir. JACQUES MER.

Centre de Recherches Anthropologiques, Préhistoriques et Ethnographiques (C.R.A.P.E.): 3 rue Franklin Roosevelt, Algiers; f. 1957; Dir. and Curator M. MAMMERI; publs. *Libya anthropologie, préhistoire, ethnographie (annual)*, *Travaux du CRAPE*, *Mémoires du CRAPE*, *Fiches Typologiques Africaines*, *Documents du CRAPE*.

El-Mossilia El-Djazair: 27 rue Hariched, Algiers; f. 1930; cultural society, particularly concerned with Arab classical music; 452 mems.; Pres. ALI BENMERABET; Sec.-Gen. MOURAD BENFARES.

Goethe Institut: Centre Culturel Allemand, 165 chemin Sfindja, Algiers; f. 1963; Dir. Dr. PETER MEYER.

Institut d'Etudes Nucléaires d'Alger: B.P. 1147, Algiers; an isotope separator of the Saclay type came into operation in May 1966; two Van de Graaf accelerators.

Institut de Géographie National: 20 rue Abane Ramdane, Algiers; f. 1963; national cartography and surveying centre; Dir. M. GATEAUD.

Institut Pasteur d'Algérie: Algiers; f. 1910; conducts research into microbiology and parasitology according to Pasteur's theories; higher study of microbiology and parasitology; preparation of vaccines in conjunction with the health services of Algeria; 230 mems.; the library contains 43,000 vols., 420 periodicals; Dir. Dr. R. NÉEL; Sec.-Gen. A. LEBTANI; publ. *Archives de l'Institut Pasteur d'Algérie* (annual).

Istituto Italiano di Cultura: 7 rue Hamami, Algiers; f. 1964; library of 3,000 vols.; Dir. Prof. G. BATTAGLIA.

ALGERIA—(LEARNED SOCIETIES AND RESEARCH INSTITUTES LIBRARIES MUSEUMS ETC)

Mission Culturelle Française en Algérie Quartier Arnaud de Vitrolles rue Shakespeare Le Golf Algiers co-operates with the Algerian Government in educational and cultural matters particularly at university level Dir JEAN PENARD

Office Universitaire et Culturel Français Quartier Arnaud de Vitrolles rue Shakespeare Algiers French state organization which administers a large proportion of the French schools and colleges in Algeria about 600 teachers were provided through the auspices of the Office in 1969 70 Dir M J PENARD

Service Géologique de l'Algérie Immeuble Mauritan a Ed Colonel Amrouche Agha Algiers f 1883 research publications maps library of 15 000 vols periodicals maps and aerial photographs Dir OMAR MERABET publs *Bulletin du Service Géologique de l'Algérie* *Notes Explicatives des Cartes Géologiques Cartes Géologiques*

Société Archéologique du Département de Constantine Musée Gustave Mercier Constantine f 1852 250 mems library of 10 000 vols Pres Dr BACHLI (acting) publ *Recueil des Notices et Mémoires de la Société Archéologique de Constantine*

Société Historique Algérienne c/o Faculté des Lettres Université de Algiers f 1963 number of mems 600 publ *Revue d'Histoire et Civilisation du Maghreb*

Union des Ecrivains Algériens (Algerian Writers Union) 12 rue Ali Boumendjel Algiers f 1963 60 mems awards an annual literary prize of 10 000 dinars for creative writing

LIBRARIES

Algiers

Bibliothèque Nationale avenue Frantz Fanon more than 650 000 vols including important collections on Africa provides public lecture service in Algeria Librarian MAHMOUD AGHA BOUAYED

Bibliothèque de l'Université 2 rue Didouche Mourad Algiers f 1880 600 000 vols a large part of the book stock was destroyed in the fire of June 1962 but thanks to numerous gifts from many countries much of the collection has been replaced and the building has been reconstructed Librarian Mlle ZOULIKHA BERAD pour

Constantine

Bibliothèque Municipale Hôtel de Ville f 1895 25 000 vols

Oran

Bibliothèque Aubert,

MUSEUMS

Algiers

Musée de Préhistoire et d'Ethnographie du Bardo (Pre history and Ethnographic Museum) 3 rue Franklin Roosevelt f 1928 Dir and Curator M MAMMERI

Musée du Mont Flant Algiers collections from several countries

Musée National des Antiquités Parc de la Liberté f 1897 exhibit ts include Algerian antiquities and Islamic art Cur MOHAMMED TEMMAM publs *Le Musée Stéphane Gsell L'Art Musulman*

Musée National des Beaux Arts d'Alger (National Museum of Algiers) Jardin d'Essai f 1930 exhibits include paintings drawings etchings bronzes reliefs special ized History of Art library of 8 000 vols Dir AHMED BACHLI

Constantine

Musée Gustave Mercier Boulevard de la République f 1930 archaeological exhibits and art Dir and Curator MESSAOUD MAADAD

El Biar

Musée de la Révolution 1954-62 El Biar items relating to the contemporary history of Algeria

Oran

Musée Municipal Boulevard Zabana prehistory Roman and Punic archaeology ethnography zoology geology botany sculpture and painting Dir and Curator R MASSON

Musée de Tlemcen place d'Alger exhibits of Islamic art

Sétif

Musée de Sétif Roman antiquities Curator TAYEB HAFIANE

Skikda

Musée de Skikda Punic and Roman antiquities modern art awaiting new permanent premises.

UNIVERSITIES

UNIVERSITÉ D'ALGER*

2 RUE DIDOUCHE MOURAD ALGIERS

Telephone 64 69 70

Founded 1879 (reorganized 1909)

Languages of instruction Arabic and French State control Academic year September to July

Chancellor Y MENTALECHETA

Number of teachers 320

Number of students 9 500

DEANS

Faculty of Law and Economic Sciences M THEMMAR

Faculty of Medicine and Pharmacy M AOUCHICHE

Faculty of Letters and Human Sciences M HADJ SALAH

Faculty of Science M TOURI

UNIVERSITY INSTITUTES

Institut de Recherches Sahariennes Institut de Géographie Institut d'Urbanisme Institut d'Etudes Arabes Institut d'Ethnologie Institut d'Etudes Orientales Ecole Supérieure du Journalisme Ecole Supérieure d'Interprétation Ecole Normale Supérieure Institut d'Etudes Slaves Institut d'Etudes Philosophiques Institut d'Etudes Politiques Institut de la Gestion et de la Planification Centre de Recherches Africaines Institut d'Etudes Nucléaires Institut Océanographique Centre Anti Cancéreux Pierre et Marie Curie Observatoire Alger Bouzareah Institut de Cartographie Institut de Météorologie et de Physique du Globe Institut Supérieure de la Promotion de Travail Institut de l'Energie Solaire Institut de Psychotechnique et de Biométrie Institut d'Odonto-Stomatologie Institut du Trachôme et d'Ophtalmologie Tropicale Institut d'Hygiène et de Médecine d'Outre-Mer Institut de Biochimie Générale et de Biochimie de la Nutrition

The Faculty of Engineering consists of

Ecole Nationale Polytechnique El Harrach Algiers 10 f 1925 as the Institut Industriel d'Algérie became the Ecole Nationale Polytechnique in 1962

Director A OUADESSELAM

Number of students 420

Civil Engineering Electro technics Telecommunications Chemical Engineering and Petro-Chemistry Mechanics Applied Mathematics and Econometrics Mining

UNIVERSITÉ D'ORAN

RUE DU COLONEL LOFTI, ORAN

Founded 1965

Formerly the Centre Universitaire d'Oran. Comprises Institut d'Etudes Juridiques and Ecole Nationale de Médecine et de Pharmacie

UNIVERSITY CENTRE

CENTRE UNIVERSITAIRE DE CONSTANTINE

RUE BEN M'HIDI, CONSTANTINE

Founded 1961

Comprises Institut d'Etudes Juridiques, Ecole Nationale de Médecine et de Pharmacie, and the Collège Scientifique. (This foundation is due to receive full university status in the near future.)

COLLEGES

Conservatoire Municipal de Musique et de Déclamation: 5 rue d'Igli, Oran; f. 1932; courses in music, dancing and dramatic art; 20 teachers, 500 students; Dir. GILLES ACHACHE.

Conservatoire de Musique et de Déclamation: 2 blvd. Ché Guévara, Algiers; f. 1920; library contains 6,000 vols.; 82 teachers, 1,730 students; Dir.-Gen. BACHETARZI MOHIEDDINE; Sec.-Gen. KADDOUR GUECHOUD.

Enseignement Supérieur Musulman en Algérie: Médersa de Constantine; f. 1895; library contains 6,000 vols.; 66 students; publs. *Publications de la Faculté des Lettres d'Alger*, *Journal des Africanistes*, *Journal Antique*, *Journal des Savants*, *Comptes rendus de l'Académie des Inscriptions et Beaux Arts*.

Ecole Nationale d'Administration: Algiers.

Ecole Nationale des Beaux-Arts: Parc Gatliff, Algiers; 250 students; library of 4,000 vols.; Dir. BACHIR YELLES.

Ecole Nationale de la Marine Marchande: rue d'Angkor, Algiers.

Ecole Supérieure de Commerce d'Alger: Rampe F. Chasseriau, Algiers.

Institut Nationale Agronomique: El Harrach, Algiers; f. 1966; 55 teachers; 149 students; Dir. M. BENACHENOU MOURAD.

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Cyprus

PHYSICAL AND SOCIAL GEOGRAPHY

The island of Cyprus, some 3,572 sq. miles in area, is situated in the north eastern corner of the Mediterranean Sea, closest to Turkey (which is easily visible from its northern coast), but also under 100 miles from the Syrian coast. Its greatest length, including the long, narrow peninsula of Cape Andreas, is 140 miles. The population was estimated in 1905 at nearly 590,000.

Cyprus owes its peculiar shape to the occurrence of two ridges that were once part of two much greater arcs running from the mainland of Asia westwards towards Crete. The greater part of these arcs has disappeared, but remnants are found in Cyprus and on the eastern mainland, where they form the Amanus Range of Turkey. In Cyprus the arcs are visible as two mountain systems—the Kyrenia Range of the north, and the much larger and imposing Troödos Massif in the centre. Between the two mountain systems lies a flat lowland, open to the sea in the east and west and spoken of as the Mesaoria. Here also lies the chief town, Nicosia.

The mountain ranges are actually very different in structure and appearance. The Kyrenia Range is a single narrow fold of limestone, with occasional deposits of marble, and its maximum height is 3,000 ft. As it is mainly porous rock, rainfall soon seeps below ground, and so its appearance is rather arid, but very picturesque, with white crags and isolated pinnacles. The soil cover is thin. The Troödos, on the other hand, has been affected by folding in two separate directions, so that the whole area has been fragmented, and large quantities of molten igneous rock have forced their way to the surface from the interior of the earth, giving rise to a great dome that reaches 6,000 ft. above sea level. As it is impervious to water, there are

some surface streams, rounder outlines a thicker soil, especially on the lower slopes, and a covering of pine forest.

The climate in Cyprus is strongly "Mediterranean" in character, with the usual hot dry summers and warm, wet winters. As an island with high mountains, Cyprus receives a fair amount of moisture, and up to 40 in. of rain falls in the mountains, with the minimum of 12 to 15 inches in the Mesaoria. Frost does not occur on the coast, but may be sharp in the higher districts, and snow can fall fairly heavily in regions over 3,000 ft. in altitude. In summer, despite the nearness of the sea, temperatures are surprisingly high, and the Mesaoria in particular can experience over 100° F. A feature of minor importance is the tendency for small depressions to form over the island, giving a slightly greater degree of changeability in weather than is experienced elsewhere in the Middle East.

Relatively abundant rainfall together with high average temperatures were in the past responsible for a heavy incidence of malaria in the island. After World War II, however, an energetic campaign was waged against mosquitoes, and Cyprus is now entirely free from the disease.

Cyprus is noteworthy in that between 50 and 60 per cent of the total area is under cultivation—a figure higher than that for most Middle Eastern countries. This is partly to be explained by the relatively abundant rainfall, the expanses of impervious rock that retain water near the surface, and the presence of rich soils derived from volcanic rocks which occur round the Troödos Mountains. The steadily developing tourist trade and the export markets in wine and early vegetables add to the incentives to development.

W B F

HISTORY

ANCIENT AND MEDIEVAL HISTORY

Cyprus first became important in recorded history when the island fell under Egyptian control in the second millennium B.C. After a long period during which the Phoenicians and the people of Mycenae founded colonies there, Cyprus, in the eighth century B.C., became an Assyrian protectorate at a time when the Greeks of the mainland were extending their settlements in the island. From the sixth century B.C. it was a province of the Persian empire and took part in the unsuccessful Ionian revolt against Persian rule in 502 B.C. Despite the Greek triumph over Xerxes in 480 B.C., subsequent efforts by the Greek city states of the mainland to free Cyprus from Persian control met with little success largely because of dissension amongst the Greek cities of Cyprus itself. For more than two centuries after 295 B.C. the Ptolemies of Egypt ruled in Cyprus until it became part of the Roman Empire. Under the enlightened rule of Augustus the island entered upon a long period of prosperity, for trade flourished while the Romans kept the seas clear of piracy. When Jerusalem fell to the Emperor Titus in A.D. 70, many Jews found refuge in Cyprus where they became numerous enough to undertake a serious revolt in A.D. 115. Christianity, apparently introduced into the island in the reign of Emperor Claudius (A.D. 41-54), grew steadily in the next three centuries during which Cyprus, isolated from a continent frequently ravaged by barbarian

inroads, continued to enjoy a relative degree of prosperity. From the time of Constantine the Great, Cyprus was a province governed by officials appointed from Antioch and formed part of the diocese of the East. In the reign of Theodosius I (379-395) the Greek Orthodox Church was firmly established there and in the fifth century proved strong enough to resist the attempt of the Patriarchs of Antioch to control the religious life of the island.

The Arab attack of 649 began a new period in the history of Cyprus which now became, for more than three hundred years, the object of dispute between the Byzantines and the Muslims. In the time of the Caliph Abd al-Malik (685-703) the revenues of the island were divided between the two Empires but in 691 hostilities were renewed after large numbers of Christians from Cyprus had moved to a new settlement on the shores of the Hellespont. In 747 the Byzantines crushed a determined Muslim effort to seize the island but were less successful in repelling serious attacks in the reign of the Emperor Nicephorus I (802-811). For a brief space Byzantium recovered effective possession of the island in the time of Basil I (867-886) but, whenever the Byzantine fleet was weak, Cyprus remained a doubtful possession of the Empire. From the decisive Byzantine reconquest of 964-5 Cyprus now enjoyed for more than two centuries a period of relative calm disturbed only by occasional revolts. Only with the Third Crusade did Cyprus

begin a new chapter of its long story. In 1192 Richard Cœur-de-Lion, having conquered the island from the Greek usurper Isaac Comnenus, bestowed it on Guy de Lusignan, formerly King of Jerusalem. There now began almost four hundred years of Western rule, which saw the introduction of Western feudalism and of the Latin Church into a land which hitherto had been Greek in its institutions and Orthodox in its religious beliefs.

In the period from 1192 to 1267 (when the direct line of the Lusignan house became extinct) the new régime was gradually elaborated. The Lusignan monarchy was limited in character, for the royal power was effective only in the military sphere, all other important business of State being decided in a High Court which consisted of the nobles, the fief-holders, and the great officers of State. This Court applied to the island a highly developed code of feudal law derived from the Assizes of Jerusalem, the Cypriots being allowed to retain their own laws and customs in so far as these did not conflict with the feudal law. The period is also marked by the determined efforts of the Latin clergy, supported by the Papacy, to establish a complete control over the Orthodox Church, a policy carried out with much harshness which the Crown and the feudal nobility often sought to mitigate in order to keep the loyalty of the subject population. The dominance of the Latin Church was finally assured by the Bulla Cypria of Pope Alexander IV (1260).

During the second half of the thirteenth century the kingdom of Cyprus (now ruled by the house of Antioch-Lusignan) played an important role in the last struggle to maintain the Latin States in Syria against the Mamluk offensive. The influence of the monarchy was further strengthened in this period, and when in 1324 Hugues IV became king, the great age of feudal Cyprus had begun. Cyprus was now of great importance in the commerce which the Italian republics maintained with the East, and Famagusta became a flourishing port. The Papacy, however, always anxious to weaken the power of Mamluk Egypt, placed on the trade of the Italian republics with that State severe limitations and charged Cyprus and Rhodes with their enforcement. Thus began a conflict between the kings of Cyprus and the great republics of Venice and Genoa which did not endanger Cyprus so long as the Papacy could mobilise sentiment in the West to support the crusading State of the Lusignans. When, as the fourteenth century advanced, the Papacy lost its power to command such support in the West, Cyprus was left to face unaided the ambitions of Genoa and Venice, which she was powerless to withstand.

Before this decline began Cyprus enjoyed, in the mid-fourteenth century, a brief period of great brilliance under her crusading King Peter I (1359-69). In 1361 he occupied the port of Adalia on the south coast of Asia Minor, then held by the Turkish emirate of Tekke; and in the years 1362-65 toured Europe in an effort to win adequate support for a new crusade. His most memorable exploit came in 1365 when he captured Alexandria in Egypt, sacking it so completely that even as late as the sixteenth century it had not recovered its former splendour. In 1366 he repelled a Turkish attack on Adalia and in the next year ravaged the coast of Syria, seizing and pillaging Tripoli; but, seeing at last that no help was to be expected from the West, he made peace with Egypt. With his assassination in 1369 the great period of the Lusignan house was ended.

The reign of King Janus I (1398-1432) was a long struggle to drive out the Genoese, who had seized Famagusta during the war with Cyprus in 1372-74, and to repel the attacks of Mamluk Egypt, which had become weary of the repeated sea-raids undertaken from the ports of Cyprus. After plundering Larnaca and Limassol in 1425 the Mam-

luks crushed the army of Cyprus in a battle at Khoira-koitia in 1426, King Janus himself being captured, and his capital Nicosia sacked. The King was released in 1427, when he had promised the payment of a large ransom and of an annual tribute. The last years of Lusignan power were marked by dissension in the ruling house and by the increasing domination of Venice which, with the consent of Caterina Cornaro, the Venetian widow of the last Lusignan king, annexed Cyprus in 1489.

TURKISH RULE

Venice held Cyprus until 1570 when the Ottoman Turks began a campaign of conquest which led to the fall of Nicosia in September 1570 and of Famagusta in August 1571. The Turks now restored to the Orthodox Greek Church its independence and ended the former feudal status of the peasantry. The Cypriots paid a tax for their freedom to follow their own religion and were allowed to cultivate their land as their own and to hand it to their descendants on payment of a proportion of the produce, which varied from one-fifth to one-tenth according to the locality. About thirty thousand Turkish soldiers were also given land in the island, thus forming a Turkish element in the population which was later reinforced by a certain amount of immigration from Asia Minor.

The seventeenth and eighteenth centuries were a melancholy period in the history of Cyprus. Repeated droughts and ravages of locusts preceded a famine in 1640 and an outbreak of plague in 1641. In 1660 the Ottoman government, in order to limit the extortions of its officials and of the tax-farmers, recognised the Orthodox Archbishop and his three suffragans as guardians of the Christian peasantry, but this step did not prevent revolts in 1665 and 1690. A great famine in 1757-58 and a severe attack of plague in 1760 reduced the numbers of the peasantry very considerably, causing a widespread distress which culminated in the revolt of 1764-66. Cyprus from 1702 had been a fief of the Grand Vizier who normally sold the governorship to the highest bidder, usually for a period of one year. This practice created opportunities of financial oppression which were rarely allowed to pass unused. Perhaps the most striking development of the period was the continued rise in the power of the Orthodox bishops whose influence was so great in the late eighteenth century that the Turkish administration depended on their support for the collection of the revenues. The Turkish elements in Cyprus, who resented the dominance of the Orthodox bishops, accused them in 1821 of a secret understanding with the Greeks of the Morea who had revolted against Turkish rule, and carried out a massacre of the Christians at Nicosia and elsewhere, which brought the supremacy of the bishops to an end.

In 1833 the Sultan granted Cyprus to Muhammad Ali, Pasha of Egypt, who was forced, however, to renounce possession of it in 1840 at the demand of the Great Powers. During the period of reforms initiated by Sultan Mahmud II (1808-39) and continued by his immediate successors, efforts were made to improve the administration of the island. The practice of farming out the taxes was abolished (although later partially reintroduced) and the Governor now became a salaried official ruling through a divan half-Turkish and half-Christian in composition.

BRITISH RULE

In 1878 Great Britain concluded an agreement with the Sultan by which Cyprus was given over to British control. Great Britain intended to use the island as a base from which the Ottoman Empire might be protected against the ambitions of Russia, a defence then all the more important in that the opening of the Suez Canal (1869) had made the

East Mediterranean an area of great strategic importance. Under the agreement of 1878 Cyprus remained legally a part of the Ottoman Empire, to which a tribute was paid consisting of the surplus revenues of the island, calculated at a sum rather less than £93,000 per annum.

From 1882 until 1931 the island had a Legislative Council partly nominated and partly elected. Various reforms were carried out in this first period of British rule: the introduction of an efficient judicial system and of an effective police force, and considerable improvements in agriculture, roads, education and other public services.

Cyprus was offered to Greece in 1913 provided Greece joined the Allies in the war, but the offer was refused and did not remain open. In 1925 the island became a Crown Colony at a time when the discontent of the Greek Cypriots was beginning to assume more serious proportions.

In the period since 1931 the desire to achieve self-government within the Commonwealth grew stronger, but the *Enosis* movement remained a strong influence in the political life of the island. Cypriot troops performed valuable services in the war of 1939-45, for example in Libya under Lord Wavell and in the Greek campaign of 1941. More recently Cyprus was used as a place of detention for illegal Jewish immigrants into Palestine; the last of such detention camps being closed in 1949.

CONSTITUTIONAL PROPOSALS

In July 1954 Great Britain made known its intention to prepare a restricted form of constitution for Cyprus with a legislature containing official nominated and elected members. The Greek Cypriots, insisting that their ultimate goal was *Enosis*, viewed the proposed constitution with disfavour, whereas the Turkish Cypriots declared their readiness to accept it. The Greek Government at Athens now brought the problem of Cyprus before the U.N. Great Britain, however, urged that the question was one with which she alone was competent to deal. The result was that in December 1954 the U.N. resolved to take no immediate action in the matter.

The more extreme advocates of *Enosis* grouped together in the E.O.K.A. (National Organization of the Struggle for the Freedom of Cyprus) now began a campaign of terrorist activities against the British administration. A conference including representatives from Great Britain, Greece and the Turkish Republic met in London in August 1955. The British offer of substantial autonomy for Cyprus failed to win the approval of Greece, since it held out no clear prospect of self-determination for the island and the conference therefore ended in frustration.

A new and more violent wave of terrorism swept Cyprus in November 1955. A state of emergency was declared on November 27th whereby the death penalty was imposed for the bearing of arms, life imprisonment for sabotage and lesser sentences for looting and the harbouring of terrorists. All public assemblies of a political nature were forbidden. The British troops in Cyprus (about 10,000 in all) assumed the status of active service in war time. The Governor now ruled the island through an executive council consisting of four officials from the administration, two Greek Cypriots and one Turkish Cypriot.

At the beginning of 1956 the Governor, Sir John Harding, discussed the situation with Archbishop Makarios, head of the Greek Orthodox Church in the island. Since Great Britain was now willing to accept the principle of ultimate independence for Cyprus, agreement seemed to be within reach. In March 1956, however, the discussions were broken off and Archbishop Makarios implicated in the activities of the E.O.K.A. was deported to the Seychelles Islands.

THE RADCLIFFE PROPOSALS

Great Britain confronted with a general strike in Cyprus with a renewed and more intense campaign of terrorism and with the first ominous signs of strife between the Greek and Turkish communities in the island, now appointed Lord Radcliffe in July 1956 as Commissioner for Constitutional Reform. His report published in December of that year proposed that defence, foreign affairs and internal security should be reserved to the Governor, other spheres of rule being under the control of a cabinet of Cypriot Ministers responsible to an elected legislature. Lord Radcliffe laid down careful safeguards for the Turks in Cyprus—no laws affecting the domestic affairs of the Turks would be valid without the consent of two-thirds of the Turkish members in the legislature.

Meanwhile in June 1956 Greece appealed once more to the United Nations. Great Britain, asserting that the internal affairs of Cyprus fell solely within her own competence, complained to the U.N. in October about the aid forthcoming from Greece for the E.O.K.A. terrorists. There were however talks at Athens and Ankara in December 1956 but to no effective end, since Greece rejected the proposals of Lord Radcliffe for constitutional reform in Cyprus. The U.N. in February 1957 adopted a resolution urging that a peaceful and democratic settlement be found for the Cyprus problem.

RELEASE OF MAKARIOS

In March 1957 Archbishop Makarios was released from detention in the Seychelles and, since he was not allowed to return to Cyprus, went in fact to Athens. The British authorities also relaxed some of the emergency laws—e.g. the press censorship and the mandatory death penalty for the bearing of arms. These measures facilitated the holding of further discussions, but the progress made by the end of the year was inconsiderable.

The tide of violence ran high in Cyprus during the first half of 1958. E.O.K.A. carried out an intensive campaign of sabotage, especially at Nicosia and Famagusta. At the same time strife between the Greek Cypriots and the Turkish Cypriots was becoming more frequent and severe, the outbreaks in June 1958 being particularly serious. There was increased tension too between the governments at Athens and at Ankara.

BRITAIN'S SEVEN-YEAR PLAN

It was in this situation that Great Britain, on June 19th 1958, made public a new scheme for Cyprus. The island was to remain under British control for seven years, full autonomy in communal affairs would be granted under separate arrangements to the Greek Cypriots and the Turkish Cypriots; internal administration was to be reserved for the Governor's Council, which would include representatives of the Greek Cypriot and Turkish Cypriot communities and also of the Greek and Turkish governments at Athens and Ankara. This scheme came into force on October 1st 1958.

THE ZÜRICH AND LONDON AGREEMENTS

Negotiations between Greece and the Turkish Republic soon carried the Cyprus problem towards an agreed solution. As the result of a conference held at Zürich it was announced on February 11th 1959 that the two states had devised a compromise settlement. A further conference at London led to a final and formal publication of the details.

Cyprus was to become an independent republic with a Greek Cypriot President and a Turkish Cypriot Vice-President. There would be a Council of Ministers (seven

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Greeks, three Turks) and a House of Representatives (70 per cent Greek, 30 per cent Turkish) elected by universal suffrage for a term of five years. Communal Chambers, one Greek, one Turkish, were to exercise control in matters of religion, culture and education. The Turkish inhabitants in five of the main towns would be allowed to establish separate municipalities for a period of four years.

Cyprus was not to be united with another state, nor was it to be subject to partition. Great Britain, Greece and the Turkish Republic guaranteed the independence, the territorial integrity and the constitution of Cyprus. Greece received the right to station a force of 950 men in the island, and the Turkish Republic, a force of 650 men. Great Britain retained under her direct sovereignty two base areas in Cyprus—at Akrotiri and at Dhekelia.

In November 1959 agreement was attained in regard to the delimitation of the executive powers to be vested in the President and Vice-President of Cyprus. A further agreement defined the composition of the Supreme Constitutional Court. On December 4th, 1959, the state of emergency (in force since 1955) came to an end. Archbishop Makarios, on December 13th, 1959, was elected to be the first President of Cyprus. After long negotiations concluded on July 1st, 1960, Great Britain and Cyprus reached agreement over the precise size and character of the two military bases to be assigned to British sovereignty.

INDEPENDENCE

Cyprus became formally an independent republic on August 16th, 1960, and, on September 20th, a member of the United Nations. The Conference of Commonwealth Prime Ministers, meeting at London, resolved on March 14th, 1961, that Cyprus be admitted as a member of the Commonwealth.

A team of experts from the United Nations visited Cyprus in the autumn of 1960. Its official report was made public on April 5th, 1961. On August 21st, 1961, Archbishop Makarios submitted to the Cyprus House of Representatives the outline of a five-year plan based on the UN report. The Archbishop laid particular emphasis on reform in land-tenure and agrarian methods, on the conservation of existing and the development of new water supplies and on the introduction of long-term loans to farmers.

The Cyprus Government, in June 1961, signed a technical aid agreement with the U.S.A. In November of the same year, the German Federal Republic declared that it would make capital assistance and long-term credits available to Cyprus; it was also prepared to contribute towards the cost of geological and hydrological surveys in the island. December 1961 saw the signing of a contract with a Polish firm for the expansion of port facilities at Famagusta and the conclusion of a reciprocal trade agreement with the Soviet Union. Also in December 1961 Cyprus became a member of the International Monetary Fund and of the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development.

CONSTITUTIONAL PROBLEMS

As Cyprus entered thus into its independence, serious problems began to arise over the interpretation and working of the constitution. There was divergence of opinion between Greek Cypriots and Turkish Cypriots over the formation of a national army, as laid down in the Zürich agreement of 1959 (2,000 men: 60 per cent Greek, 40 per cent Turkish)—the main point of dispute being the degree of integration to be established between the two racial components. On October 20th, 1961, the Turkish Vice-President, Dr. Küçük, used his power of veto to ban full integration which President Makarios favoured at all levels of the armed forces.

Difficulties arose also over the implementation of the 70 per cent-30 per cent ratio of Greek Cypriot to Turkish Cypriot personnel in the public services. There was friction too in the House of Representatives, about financial affairs—e.g. customs duties and income tax laws.

The year 1962 saw the growth of a serious crisis over the system of separate Greek and Turkish municipalities in the five main towns of Cyprus—Nicosia, Famagusta, Limassol, Larnaca and Paphos. On December 29th, 1962, the Turkish Communal Chamber passed a law maintaining the Turkish municipalities in the five towns from January 1st, 1963, and also establishing a similar municipality in the predominantly Turkish town of Lefka. President Makarios now issued a decree stating that from January 1st, 1963, government-appointed bodies would control municipal organizations throughout the island—a decree which the Turkish Cypriots denounced as an infringement of the constitution.

The Constitutional Court of Cyprus, sitting in judgement on the financial disputes, ruled in February 1963 that, in view of the veto exercised by the Turkish members of the House of Representatives since 1961, taxes could be imposed on the people of the island, but that no legal machinery existed for the collection of such taxes. In April the court declared that the government had no power to control the municipalities through bodies of its own choosing and that the decision of the Turkish Communal Chamber to maintain the separate Turkish municipalities in defiance of the Cyprus Government was likewise invalid.

Negotiations between President Makarios and Vice-President Küçük to resolve the deadlock broke down in May. Accordingly in November Archbishop Makarios put forward proposals for a number of reforms—e.g. that the President and Vice-President of Cyprus should lose their right of veto over certain types of legislation; that separate Greek Cypriot and Turkish Cypriot majorities in the House of Representatives should not be required for financial legislation; and that single municipal councils, with both Greek and Turkish Cypriot members, should replace the separate municipalities in the five chief towns of Cyprus. These proposals proved to be unacceptable to the Turkish Cypriots.

CIVIL WAR

Meanwhile, underground organizations, prepared for violence, had come into being both among the Greek and the Turkish communities. In December 1963 serious conflict broke out. On December 25th Great Britain suggested that a joint force composed of British, Greek and Turkish troops stationed in Cyprus should be established to restore order. The governments at Nicosia, Athens and Ankara gave their assent to this scheme. At this same moment the forces of the Turkish Republic serving in the island occupied, north of Nicosia, a strong position which gave them control of the important road to Kyrenia on the northern coast of Cyprus—a road which was to become the scene of much conflict in the future. As a result of the December crisis co-operation between the Greek Cypriots and the Turkish Cypriots in government and in other sectors of public life came almost to an end.

The general situation was now becoming extremely tense. There was renewed violence in February 1964, especially at Limassol. Arms in considerable quantities were being brought secretly into the island for both sides and the number of armed "irregulars" was increasing rapidly. These developments also gave rise to sharp frictions between Athens and Ankara.

ESTABLISHMENT OF UN FORCE

Cyprus, in January 1964, had asked the UN to send a representative to the island. On January 16th U Thant, the Secretary-General of the United Nations, nominated Lieutenant-General Prem Gyan of India to act in this role. Later in the same month the Cyprus Government informed U Thant that it would be glad to see a UN force established in the island. The UN Security Council debated the Cyprus question on February 18th, finally adopting a resolution on March 4th authorizing the creation of a United Nations peace-keeping force for Cyprus. U Thant, on March 6th appointed Lieutenant-General Gyan to command this force. Advance units of the Canadian contingent reached the island later in the month and by May 22nd the UN Headquarters at Nicosia controlled some 7,000 men.

U Thant, on March 25th, announced the appointment of Mr. S. Tuomioja, the Finnish Ambassador to Sweden, as United Nations mediator in Cyprus. Later, on May 11th, U Thant nominated Dr. Galo Plaza of Ecuador, to be his special representative in the island. After the death of Mr. Tuomioja Dr. Galo Plaza was to become, in September 1964 the UN mediator in Cyprus. Señor Carlos Bernardes of Brazil taking his place as U Thant's Special Representative. The exploratory consultations of the UN officials—at Nicosia, at Athens and at Ankara—failed to achieve real progress in the summer of 1964. The unlikelihood of United Nations success in solving the Cyprus question was underlined when in June 1964, President Johnson of the USA resolved to attempt a direct mediation in the dispute. Once again, however, the progress registered was small.

ESTABLISHMENT OF UN FORCE BY UN PEACE-KEEPING FORCE

There was more fighting between Greek and Turkish Cypriots in March and April 1964—above all for control of the Nicosia Kyrenia road, which the troops of the Turkish Republic stationed in Cyprus controlled in the south near Nicosia, and which Turkish guerrillas operating from St. Hilarion Castle, high in the mountains close to Kyrenia, dominated in the north. The fighting was severe at Ktima on March 7th-9th, 1964. On June 1st the Cyprus House of Representatives passed a Bill establishing a National Guard and making all male Cypriots between the ages of 18 and 59 liable to six months of service in it. Only members of the National Guard, of the regular police and of the army forces would now have the right to bear arms. One purpose of the Bill was to suppress the irregular bands which as extremist sentiment grew stronger, tended more and more to escape from the control of the established regime.

Under the agreements concluded for the independence of Cyprus in 1959-60 the Turkish Republic maintained a contingent of troops in the island, the personnel of this force being renewed from time to time on a system of regular rotation. A new crisis arose in August-September 1964 when the government at Nicosia refused to allow such a rotation of personnel. After much negotiation through the UN officials in the island the Cyprus Government agreed to raise its existing blockade of the Turkish Cypriots entrenched in the Kokkina district and to allow the normal rotation of troops for the Turkish force stationed in Cyprus. The government at Ankara now consented that this force, which dominated the Nicosia-Kyrenia road, should come under the United Nations command in Cyprus.

LEGISLATIVE MEASURES

Towards the end of 1964 the Cyprus House of Representatives passed a number of important measures—a Bill

for the creation of unified municipalities in Nicosia, Larnaca, Limassol, Famagusta and Paphos, a law restoring to the government the right to exact income tax (a right inoperative since 1961 as a result of the veto of the Turkish Cypriot members in the House), and a Bill extending compulsory service in the National Guard for Greek Cypriots from six to twelve months. In July 1965 a new law was approved for unified elections on the basis of a common electoral roll, the communal distinction between Greek Cypriots and Turkish Cypriots being thus abolished.

Also in July 1965 the Cyprus House of Representatives approved an agreement with the Shell, British Petroleum and Mobil Oil companies for the construction of an oil refinery at Larnaca. As a result of sabotage in October 1965, believed to have been the work of left wing elements opposed to the July agreement, serious damage was done to the Shell oil storage installations at Larnaca.

The UN mediator in Cyprus, Dr. Galo Plaza, resigned in December 1965. A special envoy from U Thant, Señor José Ruiz-Bennett, reached Cyprus in February 1966 with the aim of discovering local views on the continuation of the UN mediation effort and to examine the position of the UN peace force in Cyprus. Little had been done towards mediation since Dr. Galo Plaza published a detailed report in March 1965. Moreover, no clear indication existed at this time as to where the funds would be found to continue the existence of the UN forces in the island. The United Nations was in fact to renew the mandate of these forces in June 1966 and again in December 1966. In addition the UN Secretary General, U Thant, announced in January 1967 that he had chosen Señor Bibiano Osorio-Tafall, of Mexico to be his personal representative in Cyprus, Señor Carlos Bernardes of Brazil, having resigned the appointment for personal reasons.

GENERAL GRIVAS

There was further tension in Cyprus during March 1966 over the position of General Grivas the former head of EOKA. The General had returned to the island in June 1964 at a time when it was felt that he might be able, with his high personal prestige to bring to order the small "private armies" and "irregular bands" which had emerged among the Greek Cypriots and which, in their refractoriness and violence, bade fair to throw off obedience to the commands of the Cyprus Government.

President Makarios now, in March 1966, attempted to limit the functions of General Grivas in Cyprus and so to end a situation which saw political control vested in himself, while command of the armed forces, both the Greek Cypriot National Guard and also the "volunteer" Greek troops stationed in Cyprus rested with the General, who took his orders from Athens. The President suggested that the National Guard should be transferred to the control of the Cyprus Minister of Defence—a proposal which found favour neither with General Grivas nor at Athens, where it provoked a sharp political crisis. The whole affair underlined the distrust separating President Makarios and General Grivas and the doubts existing at Athens as to the ultimate intentions of the President.

Meanwhile negotiations in secret had begun anew between Athens and Ankara in June 1966 and continued throughout the rest of the year.

Great Britain, in November 1966, announced her intention to reduce her military establishment in Cyprus. Some 2,000 servicemen would be brought back to Great Britain by the summer of 1967. At the same time there was to be a scaling down in the amount of stores held at the Dhekelia base. The Royal Air Force station at Nicosia had already been run down to care and maintenance status, leaving Akrotiri to function still as a large R.A.F. headquarters.

There was renewed tension in Cyprus during the winter of 1966-67 over the shipment of small arms and machine-guns to the island from Czechoslovakia. Reports current at the time intimated that President Makarios had resolved to create several specialized units within the Cyprus police force. General Grivas was known to have declared to the government at Athens that he would not be responsible for good order in Cyprus, if there were forces in the island bearing arms and yet outside his control. There was serious concern, too, at Ankara that the Turkish Cypriots would be exposed to new dangers, should the Cyprus Government be allowed to arm paramilitary groups independent of the forces now under General Grivas. It was announced from Athens in December 1966 that the arms which had thus far reached Cyprus would be stored on the island in warehouses under the control of Greek troops. Also in December the Turkish Republic informed Czechoslovakia that it would have to review relations between the two countries, if further shipments of arms were sent to Cyprus. The Ankara government, in February 1967, was urging that the Czechoslovak arms then stored in Cyprus should be surrendered to the custody of the United Nations force in the island.

Communal violence flared out once more in April 1967, when a sharp conflict occurred between elements of the Greek Cypriot National Guard and the Turkish Cypriots of Mari, a village close to the main road running from Nicosia to Limassol. The UN force at once sealed off the area and, after a week of negotiation, obtained the consent of the Turkish Cypriots to take over the positions dominating the road which were the actual scene of the fighting.

ATTEMPTS AT A SETTLEMENT

Attempts to settle the dispute over Cyprus continued throughout the spring and summer of 1967. Sufficient progress was made in the course of negotiations between Athens and Ankara to render possible a summit meeting between the Turkish Prime Minister, Mr. Demirel, and the Prime Minister of Greece, Mr. Kollias. The meeting was held on the Turkish-Greek frontier in Thrace, at Kesan and Alexandropolis, in September 1967. Under discussion were proposals involving the union of Cyprus with Greece, but also the establishment in the island of a Turkish base which would safeguard the interests of the Turkish Cypriots. The negotiations at Kesan and Alexandropolis failed, however, to bring about agreement between the Turkish and the Greek governments.

On October 31st, 1967, Mr. Rauf Denktaş, an exiled leader of the Turkish Cypriots, returned to Cyprus, only to meet with arrest. The Cyprus Government, under pressure from Ankara, released Mr. Denktaş on November 12th and sent him back to the Turkish mainland. This episode led to a swift and, as subsequent events made clear, a dangerous reaction on the part of the Greek Cypriot National Guard under its commander, General Grivas. The Greek Cypriots—in pursuance of a right established earlier with UN approval, but then left in abeyance since April 1967—attempted, in November 1967, to force police patrols through the Turkish Cypriot enclaves of Ayos Theodoros and Kophinou—villages commanding the important roads running from Nicosia to Larnaca and Limassol on the southern shore of the island. Turkish resistance was answered with a full-scale assault by the National Guard on the villages, leading to considerable loss of life amongst the Turks. This renewal of violence led the government at Ankara to threaten massive intervention in Cyprus and along the Turkish-Greek border in Thrace.

The National Guard now withdrew its troops from the Turkish enclaves. Moreover, the government at Athens recalled General Grivas to Greece, the resignation of the General from his command in Cyprus following hard on the

order for his recall. Nonetheless, throughout the last two weeks of November the situation remained tense. Urgent discussions involving Ankara and Athens, the United Nations, the personal ambassador of President Johnson of the U.S.A. and also the Government at Nicosia led eventually to a settlement of the immediate crisis.

The main lines of the settlement embraced the withdrawal from Cyprus of the regular Greek troops introduced there, in the guise of "volunteers", during the course of earlier crises and the end of the large-scale preparations for war which the Turkish government at Ankara had been making in recent weeks. The Turks also pressed for the dissolution of the Greek Cypriot National Guard, for the handing over of all weapons (including consignments of arms arrived earlier from Czechoslovakia) and for the enlargement of the UN role in Cyprus for the maintenance of law and order there. Between December 8th, 1967, and January 16th, 1968, Greek troops, estimated to number more than 7,000, did in fact leave Cyprus. On January 17th the Greek Government informed the Turkish Government that the withdrawal of all Greek troops, except for the agreed contingent, had been completed.

On December 29th, 1967, the Turkish community set up a "transitional administration" to administer affairs of the Turkish-Cypriot areas "until such time as the provisions of the 1960 Constitution have been fully implemented". The eleven-man administration, with Dr. Küçük as President and Rauf Denktaş (who was permitted to return to Cyprus later, in April) as Vice-President, with assignments similar to those of ministers, was to function as an executive council, with plans for the establishment of a semi-parliamentary House of Representatives.

The recent trend of events had emphasized the unlikelihood that *enosis* of Cyprus with Greece would be achieved in the near future. Indeed, the failure of the Turkish-Greek negotiations at Kesan and Alexandropolis in September 1967 had left President Makarios free to pursue a more immediate solution, acceptable now, perhaps, to most of the Greek Cypriots—i.e. to prolong the existence of Cyprus as a sovereign independent state. The Archbishop, in January 1968, announced that a presidential election would be held in February, the objective being to secure a mandate for policies which might lead to a settlement of the differences existing between the Greek and Turkish communities in Cyprus. The opposition elements among the Greek Cypriots, favouring union with Greece, put forward their own candidate for the presidential office. The election thus offered in effect a choice between *enosis* and continued independence for Cyprus. On February 25th President Makarios was given a massive majority vote in support of his policies.

The Turkish Cypriots announced earlier the same month that in view of the decision of the Greek Cypriot administration to hold elections for the Presidency only, the Turkish Cypriot community had been obliged to hold elections for the Vice-Presidency; Dr. Küçük had been the only candidate and had been declared elected unopposed.

At the same time President Makarios was preparing proposals for constitutional reforms under which the Turkish Cypriots would be accorded special rights and privileges within a unitary state of Cyprus. To prepare the ground for an approach towards future agreement between the two communities, he began to raise the restrictions which had been enforced on the Turkish Cypriots. During the first months of 1968 a series of measures restored to them freedom of movement and freedom to import into their enclaves such essential materials as cement, timber and iron.

Moreover, by February 1968, the governments of Greece and Turkey were engaged once more in discussions to find a satisfactory formula for a settlement of the Cyprus

question. Moves were made towards a resumption of talks between the two communities in Cyprus and Greek Cypriot and Turkish Cypriot representatives, led respectively by Mr Clerides and Mr Denktas, met in Beirut, Lebanon, from 2nd to 5th June. Further talks were held in Nicosia from June 24th to July 25th. A communiqué issued on July 25th stated that identity of views had been established on a number of points but that important issues remained which required patient negotiation if existing gaps were to be narrowed.

The discussions between representatives of the two communities were resumed on August 29th and on November 1st it was announced that written proposals were being exchanged on matters which included representation in the legislature. The resignation of the Cyprus Minister of the Interior, Mr Georgiadis, on November 1st, following an allegation in a Greek government report that he had been implicated in an attempt on the life of the Prime Minister of Greece (where a military régime had been in power since 1967), aroused resentment against the Greek Government amongst Greek Cypriots. Nevertheless the Greek and Turkish Governments were kept closely informed of progress in the talks, Mr Clerides flying to Athens and Mr Denktas visiting Ankara. President Makarios, also, visited Athens in September 1968 and January 1969. A joint communiqué issued by Mr Clerides and Mr Denktas on February 4th, 1969, said that written proposals exchanged had concerned the judiciary, the police, local government, and the executive, as well as the legislature. Attempts to narrow the gaps on these issues were continuing. Two sub-committees set up within the framework of the talks to examine questions of legislative authority and independent authorities began work on May 6th.

On February 6th Mr Clerides and Mr Georgiadis announced their intention of forming a new political party, comprising nationalist elements which supported the Cyprus Government, with a wide popular base. The same day Dr Lyssarides, a left wing politician, announced the formation of another new party. President Makarios issued a statement approving 'the creation of an organized Political life' and welcoming 'the initiative taken for the creation of one Party for the nationalist front'.

ASSASSINATION ATTEMPT AND ELECTIONS

Since early 1969 the National Front, which supports Enosis (Union with Greece) has claimed responsibility for several raids and thefts of arms from police outposts, the shooting and wounding of the Chief of Police, and several unsuccessful bomb attacks on Government ministers. Special legislation was enacted in August 1969 to ban the movement. On March 8th 1970 an attempt was made on the life of President Makarios as his helicopter took off from the Presidential Palace in Nicosia. Five days later security officials prevented former Minister of the Interior Georgiadis from leaving the island. On the previous day he had been found guilty of illegally possessing two loaded pistols. On March 16th Georgiadis was found shot dead in his car near Nicosia. It was widely believed that Georgiadis was involved in the attempted assassination, and at the trial in November when four Greek Cypriots were found guilty, the suspicion was confirmed by a court ruling. Disturbances continued in May 1970 with a raid on a Limassol police station when large quantities of arms and ammunition were stolen, fifty members of the banned National Front were arrested, of whom 21 were given prison sentences in December.

Despite these events the government felt secure enough to hold a general election in July the first since 1960. The 35 Greek seats in the House of Representatives were contested by 141 candidates. The results showed that the Patriotic (Unified) Party, the leader of the governing coalition, lost ground whilst the candidates favouring Enosis had little success. The Communist AKEL Party won all the nine seats it contested however, and thus became the second largest party in the chamber. The President had a few days earlier announced the first major cabinet shuffle since he came to power, bringing in six new members. Separate elections were held for the 15 Turkish seats in the House of Representatives and for the 15 communal seats, which together make up the Turkish Communal Chamber. These are unlikely to be considered valid in the event of a settlement being reached between the two communities.

TALKS CONTINUE

The third round of inter-communal talks were resumed on March 23rd 1970, and continued at weekly intervals. Little affected by the July elections they ended in failure on August 17th, with Turkish demands for regional autonomy still conflicting with Greek fears of partition. Before the fourth round began on September 21st, President Makarios visited Athens and confirmed the Greek Government's support for the further handling of the situation. After a break of over a month to allow consultations between both sides and contacts in the U.S.A., talks continued at fortnightly intervals. A 'package deal' solution was proposed by Mr Clerides in December 1970 and again in January 1971, but on both occasions it was rejected by his Turkish opposite number.

At the same time relations between the Council of Ministers and the House of Representatives became strained when members of the Unified Party rejected certain proposals in the 1971 budget, a constitutional crisis was averted by certain assurances from President Makarios. Hopes of a settlement between the communities rose in February when the government put forward plans for the rehabilitation of some Turkish Cypriot refugees to their villages on condition that they live under Greek control. Mr Denktas rejected this however, and the talks reached deadlock in April following a speech by President Makarios in which he referred to Cyprus as 'a Greek island'. He continued 'We shall maintain its unity until we have handed it back to Greece.' In an effort to keep the talks open UN Secretary General, U Thant sent a special envoy to meet the Cypriot leaders.

When the United Nations extended the mandate of its Peace-Keeping Force in Cyprus for the nineteenth six-month period in May 1971, U Thant delivered a warning that the failure of the inter-communal talks could lead to a 'new and major crisis' which could seriously threaten peace and security in the eastern Mediterranean.

The crisis drew closer in July when the Greek Government put pressure on the Greek Cypriot side to make further concessions, including specifically the appointment of a Turkish Minister in charge of local government, and threatened to seek a solution directly with Ankara. President Makarios reacted strongly to the suggestion of an imposed settlement and as a result of a visit to Moscow, succeeded in securing Soviet support for his view. At this time the inter-communal talks appeared to be on the verge of breakdown.

K.G.M.

ECONOMIC SURVEY

Geographically Cyprus may be divided into four regions distinguished by their natural and climatic features. These are the north coastal belt including the narrow Kyrenia mountain chain; the central plain, known as the Mesaoria, from Famagusta and Larnaca to Morphou Bay; the mountainous area of the south centre, dominated by the Troodos massif with its highest point of Mount Olympus (6,400 feet); and the coastal plain of the south running from a point west of Larnaca to Limassol and Paphos.

Of these areas the most significant in the island's economy are the central plain, which is the most densely populated and the centre of the island's grain production, and the mountains, in which are situated the mineral deposits which form the basis of the important extractive industries; the vineyards, state forests and beaches which also form the principal tourist attractions on Cyprus.

The population of Cyprus has increased rapidly in the period since the island passed under British rule, at a rate of between $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent and two per cent per annum, and at the end of 1968 had reached an estimated 630,000. This has been the result of a spectacular fall in the death rate, particularly in the infant mortality rate, due to the advances in public health which have virtually eliminated such diseases as malaria and amoebic dysentery. The emergence of a young, mostly literate population, unable to be contained by the old agricultural economy, has been at the root of most of the island's economic and political problems in the last two decades. Income per head has arisen from about £200 in 1961 to around £280 in 1968, and is the highest in the area apart from Israel.

AGRICULTURE

Agriculture is the most important single economic activity in Cyprus. It provides about 21 per cent of domestic production and employs 39 per cent of the labour force. Wheat and barley account for one-third of the cultivated area, but the island is a net importer of cereals. The principal exports are carobs, spring potatoes, tobacco, vegetables, grapes and citrus fruit; however, the difficulty in marketing recent record crops has led to diversification in production towards "exotic" vegetables such as asparagus, green peppers, aubergines, artichokes, etc. Over 70 per cent of agricultural exports are marketed through co-operatives, which have done much to improve standards of packing and presentation. Viticulture has been an outstanding success in recent years, with steadily increasing exports of wine, grape juice, raisins as well as fresh grapes. Agricultural exports account for just under two-thirds of all exports and the proportion is likely to increase.

About 60 per cent of the land area is cultivated but only 5 per cent of this is irrigable in the hot summer, and because of the extensive fallow system in use on a third of the land only one crop in two years is produced in these areas. A five-year water study completed in 1968 by the UN has shown that the discovery of any new underground water supplies is unlikely. Already uncontrolled pumping has caused an incursion of sea water into some citrus areas.

Agricultural output more than doubled over the last ten years. Production of citrus fruits, which accounts for about a fifth of total agricultural export earnings, reached 167,000 tons in 1970, and that of potatoes exceeded 200,000 tons; in 1969 output of grapes reached a record 187,500 tons. Cereal production topped 180,000 tons in 1969, but dropped to 115,000 tons in 1970 owing to drought. The value of agricultural exports rose to nearly £C24

million in 1970, Britain being the island's largest customer and usually taking about a third of the total citrus crop and the majority of the spring crop of potatoes.

Since agriculture is the most important sector of the Cyprus economy, substantial efforts are being made by the government to strengthen it. In March 1969 the House of Representatives passed the Land Consolidation Law, aimed at putting an end to land fragmentation and at establishing economically viable land holdings through the unification and redistribution of existing small plots. Laws and customs of inheritance have led to fragmentation of ownership on a vast scale. The new Law envisages the creation of a Central Land Consolidation Authority which will direct, organize and co-ordinate *all* activities pertaining to land consolidation. Two pilot schemes are to be put into operation in the Mesaoria plain and in Paphos. The expectations are that when fully applied land consolidation will raise the island's agricultural output by 20 per cent though it should be stressed that this is a long-term programme.

Consolidation is not to be confined only to forming viable units as far as area is concerned. The construction of irrigation channels designed to conserve the use of water, new roads to provide ease of access (farmers and shepherds in many cases have to pay for the right to cross other owners' properties to reach their own), encouragement of terracing in hill farm areas, anti-erosion measures and the provision of windbreaks will be carried out in conjunction with the programme. All these factors are consistent with the second development plan (1967-71) which has made agriculture as the basis for growth—with a target increase of 50 per cent in agricultural production. Apart from £C10.5 million direct government investment in agriculture, a further £C8.6 million is to be spent on water development.

INDUSTRY

Industry (including mining, construction and electricity) accounts for 29 per cent of national product and employs 24 per cent of the labour force. The major sectors of industry in order of importance are mining (mainly copper and iron pyrites), construction, food processing and textiles. Industrial firms are predominantly small scale; over 90 per cent of all enterprises employ less than four people. Nearly half of the labour force in manufacturing firms consists of proprietors and their families. Firms are prevented from reaching a scale of production which would bring about substantial reductions in costs by the restricted size of the local market. The market is restricted partly by the small absolute size of the population, but also by the relative poverty of rural families which are the majority of Cypriots. If industrial efficiency is to be improved, manufacturing must attract more investment and better entrepreneurs. A more efficient industrial sector might be able to sell more abroad. To some extent increased efficiency has occurred as a result of increased capital investment and training of workers. Net value added for manufacturing industry rose from £4.7 million in 1954 to £14.7 million in 1966, and employment from 26,300 to 31,232.

The mining industry, ranking second only to agriculture in importance for the Cyprus economy, offers little prospect for continued growth. Copper (which gave its name to the island) is the most important mineral but the mines, which have been worked steadily for more than 40 years, are becoming depleted and despite fairly widespread pros-

pecting no important new reserves have come to light. So far only low grade deposits have been found in any quantity and it will depend upon how prices fluctuate whether it will be economical to work many of these. Additional reserves which have been found are expected to maintain the industry at about the present level for at least 5 years and known low grade ore reserves are on a sufficient scale to extend this life to 10 years provided that prices justify the working of them. The three major copper-producing companies are Cyprus Mines Corporation, Hellenic Mining Company and Cyprus Sulphur and Copper Company. Asbestos is becoming increasingly important and ore reserves are more than adequate at present. Mineral products provided 35 per cent of the export trade of Cyprus in 1968 worth £C12.5 million, an appreciable improvement of £C3.4 million on 1967 which undoubtedly owed much to the better prices following the November 1967 devaluation. As output and employment have been declining in mining and quarrying so they have been rising slowly in the construction industry and increasing rapidly in the public utilities. There are however no plans to introduce heavy industries.

The index of manufacturing production rose by 59 per cent between 1958-66 but employment remained constant due to the fact that the sector is undergoing mechanisation. About 75 per cent of output now emanates from larger scale establishments and approximately 60 per cent of net value added comes from food, beverages, tobacco, clothing and footwear. Output and employment are declining in mining and quarrying but rising slowly in the construction industry and increasing rapidly in the public utilities.

TRADE

Imports rose by 16.7 per cent to £C98.2 million in 1970 and exports rose 10.3 per cent to £C45.2 million. The visible trade gap widened by about £C8 million to a record £C53 million. Manufactured goods, machinery and equipment account for over one-half of total imports and food and fuel another quarter. The agricultural and mineral sectors of the economy account for approximately two-thirds and one third of total exports respectively.

In order to facilitate trade the island's principal port of Famagusta has been improved and expanded and similar extensions are planned for Limassol and Larnaca for which it is hoped the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development will provide assistance. Nicosia International Airport has been modernized and expanded.

Most of the island's trade is with Sterling Area and EEC countries. The U.K. taking between 35 and 40 per cent of Cyprus's exports followed by West Germany with about 10 per cent. Negotiations began early in 1971 to study the island's relationship with the EEC and the possibility of an association. Diversification of export markets is official policy. Cyprus has trade and payments agreements with most of the east European countries but commercial ties with the communist block remain limited. Trade with the U.S.S.R. has tripled in value since 1960 but is still less than 3 per cent of Cyprus' total trade.

The large and widening trade deficit has been more than offset by invisibles and capital inflow, notably tourism, U.K. and other military expenditure and Cypriot expatriate remittances and capital inflows. This allowed for a rise in gold and foreign exchange reserves which reached £C73 million at the end of 1968, the equivalent of one year's imports. The decision to follow the pound sterling's devaluation in November 1967 was taken after Cyprus' important trade competitors, Israel and Spain, had also decided to devalue. Any attempt to maintain the old parity could have cost the loss of confidence in the Cyprus currency. If the latter occurred a speculative capital outflow

and/or a cessation of capital inflow would result. Either would be detrimental to economic development.

Tourism has been a major growth industry. The number of visitors to Cyprus has almost trebled between 1965 (33,246) and 1970 when the figure reached over 126,000. In addition many cruise passengers visit the island for short periods. Income from tourism topped £C7 million in 1969. From 1966 to early 1970 Cyprus benefited from the U.K. travel allowance which made Sterling Area holidays more attractive for U.K. tourists who account for some 50 per cent of total tourists. Devaluation has also helped. The Cyprus Government has shown its interest in tourism in recent years by granting long term loans to private tourist enterprises. A £C4.5 million government tourist development is to be built. The purchase of villas or plots of building land by expatriates has become increasingly common in some parts of the island.

The buyers are mainly British and the villas are used as homes for retirement or as holiday cottages. Strong demand means that high prices are paid and this inflow of foreign capital has helped strengthen the balance of payments as will expenditure by a substantial foreign community.

The U.K. military presence in Cyprus is reckoned to benefit the economy to the extent of £C15 million. Dependence of this (and expatriate remittances) is regarded as a structural weakness in the external accounts and growth in exports and tourist revenue is designed to counteract this.

DEVELOPMENT

The first half of the sixties has been a period of rapid economic growth apart from 1964 when national income at current prices fell by 7 per cent. The average annual rate of growth for the period 1962-66 amounted to 5.7 per cent. The per capita national product at 1958 prices moved from £198 in 1964 to £232 in 1965 and £244 in 1966. Most of the investment has been undertaken by the private sector and has occurred predominantly in two sectors: urban housing and installations related to the British military base following the move from Suez to Cyprus. From 1958 to 1966 as the real value of capital formation declined and agriculture was afflicted by bad harvests, gross domestic product declined and heavy unemployment occurred in urban areas. By the end of the fifties Cyprus faced some clearly defined economic problems. First it seemed doubtful if copper mining could maintain its previous rate of expansion in view of the exhaustion of profitable deposits. During the sixties mining and quarrying has continued to decline. In 1956 62 per cent of the total exports of the island consisted of minerals and by 1966 it fell to 38 per cent. Very largely this is due to the fall in the price of minerals in the international market but there has also been an expansion of agricultural exports at the expense of mineral exports. Secondly it was doubtful if Cyprus could continue to count on British defence expenditure in the area which had been the motive force for past development. Thirdly private investors tended to avoid directly productive activities like manufacturing or agriculture in favour of urban real estate. Government intervention and planning seemed essential to promote future development of the economy.

There were two attempts at drawing up a development plan in the period of British rule. In 1946 a ten year development programme was opened which emphasised the development of an electric grid and the provision of pure water in rural and more particularly urban areas with public health ideas prominent. In 1956 a more ambitious plan was initiated to cost £38 million of which £11 million had been spent by 1959. The great emphasis

in this plan was placed upon communications. £26.1 million was to go on roads, telegraph, ports and airports as well as the continuation of the electrification programme. Agriculture got £6.35 million and social services £5 million. Industry was not included in either plan. (Indeed it is doubtful if either could be called a plan since there was no consideration of the overall economic position). In August 1961 the Government launched a five-year plan of a quite different kind. Its overall target was a rate of growth of 6 per cent per annum, yielding a per capita income increase of 4 per cent per annum which would provide an average annual income per head of £175 by 1966. The aim of the plan was to revitalise and restructure the economy as a means of securing full employment and a healthy balance of payments. Among its main objectives were agricultural and industrial growth, improvements in water conservation and irrigation (essential for agricultural development) and expansion of the tourist industry.

Preliminary results for the plan appear encouraging. The annual rate of growth for the gross national product was 5.7 per cent and 4.6 per cent for the per capita product. By the end of the plan per capita real consumption had risen from £167 in 1962 to £193 in 1966. Apart from 1964 (a year of particularly severe communal strife), the trend in gross domestic fixed capital formation was definitely upwards, increasing from 18.5 per cent of the gross national product in 1962 to 20.4 per cent in 1966. The level of unemployment is now very slight and underemployment in rural areas has been significantly reduced by the rapid agricultural development which has occurred.

The Second Five-Year Development Plan (published in May 1968) envisages at 7 per cent annual growth rate of the total investment of £C200 million indicated by the Plan, government development expenditure is limited to £C57

million, a further £C9.6 million by public corporations, and the private sector is expected to invest £C13.6 million. It is forecast that only 9 per cent of investment will be foreign in origin, compared with the previous Five-Year Plan when foreign investment amounted to more than 23 per cent of the total required. In outline the Plan's objectives are to improve the balance of payments; to achieve a lesser dependence on exogenous (and therefore unpredictable) sources of foreign exchange than at present; internally to ensure the proper use all of the productive factors of the economy; an adequate level of social benefits and more balanced regional development. It is hoped to increase agricultural products by 50 per cent as well as to double agricultural exports. Electric power supplies will be expanded at a cost of £C6 million and the manufacturing sector aims to increase its contribution to gross domestic product from 12.2 per cent in 1966 to some 14 per cent in 1971. The island communications network (road, ports and air transport) are to be improved and a tourist total of 160,000 is planned for 1971.

Two major problems still hamper economic development. First there is the continued reduction of British expenditure on the Cyprus base which has led to unemployment. More important is the communal strife between Greeks and Turks which has dislocated large areas of the island's economy, particularly the tourist trade. There appears to be no economic basis to this conflict, which is purely racial and political, but it has now split the island into two distinct economic units. Moreover, the future of the British base is very problematical and if it goes, expenditures which have in recent years amounted to about one fifth of the national income will cease. Finally, the conflict has endangered the flow of aid and private investment upon which the success of any plan ultimately depends.

B.R.

STATISTICAL SURVEY

AREA AND POPULATION

AREA (square miles)		POPULATION (1970 estimates)					
TOTAL	CULTIVATED	TOTAL	GREEKS	TURKS	NICOSIA (capital)	BIRTH RATE (per '000)	DEATH RATE (per '000)
3 572	2,300	633 000	518 000	115 000	115 000	21.3	6.8

Limassol 51,500 Famagusta 42 500, Larnaca 21 400 Paphos 11,800, Kyrenia 4 900 Immigrants nil, Emigrants 2,318.

EMPLOYMENT
(1969)

Agriculture	96 000
Manufacturing and Construction	60 900
Mining	5,100
Commerce and Administration	45 500
Services	19 900
Military	6 200
Other	28 400

AGRICULTURE
PRODUCTION

		1969	1970			1969	1970
Wheat	(000 tons)	80	43	Olives	(000 tons)	19	7
Barley	(" ")	100	55	Wine	(million gals)	10	10
Potatoes	(" ")	160	205	Oranges	('000 tons)	105	95
Carrots	(" ")	23	18	Grapefruit	(" ")	44	45
Carobs	(" ")	55	48	Lemons	(" ")	23	27

EXPORTS (tons)

	1968	1969	1970
Citrus Fruit	130 639	134 589	130 999
Potatoes	135,520	117 009	158 073
Carrots	14,254	20 920	15 557
Grapes	10 075	11,277	10,114
Raisins	4 364	5 333	6 330

EXPORTS OF CITRUS FRUIT (tons)

	1968	1969	1970
Oranges	74 856	86 075	76,471
Grapefruit	32,735	33 048	33 899
Lemons	22,507	14 918	19 846
Others	541	540	783

Livestock (1970) 435 000 sheep, 360 000 goats, 115 000 pigs, 35 500 cattle

Fishing (1969) Value of catch £418,000

CYPRUS—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

MINING

EXPORTS

(tons)

	1967	1968	1969	1970
Asbestos	18,541	17,614	18,842	23,752
Chromite	26,948	23,779	26,467	30,752
Cupreous concentrates	44,625	61,922	62,780	53,011
Cement copper	8,773	11,398	9,412	10,961
Cupreous pyrites	183,673	141,131	84,660	94,532
Iron pyrites	710,260	802,368	834,082	805,183
Gypsum	13,247	10,837	9,300	4,508
Terra umbra	6,143	6,569	8,731	6,843
Yellow ochre	456	570	550	444
Other minerals	5,107	12,376	12,902	19,552

INDUSTRY

MANUFACTURING AND COTTAGE INDUSTRIES

(£'000)

1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970*
12,400	14,200	16,300	18,000	19,900	22,400	24,200

* Estimated.

FINANCE

£1 Cyprus=1,000 mils.

£1 Cyprus=£1 sterling; 416.6 mils=U.S. \$1.

£100 Cyprus = £100 sterling = U.S. \$240.

BUDGET 1969

(£)

REVENUE		EXPENDITURE	
Direct Taxes	6,591,350	Agriculture and Forests	700,365
Indirect Taxes	13,480,000	Water Development	192,725
Fees, Charges and Reimbursements	3,310,049	Public Works	659,494
Interest on Public Money	2,271,600	Cyprus Army and Tripartite Agreement	144,201
Rents and Royalties	495,000	Customs and Excise	311,043
Fines and Forfeitures	72,000	Public Debt Charges	1,378,693
Lotteries	830,000	Pensions and Grants	1,164,500
Miscellaneous	337,010	Cost of Living Allowances	1,187,000
Sales of Immovable Property	5,000	Medical	1,700,302
		Police	2,078,190
		Subsidies and Contributions	1,300,000
		Education Grants	4,006,633
		Other	9,776,323
TOTAL	27,392,009	TOTAL	24,599,469

1971 Budget: Revenue £37,900,000; Expenditure £32,300,000; Transfer to Consolidated Fund of the Republic £5,600,000.

CYPRUS—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

DEVELOPMENT BUDGET 1969

(A)

Water Development	2,566,558
Road Network	1,693,245
Harbours	1,161,218
Agriculture	1,302,270
Commerce and Industry	520,362
Airports	440,910

1971 Development Budget: Total expenditure £16,843,000

NATIONAL ACCOUNTS

(£ million)

	1967	1968	1969
GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT	150.6	165.1	188.5
<i>of which</i>			
Agriculture	32.1	32.7	39.0
Construction	10.4	12.2	14.5
Income from abroad	6.4	6.9	7.2
GROSS NATIONAL INCOME	157.0	172.0	195.7
Less depreciation allowances	-7.6	-8.2	-9.5
NET NATIONAL INCOME	149.4	163.8	186.2
Indirect taxes less subsidies	11.8	13.1	14.2
NET NATIONAL PRODUCT	161.2	176.9	200.4
Depreciation allowances	7.6	8.2	9.5
GROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT	168.8	185.1	209.9
Balance of exports and imports of goods and services, and borrowing	8.7	11.0	17.0
AVAILABLE RESOURCES	177.5	196.1	226.9
<i>of which</i>			
Private consumption expenditure	115.9	126.3	141.1
Government consumption expenditure	18.7	20.9	24.0
Gross fixed capital formation	32.6	41.8	51.0
Increase in stocks	3.9	0.2	3.6

CURRENCY IN CIRCULATION

June 30th, 1969: £16,716,000.

June 30th, 1970: £17,891,000.

RETAIL PRICE INDEX

(1967=100)

	1968	1969	1970
All Items	103.8	106.2	108.8
Food and Drinks	104.3	108.6	110.1
Rent	99.9	101.1	106.2
Fuel and Light	104.2	104.2	102.5
Household Equipment	109.5	112.3	116.0
Household Operations	103.8	104.7	107.9
Clothing and Footwear	101.5	102.4	104.2
Miscellaneous	106.4	108.3	113.1

CYPRUS—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

BALANCE OF PAYMENTS—ALL FOREIGN COUNTRIES (£ million)

	1966	1967	1968
<i>Goods and Services:</i>			
Merchandise	—20.4	—23.3	—26.6
Travel	3.6	4.3	5.8
Military	22.1	23.5	24.5
Official aid	0.4	0.3	0.3
Insurance and freight	— 5.3	— 5.7	— 6.8
Investment income	— 4.3	— 3.0	— 3.7
Travel and passenger fares	— 4.6	— 5.0	— 5.7
CURRENT BALANCE	1.4	1.4	— 0.4
<i>Capital and Monetary Gold:</i>			
Short-term capital	0.3	0.4	0.8
Long-term loans	0.7	0.2	— 0.3
Other private long-term capital	2.7	3.5	4.2
Other official long-term capital	— 0.2	— 0.5	— 0.5
CAPITAL BALANCE	3.5	3.6	4.2
Net Errors and Omissions (incl. Multilateral Adjustments)	— 0.6	2.8	0.4
OVERALL BALANCE	4.3	7.8	4.2

LONG TERM LOANS (£'000)

	1966	1967	1968
I.B.R.D. (Electricity Authority)	1,257	472	210
German Federal Republic	89	—	—
U.S.A. (P.L. 480 program)	102	139	11
TOTAL	1,448	611	221

UNITED NATIONS PEACE-KEEPING FORCE IN CYPRUS

COMPOSITION OF FORCE

	MILITARY	POLICE
Australia	—	50
Austria (medical unit)	55	45
Canada	595	—
Denmark	289	40
Finland	258	—
Ireland	418	—
Sweden	283	40
United Kingdom	1,070	—
TOTAL	2,995	175

There are 40 civilians attached to UNFICYP. Grand total:
3,210

FINANCE

Provisional estimate of cost of UN Forces March 1964 to June 1970 was \$115,000,000.

CYPRUS—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

EXTERNAL TRADE

(£'000)

YEAR	IMPORTS*	EXPORTS	BALANCE
1966	55,368	29,238	-26,119
1967	59,712	29,697	-26,130
1968	70,944	36,959	-30,915
1969	86,462	40,903	-33,985
1970	98,229	45,189	-53,040

* Excluding NAAFI imports.

COMMODITIES (£'000)

IMPORTS*				EXPORTS			
	1968	1969	1970		1968	1969	1970
Food	9,132	11,832	13,726	Food	16,318	18,846	19,230
Beverages and Tobacco	1,077	1,136	1,190	Oranges	3,841	4,352	3,683
Crude Materials, Inedible	1,977	1,859	2,284	Potatoes	4,426	4,795	6,517
Mineral Fuels and Lubricants	6,006	6,365	6,994	Beverages and Tobacco	3,405	3,844	3,849
Petroleum Products	5,631	5,976	6,629	Crude Materials, Inedible	13,143	12,941	14,859
Animal and Vegetable Oils and Fats	900	990	1,450	Iron Pyrites	3,063	3,172	2,588
Chemicals	6,892	7,190	7,620	Cuprous Concentrates	4,005	4,370	5,257
Manufactures	20,046	25,022	28,459	Copper Cement	2,773	2,264	3,533
Iron and Steel	3,381	4,740	5,740	Mineral Fuels and Lubricants	46	30	16
Machinery and Transport Equipment	17,627	23,816	27,525	Animal and Vegetable Oils and Fats	324	221	135
Non-electric Machinery	7,623	8,489	10,503	Chemicals	81	390	249
Electrical Machinery	4,371	5,292	6,415	Manufactures	514	864	1,024
Transport Equipment	5,633	8,181	10,607	Machinery and Transport Equipment	1,751	2,381	3,579
Miscellaneous Manufactures	5,156	6,178	6,706	Miscellaneous Manufactures	809	883	1,563
Other Items, n.e.s.	2,132	2,074	2,275	Other Items, n.e.s.	568	503	685
TOTAL	70,945	86,462	98,229	TOTAL	36,959	40,903	45,189

* Excluding NAAFI imports.

COUNTRIES (£'000)

IMPORTS*				EXPORTS			
	1968	1969	1970		1968	1969	1970
Austria	768	721	874	Belgium	414	537	295
Belgium	1,220	1,582	1,771	Czechoslovakia	371	360	372
France	3,093	3,928	4,174	Denmark	261	293	415
German Fed. Republic	5,365	6,897	7,085	France	1,047	942	1,198
Greece	2,929	4,071	5,226	German Dem. Republic	433	830	1,014
India	587	505	775	German Fed. Republic	6,955	6,994	8,115
Israel	1,475	1,595	2,847	Greece	775	1,006	1,242
Italy	7,585	8,429	10,211	Israel	363	552	296
Japan	2,168	3,111	3,788	Italy	1,893	2,786	2,576
Lebanon	732	1,140	1,323	Lebanon	450	447	549
Netherlands	2,228	3,046	3,275	Netherlands	1,979	1,563	1,404
Netherlands Antilles	368	—	—	Spain	1,851	1,098	1,031
Portugal	1,062	656	780	Sweden	240	195	383
Sweden	1,151	1,205	1,606	Turkey	70	119	253
Turkey	221	299	383	U.S.S.R.	1,837	2,410	2,289
U.S.S.R.	1,606	2,319	2,027	United Kingdom	13,724	16,028	17,352
United Kingdom	23,895	26,309	28,874	U.S.A.	513	522	512
U.S.A.	3,459	4,095	6,554				
Yugoslavia	573	1,736	1,568				

* Excluding NAAFI imports.

TRANSPORT**ROADS**

	1966	1967	1968	1969
Cars . . .	33,228	35,424	40,135	46,463
Taxis . . .	1,817	1,918	2,103	2,386
Lorries . . .	12,738	12,795	13,455	13,897
Motor Cycles . .	10,661	11,293	12,096	13,331
Tractors . . .	5,032	6,078	6,298	7,037
TOTAL . . .	63,476	67,508	74,087	83,114

SHIPPING

	1967	1968	1969	1970
Vessels* Entered ('000 net reg. tons) .	4,308	4,510	4,867	4,667
Goods Loaded ('000 tons) . . .	1,425	1,532	1,496	1,527
Goods Unloaded ('000 tons) . . .	991	1,016	1,265	1,418

* Steam or motor vessels.

CIVIL AVIATION**CYPRUS AIRWAYS**

	1967	1968	1969	1970
Kilometres flown . . .	1,453,000	1,714,000	1,651,000	n.a.
Passenger arrivals . . .	116,626	133,925	165,544	174,681
Passenger departures . . .	120,268	133,229	167,309	174,633
Freight landed (tons) . . .	1,339	1,150	1,402	1,644
Freight cleared (tons) . . .	2,059	3,277	3,930	6,119

TOURISM**VISITORS***

	1967	1968	1969	1970
United Kingdom . . .	35,976	41,970	56,132	60,056
Israel . . .	1,614	3,320	4,718	3,814
Greece . . .	6,542	8,292	9,964	9,305
United States . . .	6,471	11,428	10,720	10,401
Lebanon . . .	2,367	3,415	7,134	8,995
TOTAL (inc. others) . . .	68,397	88,472	118,006	126,580

* Excluding one-day visitors.

Tourist Earnings: (1966) £3.6m.; (1967) £4.3m.; (1968) £5.8m.; (1969) £7.7m.

Number of Hotel Beds: (1966) 6,020; (1967) 6,379; (1968) 6,612; (1969) 7,244.

CYPRUS—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

EDUCATION

(1970-71)

	GREEK			TURKISH*	
	Establish- ments	Teachers	Pupils	Establish- ments	Pupils
Elementary	556	2,206	68,054	227	16,700
Secondary (Public)	41	1,074	24,823	15	} 7,600
Secondary (Private)	32	531	13,041	n.a.	
Technical and Vocational	10	288	4,379	4	
Teacher Training	1	19	279	1	

* Figures refer to 1965-66.

Source: Ministry of Finance, Department of Statistics and Research, Nicosia

THE CONSTITUTION

SUMMARY

The Constitution entered into force on August 16th, 1960, on which date Cyprus became an Independent Republic. In March, 1961 Cyprus was accepted as a member of the Commonwealth.

ARTICLE I

The State of Cyprus is an independent and sovereign Republic with a presidential régime, the President being Greek and the Vice-President being Turkish, elected by the Greek and the Turkish Communities of Cyprus respectively as hereinafter in this Constitution provided.

ARTICLES 2-5

The Greek Community comprises all citizens of the Republic who are of Greek origin and whose mother tongue is Greek or who share the Greek cultural traditions or who are members of the Greek Orthodox Church.

The Turkish Community comprises all citizens of the Republic who are of Turkish origin and whose mother tongue is Turkish or who share the Turkish cultural traditions or who are Moslems.

Citizens of the Republic who do not come within the above provisions shall, within three months of the date of the coming into operation of this Constitution, opt to belong to either the Greek or the Turkish Community as individuals, but, if they belong to a religious group, shall opt as a religious group and upon such option they shall be deemed to be members of such Community.

The official languages of the Republic are Greek and Turkish.

The Republic shall have its own flag of neutral design and colour, chosen jointly by the President and the Vice-President of the Republic.

The Greek and the Turkish Communities shall have the right to celebrate respectively the Greek and the Turkish national holidays.

ARTICLES 6-35

Fundamental Rights and Liberties

ARTICLES 36-53

President and Vice-President

The President of the Republic as Head of the State represents the Republic in all its official functions; signs the credentials of diplomatic envoys and receives the credentials of foreign diplomatic envoys; signs the credentials of delegates for the negotiation of international treaties, conventions or other agreements; signs the letter relating to the transmission of the instruments of ratification of any international treaties, conventions or agreements; confers the honours of the Republic.

The Vice-President of the Republic as Vice-Head of the State has the right to be present at all official functions; at the presentation of the credentials of foreign diplomatic envoys; to recommend to the President the conferment of honours on members of the Turkish Community which recommendation the President shall accept unless there are grave reasons to the contrary. The honours so conferred will be presented to the recipient by the Vice-President if he so desires.

The election of the President and the Vice-President of the Republic shall be direct, by universal suffrage and

secret ballot, and shall, except in the case of a by-election, take place on the same day but separately.

The office of the President and of the Vice-President shall be incompatible with that of a Minister or of a Representative or of a member of a Communal Chamber or of a member of any municipal council including a Mayor or of a member of the armed or security forces of the Republic or with a public or municipal office.

The President and Vice-President of the Republic are invested by the House of Representatives.

The President and the Vice-President shall hold office for a period of five years.

The Executive power is ensured by the President and the Vice-President of the Republic.

The President and the Vice-President of the Republic in order to ensure the executive power shall have a Council of Ministers composed of seven Greek Ministers and three Turkish Ministers. The Ministers shall be designated respectively by the President and the Vice-President of the Republic who shall appoint them by an instrument signed by them both.

The decisions of the Council of Ministers shall be taken by an absolute majority and shall, unless the right of final veto or return is exercised by the President or the Vice-President of the Republic or both, be promulgated immediately by them.

The executive power exercised by the President and the Vice-President of the Republic conjointly consists of:

- Determining the design and colour of the flag.
- Creation or establishment of honours.
- Appointment of the members of the Council of Ministers.
- Promulgation by publication of the decisions of the Council of Ministers.
- Promulgation by publication of any law or decision passed by the House of Representatives.
- Appointments and termination of appointments as in Articles provided.
- Institution of compulsory military service.
- Reduction or increase of the security forces.
- Exercise of the prerogative of mercy in capital cases.
- Remission, suspension and commutation of sentences.
- Right of references to the Supreme Constitutional Court and publication of Court decisions.
- Address of messages to the House of Representatives.

The executive power exercised by the President consists of:

- Designation and termination of appointment of Greek Ministers.
- Convening and presiding of the meetings of the Council of Ministers.
- Right of final veto on Council decisions and on laws or decisions of the House of Representatives concerning foreign affairs, defence or security.
- Right of recourse to the Supreme Constitutional Court.
- Publication of the communal laws and decisions of the Greek Communal Chamber.
- Prerogative of mercy in capital cases.
- Addressing messages to the House of Representatives.

CYPRUS—(THE CONSTITUTION)

The executive power exercised by the Vice President consists of

- Designation and termination of appointment of Turkish Ministers
- Asking the President for the convening of the Council of Ministers and being present and taking part in the discussions
- Right of final veto on Council decisions and on laws or decisions of the House of Representatives concerning foreign affairs defence or security
- Right of recourse to the Supreme Constitutional Court.
- Publication of the communal laws and decisions of the Turkish Communal Chamber
- Prerogative of mercy in capital cases
- Addressing messages to the House of Representatives

ARTICLES 54-60 Council of Ministers

The Council of Ministers shall exercise executive power in all matters other than those which are within the competence of a Communal Chamber, including the following

- General direction and control of the government of the Republic and the direction of general policy
- Foreign affairs defence and security
- Co-ordination and supervision of all public services
- Supervision and disposition of property belonging to the Republic
- Consideration of Bills to be introduced to the House of Representatives by a Minister
- Making of any order or regulation for the carrying into effect of any law as provided by such law
- Consideration of the Budget of the Republic to be introduced to the House of Representatives

ARTICLES 61-85 House of Representatives

The legislative power of the Republic shall be exercised by the House of Representatives in all matters except those expressly reserved to the Communal Chambers

The number of Representatives shall be fifty

Provided that such number may be altered by a resolution of the House of Representatives carried by a majority comprising two-thirds of the Representatives elected by the Greek Community and two-thirds of the Representatives elected by the Turkish Community

Out of the number of Representatives 70 per cent shall be elected by the Greek Community and 30 per cent by the Turkish Community separately from amongst their members respectively, and, in the case of a contested election, by universal suffrage and by direct and secret ballot held on the same day

The term of office of the House of Representatives shall be for a period of five years

The President of the House of Representatives shall be a Greek, and shall be elected by the Representatives elected by the Greek Community, and the Vice-President shall be a Turk and shall be elected by the Representatives elected by the Turkish Community

ARTICLES 86-111 Communal Chambers

The Greek and the Turkish Communities respectively shall elect from amongst their own members a Communal Chamber

The Communal Chambers shall, in relation to their respective Community, have competence to exercise legislative power solely with regard to the following

- All religious educational, cultural and teaching matters
- Personal status composition and instances of courts dealing with civil disputes relating to personal status and to religious matters
- Imposition of personal taxes and fees on members of their respective Community in order to provide for their respective needs

ARTICLES 112-121, 126-128 Officers of the Republic

ARTICLES 122-125 The Public Service

The public service shall be composed as to 70 per cent of Greeks and as to 30 per cent of Turks

ARTICLES 129-132 The Forces of the Republic

The Republic shall have an army of two thousand men of whom 60 per cent shall be Greeks and 40 per cent shall be Turks

The security forces of the Republic shall consist of the police and gendarmerie and shall have a contingent of two thousand men. The forces shall be composed as to 70 per cent of Greeks and as to 30 per cent of Turks

ARTICLES 133-164 The Courts (See section Judicial System)

ARTICLES 165-199 Financial, Miscellaneous, Final and Transitional Provisions

Note The following measures have been passed by the House of Representatives since January 1964, when the Turkish members withdrew

- 1 The amalgamation of the High Court and the Supreme Constitutional Court
- 2 The abolition of the Greek Communal Chamber and the creation of a Ministry of Education.
- 3 The unification of the Municipalities
- 4 The unification of the Police and the Gendarmerie
- 5 The creation of a military force by providing that persons between the ages of eighteen and fifty can be called upon to serve in the National Guard
- 6 The extension of the term of office of the President and the House of Representatives by one year from July 1965, extended by a further year, July 1966; extended by a further year July 1967
- 7 New electoral provisions, abolition of separate Greek and Turkish rolls abolition of post of Vice-President

THE GOVERNMENT

HEAD OF STATE

President: Archbishop MAKARIOS.

In the presidential elections of February 1968 Archbishop Makarios defeated Dr. Takis Evdokas (Enosis) by 220,911 votes to 8,577.

COUNCIL OF MINISTERS

(July 1971)

Minister of Foreign Affairs: SPYROS KYPRIANOU.

Minister of Finance: ANDREAS PATSALIDES.

Minister of Communications and Works: NICOLAOS ROUSSOS.

Minister of Agriculture and Natural Resources: PANAYOTIS TOUMAZIS.

Minister of Commerce and Industry: ANDREAS LOIZIDES.

Minister of the Interior and Defence: EPAMINONDAS KOMODROMOS.

Minister of Justice: GEORGE IOANNIDES.

Minister of Labour and Social Insurance: ANDREAS MAVROMATIS.

Minister of Education: FRIXOS PETRIDES.

Minister of Health: MICHAEL GLYKYS.

DIPLOMATIC REPRESENTATION

REPRESENTATIVES OF CYPRUS ABROAD

(A) Ambassador; (CA) Chargé d'Affaires; (HC) High Commissioner.

Federal Republic of Germany: TASOS PANAYIDES, Bad Godesberg (A).

Greece: NICOS KRANIDIOTIS, Athens (A).

Turkey: AHMET ZAIM, Ankara (A).

U.S.S.R.: DEMOS HADJIMILTIS, Moscow (A) (also accredited to Czechoslovakia).

United Arab Republic: ANTIS SOTERIADES, Cairo (A).

United Kingdom: COSTAS ASHIOTIS, London (HC).

U.S.A.: ZENON ROSSIDES, Washington (A), (also head of Mission to the United Nations, New York).

EMBASSIES AND LEGATIONS ACCREDITED TO CYPRUS

(In Nicosia, except where otherwise stated.)

(E) Embassy; (HC) High Commission; (L) Legation.

Argentina: Rome, Italy (E).

Austria: Athens 148, Greece (E).

Belgium: Beirut, Lebanon (E).

Brazil: Tel Aviv, Israel (E).

Bulgaria: 15 St. Paul St. (E); *Chargé d'Affaires:* GATCO GATCEV.

Canada: Tel-Aviv, Israel (HC).

China, Republic (Taiwan): 3 Papanicoli St. (E); *Ambassador:* MATHEW TSENG-HUA LIU.

Colombia: Jerusalem, Israel (E).

Cuba: Beirut, Lebanon (L).

Czechoslovakia: 5 Glafkos St. (E); *Ambassador:* PANOL MAJLING.

Denmark: Beirut, Lebanon (E).

Federal Republic of Germany: 10 Nikitaras St. (E); *Ambassador:* Dr. ALEXANDER TÖRÖK.

Finland: Rome, Italy (E).

France: 43 Savvas G. Rotsides St. (E); *Ambassador:* JEAN DE GARNIER DES GARETS.

Greece: 8-10 Byron Ave. (E); *Ambassador:* CONSTANTINOS PANAYOTAKOS.

Hungary: Athens, Greece (E).

India: Beirut, Lebanon (HC).

Israel: 27 Androcleous St. (E); *Ambassador:* SHAUL BAR-HAIM.

Italy: 7 Alexander Diomedes St. (E); *Ambassador:* ALESSANDRO CAPECE M. DI BUGANO.

Ivory Coast: Jerusalem, Israel (E).

Japan: Beirut, Lebanon (E).

Lebanon: 1 Queen Olga St. (E); *Ambassador:* ALEXANDRE AMMOUN.

Netherlands: Beirut, Lebanon (E).

Nigeria: Rome, Italy (HC).

Norway: Tel-Aviv, Israel (E).

Pakistan: Beirut, Lebanon (HC).

Poland: Athens, Greece (E).

Romania: 8 Catsonis St. (E); *Chargé d'Affaires:* STELIAN PEREANOU.

Spain: Damascus, Syria (E).

Sudan: Athens, Greece (E).

Sweden: Beirut, Lebanon (E).

Switzerland: Tel-Aviv, Israel (E).

Syrian Arab Republic: 28 Stassinou Ave. (E); *Chargé d'Affaires:* MOHAMMED JOUHEIR ACCAD.

Turkey: 10 Server Somuncuoğlu St. (E); *Chargé d'Affaires:* ERCÜMENT YAVUZALP.

U.S.S.R.: 4 Gladstone St. (E); *Ambassador:* NIKITA P. TOLUBEYEV.

United Arab Republic: 3 Egypt Ave. (E); *Ambassador:* SALAH EL DIN MOHAMED SHARAWAY.

United Kingdom: Alexander Pallis St. (HC); *High Commissioner:* PETER RAMSBOTHAM.

U.S.A.: Therissos St. (E); *Ambassador:* DAVID H. POPPER.

Vatican: 2 Victoria Rd. (Apostolic Nunciature); *Apostolic Delegate:* PIO LAGHI.

Yugoslavia: 2 Vasilissis Olgas St. (E); *Ambassador:* DUSAN BLAGOJEVIĆ.

Cyprus also has diplomatic relations with Congo Democratic Republic, Ethiopia, Ghana, Somalia and Uganda.

CYPRUS—(PARLIAMENT, POLITICAL PARTIES, BRITISH SOVEREIGN BASE AREAS, ETC)

PARLIAMENT

HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

The House of Representatives consists of 50 members. Thirty five Greeks are elected by the Greek community and 15 Turks by the Turkish community. (The Turkish members have not attended the House since January 1964.) Election is for a term of five years.

President: GLAUCOS CLERIDES (Greek)

ELECTIONS FOR THE GREEK REPRESENTATIVES (July 5th 1970)

PARTY	SEATS
Unified Party	15
AKEL (Communist Party)	9
Progressive Front	7
EDEK (Unified Democratic Union)	2
Independents (Pro-Government)	2
TOTAL	35

THE COMMUNAL CHAMBERS

The Greek Communal Chamber was abolished in 1965 and its former functions are now performed by the Ministry of Education.

The Turkish Communal Chamber continues to legislate on matters of a communal nature (e.g. religion, education and social affairs). Members are elected for a five-year term, and the President and Vice-President are elected by the members.

Turkish Chambers:

President: RAUF DENKTAY

Vice-President: Dr. Ş KIZILIM
30 elected members

POLITICAL PARTIES

Unified Party (Enison) Diagoras St., Chantelclair Building Nicosia. f 1960. Greek supporters of Archbishop Makarios maintains the Hellenic character of the state, right of private ownership. 15 seats in the House of Representatives. Chair GLAUCOS CLERIDES.

Cyprus Turkish National Union (Kıbrıs Milli Türk Birliği) f 1959. formed out of the Cyprus is Turkish Party, is mainly concerned with the welfare of the Turkish minority, stands for full implementation of the London and Zürich agreements which established the 1959 Constitution anti-Communist, 15 seats in House of Representatives, Chairman Dr KİÇÖK, Vice-Chairman OSMAN ÖREK.

AKEL—Progressive Party of the Working People (Anorthotikon Komma Ergazomenou Laou) 2 Spyrou Lambrou St. Nicosia. f 1941, the Communist Party of Cyprus over 14,000 mems. 9 seats in the House of Representatives. Sec-Gen EZEKIAS PAPAIOANNOU.

Progressive Front (Proodefsiki Parataxis) Dionyssios Solomou Sq. Nicosia. f 1970 sponsored by the right wing farmers union pro Government. 7 seats in the House, Chair Dr ODYSSEAS IOANNIDES.

EDEK—United Democratic Union of the Centre (Enisa Demokratiki Enosis Kentrou) f 1969 moderate left wing party which supports the Government and stands for nationalization of mining companies and elimination of foreign military bases. 2 seats in the House. Chair VASSIOS LYSSARIDES.

DEK—Democratic National Party (Demokratikon Ethnikon Komma) Archbishop Makarios Ave., Nicosia. f 1968, opposition party pledged to Enosis and governed by Central Committee of 17 mems. secured 9.8 per cent of votes in the 1970 elections. Chair Dr TAKIS EVDOKAS, Gen Sec POLYCARPOS PETRIDES. publ Gnomi (weekly).

United Democratic Youth Organization (Enisa Demokratiki Organosis Neolais—EDON) P.O.B. 1986, Nicosia, f 1959. 16,000 mems. Pres PANIKOS PEONIDES, Gen Sec DONIS CHRISTOFINIS, Org Sec NICOS CHRISTODOULOU.

BRITISH SOVEREIGN BASE AREAS

AKROTIRI AND DHEKELIA

Administrator: Air Marshal William DEREK HODGKINSON, CB, CBE, DFC, AFC, RAF.

Chief Officer of Administration: J. E. CARRUTHERS.

Senior Judge of Senior Judge's Court: W. A. SIMP, M.D.E. Q.C.

Resident Judge of Judge's Court: J. P. MURPHY.

Under the Cyprus Act 1960 the United Kingdom retained sovereignty in two sovereign base areas and thus was recognized in the Treaty of Establishment signed between the U.K., Greece, Turkey and the Republic of Cyprus in August, 1960. The base areas cover 99 square miles. The Treaty also conferred on Britain certain rights within the Republic, including rights of movement and the use of specified training areas.

UNITED NATIONS PEACE-KEEPING FORCE IN CYPRUS

UNFICYP

P.O. Box 1642, Nicosia, Cyprus

Set up for three months in March 1964 (subsequently extended at intervals of three or six months) to keep the peace between the Greek and Turkish communities and help to solve outstanding issues between them.

Commander: Maj Gen D. PREM CHAND.

Special Representative of the UN Secretary-General: Dr. BIRJANO OSORIO-TAPALL (Mexico).

JUDICIAL SYSTEM

Supreme Court: Nicosia

President: Hon Mr Justice G. S. VASSILIADES.

Judges: Hon Mr Justice M. A. TRIANTAFYLIDES, Hon Mr Justice J. P. JOSEPHIDES, Hon Mr Justice A. S. STAVRIDES, Hon Mr Justice L. N. LOIZOU, Hon Mr Justice T. HADJIANASTASSIOU.

The Supreme Court is the final appellate court in the Republic and the final adjudicator in matters of constitutional and administrative law, including recourse on conflict of competence between state organs on questions of the constitutionality of laws, etc. It deals with appeals from Assize Courts and District Courts as well as from the decisions of its own single judges when exercising original jurisdiction in certain matters such as prerogative orders of habeas corpus, mandamus, certiorari, etc., and in admiralty and certain matrimonial causes.

Assize Courts and District Courts:

As required by the Constitution a law was passed in 1960 providing for the establishment, jurisdiction and powers of courts of civil and criminal jurisdiction, i.e. of six District Courts and six Assize Courts.

Ecclesiastical and Communal Courts:

There are seven Orthodox Church tribunals having exclusive jurisdiction in matrimonial causes between members of the Greek Orthodox Church. Appeals go from these tribunals to the appellate tribunal of the Church.

Civil disputes relating to personal status of members of the Turkish Community are dealt with by two Communal Courts. There is also a communal appellate court to which appeals may be made from the decisions of the courts of first instance.

Supreme Council of Judicature: Nicosia.

The Supreme Council of Judicature is composed of the Attorney-General, the President and the two senior Judges of the Supreme Court, the senior District Court President, the senior District Court Judge and a practising advocate of at least twelve years practice.

It is responsible for the appointment, promotion, transfer, etc., of the judges exercising civil and criminal jurisdiction in the District Courts and the Assize Courts.

RELIGION

Greeks form 80 per cent of the population and most of them belong to the Orthodox Church. Most Turks (18 per cent of the population) are Muslims.

Greek Orthodox	.	.	449,000
Muslims (Turks)	.	.	104,000
Armenian Apostolic	.	.	3,500
Maronite	.	.	3,000
Anglican	}	.	.
Roman Catholic		.	18,000
Other		.	.

The Orthodox Church of Cyprus: Archbishopric of Cyprus, P.O. Box 1130, Nicosia; f. 45 A.D.; the Autocephalous Orthodox Church of Cyprus, a part of the Eastern Orthodox Church, enjoys the privilege of independence with the right to elect its own Archbishop. 500,000 members.

Archbishop of Nova Justiniana and all Cyprus: Archbishop MAKARIOS III.

Metropolitan of Paphos: Bishop YENNADIOS.

Metropolitan of Kitium: Bishop ANTHIMOS.

Metropolitan of Kyrenia: Bishop KYPRIANOS.

Suffragan Bishop of Constantia: Bishop CHRYSOSTOMOS

Suffragan Bishop of Amathus: Bishop KALLINIKOS.

Islam: Most of the adherents in Cyprus are Sunnis of the Hanafi Sect. The religious head of the Muslim community is the Mufti.

The Mufti of Cyprus: MUDERRIS MEHMET DANA.

Other Churches: Armenian Apostolic, Catholic (Maronite Rite), Roman Catholic and Church of England. [17]

THE PRESS

The establishment and general running of newspapers and periodicals is defined in the Press law, consisting of Chapter 79 of the pre-independence Code of Law, later amended by Law 69 in 1965. Article 19 of the Constitution declares in connection with the rights of the Press: "Every person has the right to freedom of speech and expression in any form. This right includes freedom to hold opinions and impart information and ideas without interference by any public authority and regardless of frontiers." This freedom is subject to legally specified conditions and restrictions in the interest of state security, public safety, order, public health and morals, the protection of the reputation and the rights of others and the preservation of the authority and impartiality of the judiciary.

Cyprus has a small but vigorous Press, catering for all political viewpoints in the twofold community, and constituting the most influential of the communications media. Most newspapers are owned by private individuals but *Patris* is owned by a limited company. Although several dailies have a clear political leaning, and *Haraughi* is affiliated to AKEL, the Communist Party, none is directly owned by a political party.

Of the fourteen dailies, nine are in Greek, four in Turkish and one in English. This paper, the *Cyprus Mail*, appears each day, but all the Greek and some of the Turkish dailies do not publish a Monday edition, when most of the weekly papers appear.

Philelephtheros, *Agon* and *Makhi* (linked with the weekly *Tharros*) tend to be pro-government, while *Haraughi* (associated with the weekly *Nei Keri*) reflects the views of the extreme left, and *Patris* those of the political right. The moderate-liberal *Eleftheria*, a paper of some prestige, is politically independent, like the *Cyprus Mail*. *Bozkurt* and *Halkın Sesi* are the chief spokesmen for the Turkish community. *Eleftheria*, *Philelephtheros* and the *Cyprus Mail* are the dailies most respected for their serious news coverage. *Makhi* and *Haraughi* are also very influential, as they are the most widely read, with circulations of over ten thousand. Though low by West European standards this figure is high in comparison with Middle Eastern circulation figures. Precise, reliable circulation figures are virtually unobtainable.

Among the most respected weekly newspapers are the moderate *Kypros* and *Alithia*, though *Tharros* and *Nei Keri* are very popular. There are also a number of trade union papers, headed by *Ergatiko Vima*, the organ of the Pan-Cyprian Federation of Labour.

DAILIES

Agon (Struggle): Cnr. Ledra and Apollan St., P.O.B. 1417, Nicosia; f. 1964; morning; Greek; nationalist; Owner and Editor N. KOSHS; circ. 7,500.

Akin: 37 Mecidiye St., P.O.B. 867, Nicosia; Turkish; Editor KEMAL AKINCI.

Bozkurt (Grey Wolf): P.O.B. 324, 144 Kyrenia St., Nicosia; f. 1951; Turkish; Independent; Editor CEMAL TOGAN; circ. 4,000.

Cyprus Mail: P.O.B. 1144, Vasiliou Voulgaroctonou St. 24, Nicosia; f. 1945; English; Independent; Editor C. H. W. GOULT; circ. 5,460.

CYPRUS—(THE PRESS, RADIO AND TELEVISION)

Eleutheria (Freedom) POB 1050 30 Plutarch St Nicosia f 1906 as biweekly 1936 daily Greek Independent Editor G J HADJINICOLAOU circ 13 250

Halkin Sesi (Voice of the People) POB 339 172 Kyrenia St, Nicosia f 1942 morning Turkish Independent Turkish Nationalist Editor Dr H FAIZ circ 3 000

Haravghi (Dawn) POB 1556 Bouboulina 25 Nicosia f 1956 Left wing Greek Editor ANDREAS FANTIS circ 12 750

Makhi (Battle) POB 1105 Grivas Dighenis Ave Nicosia f 1960 morning Greek Owner and Editor N SAMPSON circ 8 460

Mesimorni 250 Diagoras St Nicosia Greek afternoon Editor K HADJINICOLAOU

Patris (Fatherland) POB 2026 1 Androcleous St Nicosia f 1964 Greek right wing Editor K KONONAS circ 7 500

Philoleptheros (Liberal) POB 1094 Ledras 250-252 Nicosia nationalist Greek morning Editor N PATRICHS circ 12 750

Ta Nea 4 Leondas St Nicosia Greek morning Editor P STYLIANOU circ 4 000

Tellefeta Ora (Stop Press) POB 1543 36 Arsinois St Nicosia f 1964 afternoon Greek Independent Editor in-Chief C J SOLOMONIDES

WEEKLIES

Alitheia (Truth) POB 1605 26 Apollon St Nicosia f 1951 Greek Pan Cyprian Liberal Editor A. TONIOS PHARMAKIDES circ 14 500

Athlitiki (Athletics) 7 St Dimitriou St Nicosia a Greek Editor A TSALIAS circ 8 500

Asymatos (Wireless) POB 2082 26 Apollon St Nicosia Greek Editor Nr CONSTANTINIDES circ 7 400

Eleptheron Vima (Liberal Tribune) POB 2408 166 Ledra St Nicosia Greek Editor C N HADJICOSTIS circ 4 300

Ergatikhi Phoni (Workers Voice) POB 1138 23 Athanasia Diakon Nicosia f 1946 Greek organ of Cyprus Workers Confederation Editor CHR. A MICHAELIDES circ 3 500

Ergatiko Vima (Workers Tribune) POB 1885 Volonaki St Nicosia f 1956 Greek organ of the Pancyprrian Federation of Labour Editor in Chief GEORGE TSIRKOURIS circ 8 300

Ethniki (National) POB 1902 8 Metaxas Sq Nicosia f 1959 organ of Democratic Union Greek Edited by a Committee circ 5 000

Gnomi (Opinion) POB 2137 6 Archb shop Makarios III Ave Nicosia organ of the Democratic National Party circ 5 000

Heranan POB 355 43 Kallipolis Ave Nicosia Armenian

Kater (Victory) POB 636 21-23 Yedier Mahalles St Nicosia Turkish

Kypros (Cyprus) POB 1491 10 Apostle Barnabas St Nicosia f 1952 Greek non party circ 12 300 Editor J KYRIAKIDIS

Nel Kaeri (New Times) POB 1963 8 Vasiliou Voul Garoktonou St Nicosia Greek Editor LYSSANDROS TSILIKIS circ 7 300

Official Gazette Printing Office of the Republic of Cyprus Nicosia f 1960 Greek published by the Government of the Republic of Cyprus

Philathlos (Sports Fan) POB 2133 96 St Paul St Nicosia Greek Dir TH THEMISTOCLEOUS circ 4 400

Savash (Combat) 93 Kyrenia St Nicosia Turkish

Synagermos POB 1061 217 Ledra St Nicosia f 1964 Greek Owner and Editor PH CONSTANTINIDES circ 4 000

Tharros (Courage) POB 1105 Grivas Dighenis Ave Nicosia f 1961 Greek Independent Progr and Editor N SAMPSON circ 9 200

PERIODICALS

Apostolos Barnabas Cyprus Archbishopric Nicosia bi monthly Greek organ of the Greek Orthodox Church of Cyprus Dir CHR AGAPIOU circ 1 200

Countryman Nicosia f 1943 bi monthly Greek published by the Cyprus Public Information Office

Cyprus Medical Journal POB 93 Nicosia f 1947 monthly English and Greek Editor Dr G N MARAN 605

Cyprus Today c/o Ministry of Education Nicosia f 1963 quarterly published in English by the Public Information Office for the Ministry of Education cultural and general information Chief Editor FRIKOS P VRACHAS

Dimossios Ypallilos 2 Andreas Demetriou St Nicosia fortnightly published by the Cyprus Civil Servants Trade Union circ 1 500

International Political Review 21A Nicodimou Mylona Nicosia Editor A KANNAOYROS circ 2 400

Kyriagos Logos (Christian Words) 20 Kimon Engomi Nicosia bi monthly Editor P STYLIANOU circ 1 620

Mathitiki Estia (Student Hearth) Pancyprrian Gymnasium Nicosia f 1950 monthly Greek organ of the Pancyprrian Gymnasium students Editor CHRYSANTHOS KYPRIANOY

Nea Epochi 25 Bouboulina St Nicosia f 1959 quarterly Greek miscellaneous material Editor ST ANGELIDES circ 2 500

Paediki Hara 18 Archbishop Makarios III Ave Nicosia monthly published by the Pancyprrian Union of Greek Teachers Editor N LEONTOU circ 13 500

Pania Embros POB 1156 Nicosia monthly published by the Cyprus Scouts Association Greek circ 3 700

Pnevmatiki Estia Nicosia f 1960 Greek literary, monthly

Radio Programme Cyprus Broadcasting Corps POB 1824 Nicosia fortnightly published by the CBC circ 18 600

Synergastis (The Co operator) POB 1447 Nicosia f 1961 monthly magazine Greek official organ of the Pancyprrian Confederation of Co-operatives Editor G I PHOTIOTIS circ 5 700

Trapezikos POB 1235 Nicosia f 1960 bank employees magazine Greek monthly Editor G S MICHAELIDES circ 17 500

RADIO AND TELEVISION

RADIO

Cyprus Broadcasting Corporation POB 1824 Nicosia f 1952 programmes in Greek Turkish and English two medium wave transmitters of 20 kW one of 2 kW and one of 0.5 kW relay stations at Paphos and Limassol also relays Radio Monte Carlo to the Middle East from a station on Cape Greco Chair P PASCHALIDES Dir Gen A N CHRISTOFIDES Head of Radio Programmes CH PAPADOPOULOS publ *Radio and TV Guide* (fortnightly)

H.Q. British Forces Broadcasting Service (Near East): British Forces Post Office 53; 110 hours per week in English; Station Controller R. W. MORGAN.

In December 1970 there were 166,888 radio receivers in use in Cyprus.

TELEVISION

Cyprus Broadcasting Corporation—T.V. Division: P.O.B. 1824, Nicosia; began in 1957; transmitters give full coverage of the Island; programmes every day from December 1968; two Band III 40 kW ERP transmitters; Dir.-Gen. A. N. CHRISTOFIDES; Head of Television Programmes G. MITSIDES.

In December 1970 there were 49,232 television receivers in use in Cyprus.

FINANCE

Cap.=capital; p.u.=paid up; dep.=deposits; m.=million.

BANKING

CENTRAL BANK

Central Bank of Cyprus: P.O. Box 1087, 36 Metochiou Street, Nicosia; f. 1963; became the Bank of Issue in 1966; cap. p.u. £100,000; dep. £61.m. (1970); Gov. C. C. STEPHANI; publ. *Report* (annual); *Bulletin* (bi-monthly).

CYPRIOT BANKS

Bank of Cyprus Ltd.: P.O.B. 1472, Phaneromeni St., Nicosia; f. 1899; cap. p.u. £3,000,000; dep. £59.9m. (Dec. 1970); Gov. Dr. REGHINOS THEOCHARIS; Chair. C. D. SEVERIS.

Co-operative Central Bank Ltd.: P.O.B. 1447, Gregoriou Afxentiou St., Nicosia; banking and credit facilities to member societies.

Cyprus Popular Bank Ltd.: cnr. Athens and T.P. O'Connor Streets, Limassol; f. 1924; cap. p.u. £500,000; dep. £3.3m. (March 1970); Chair. PANOS LANITIS; Gen. Man. KIKIS N. LAZARIDES.

Cyprus Turkish Co-operative Central Bank, Ltd.: P.O.B. 1861, Mahmoud Pasha St., Nicosia; banking and credit facilities to member societies.

Güven Türk Anonim Şirketi (Turkish Bank of Nicosia): P.O.B. 1742, Kyrenia St. and Turkish Bank St., Nicosia; f. 1943; cap. p.u. £111,480; dep. £4.2m. (Dec. 1969); Chair. ÜMIT SÜLEYMAN; Gen. Man. I. ORHAN.

DEVELOPMENT BANK

Cyprus Development Corporation, Ltd., The: Nicosia; f. 1963; cap. p.u. £1,000,000; Provides medium or long term loans, working capital requirements or equity share participation supplementary to existing Cyprus enterprises to encourage the development of manufacturing industries, agriculture and tourism in Cyprus; performs related economic and technical research, and acts as investment banker; Chair. G. PAPADOPOULOS; Gen. Man. A. M. PIKIS; Sec. S. G. AMBIZAS.

OTHER BANKS

Barclays Bank D.C.O.: 54 Lombard Street, London, E.C.3; Local Director's Office, P.O.B. 2081, Metaxas Sq., Nicosia; branches at Nicosia (Metaxas Sq., Aturk Sq., Nicosia Airport Rd.), Famagusta, Limassol, Larnaca, Morphou, Kyrenia, Akrotiri, Dhekelia and Episkopi; Local Dir. C. CAROLIDES.

Chartered Bank, The: P.O.B. 1047, Evagoras Ave., Nicosia; two brs. in Nicosia and other brs. at Larnaca, Limassol Famagusta, Paphos, Kyrenia and Morphou.

Lombard Banking (Cyprus) Ltd.: 31 Lombard St., London, E.C.3; General Manager's Office, P.O.B. 1661, Mitsis Building, Metaxas Square, Nicosia; owns a subsidiary, Lombard (Cyprus) Ltd., specializing in hire purchase business; brs. in Nicosia, Limassol and Famagusta; Gen. Man. H. M. KEHEYAN.

National and Grindlays Bank Ltd.: 23 Fenchurch Street, London, E.C.3; Regional Manager's Office, P.O.B. 2069, Makarios III Ave., Nicosia; two brs. in Nicosia and other brs. in Limassol, Famagusta, Larnaca, Kyrenia, Paphos and Morphou; Chair. Lord ALDINGTON.

National Bank of Greece, S.A.: Athens, Greece; Cyprus Superintendent's Office, P.O.B. 1191, Makarios III Ave., Nicosia; three brs. in Nicosia and other brs. in Limassol, Famagusta, Larnaca, Paphos and Morphou; Cyprus Superintendent C. MATSOUKIS.

Türkiye İş Bankası: Ulus Meydanı, Ankara, Turkey; brs. at Famagusta and Nicosia.

STOCK EXCHANGE

Janus Exchange Co., Ltd.: Nicosia; f. 1961; Man. Dir. N. M. HADJIGAVRIEL.

INSURANCE

General Insurance Company of Cyprus, Ltd., The: Bank of Cyprus Building, P.O. Box 1668, Nicosia; f. 1951; Chair. M. S. SAVIDES; Vice-Chair. G. C. CHRISTOFIDES.

TRADE AND INDUSTRY

CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE

Cyprus Chamber of Commerce and Industry: P.O.B. 1455, Nicosia; Chair. M. SAVIDES; Vice-Chair. ATHAN KOVOTSOS, SPYROS IOANNOU; Sec.-Gen. P. BENAKIS.

Famagusta Chamber of Commerce and Industry: P.O.B. 147, Famagusta; Pres. CHR. MAVROUDIS; Vice-Pres. PHOTIOS LORDOS; Sec.-Gen. PAUL VANEZIS.

Larnaca Chamber of Commerce and Industry: P.O.B. 18, Larnaca; Pres. STELIOS DIMITRIOU; Vice-Pres. Dr. ANNIBAS FRANCIS; Hon. Sec. ANDREAS EVRYVIADES.

Limassol Chamber of Commerce and Industry: P.O.B. 347, Limassol; Pres. STAVROS GALATARIOU; Vice-Pres. MICHALAKIS THEODOSIU; Hon. Sec. MICHALAKIS DRACOS.

Paphos Chamber of Commerce and Industry: P.O.B. 1, Paphos; Pres. IANGOS NICOLAIDES; Vice-Pres. LOIZOS HAVOUZARIS; Hon. Sec. GEORGE KYPRIANIDES.

Nicosia Chamber of Commerce and Industry: P.O.B. 1455, Nicosia; Pres. ZENON SEVERIS; Vice-Pres. STELIOS GEORGALIDES; Hon. Sec. EVELTHON GEORGHIADES.

Turkish Cypriot Chamber of Commerce: 99 Kyrenia Ave., Nicosia, P.O.B. 718; Chair. EKREM F. SARP; Vice-Chair. MEHMET CAN.

EMPLOYERS' ORGANISATIONS

Cyprus Employers' Federation: 4th Floor, Charalambides Building, Grivas-Dhigeris Ave. Corner, P.O.B. 1657, Nicosia; f. 1960; 10 Trade Associations mems., 257 direct mems. and 430 indirect mems.; Sec.-Dir. C. KAPARTIS; Chair. T. PANTZARIS; publ. *Newsletter*.

There are also a number of independent employers' associations, among the largest of which are:

Cyprus Building Contractors' Association: 2 Voulgari St., Nicosia; 190 mems.; Sec. G. PARASKEYAIDES.

Limassol Enterprises Contractors' Association: 18 Ipiros St., Limassol; 60 mems.; Sec. O. ECONOMIDES.

CYPRUS—(TRADE AND INDUSTRY, TRANSPORT, TOURISM)

Nicosia District Engineering Employers' Association 103 Eptanous St Nicosia 30 mems Sec C VARNAVIDES
Turkish Employers' Association 69 Arasta St Nicosia 1961 40 mems. Pres A. RAŞİD MUSTAFA Vice-Pres R. N. MANTERA

TRADE UNIONS

Cyprus Civil Servants Trade Union 2 Andreas Demetrio St Nicosia restricted to persons in the civil employment of the Govt. 6 hrs with a total membership of 4 649 Pres L. CHRISTODOULOU Gen Sec G. IACOIOU

Demokratiki Ergatikí Omospindia Kýprou (Democratic Labour Federation of Cyprus) 4 Louki Akrita St Pedias Buildings 16 Nicosia 1962 4 distinct hrs 64 local offices membership 2 500 Gen Sec PETROS STYLIAOOU publ *Ergatikos Agonas* (fortnightly)

Kıbrıs Türk İşçi Sendikaları Federasyonu (Cyprus Turkish Trade Unions Federation) 13 15 Müftü Zia St P O B 681 Nicosia 1954 re-organised 1954 18 trade unions with a total membership of 3 800 affiliated to ICFU Gen Sec NECATİ TAŞKIN publ *Türkish Bulletin* (weekly)

Pankypria Ergatikí Omospindia (Pancyprian Federation of Labour) Archemos St 32 36 Nicosia 1941 branches in all Cyprus towns and local branches and offices in 250 villages 16 unions with total fully paid up membership of 37 000 affiliated to the World Federation of Trade Unions Gen Sec. A. ZIARIDES publ *Ergatikó Vima* (Workers Forum) weekly

Pankypnos Omospindia Anexartition Syntechnion (Pan Cyprian Federation of Independent Trade Unions) 1 Menandrou St Nicosia 1956 has no political orientations 7 trade unions with a total membership of 1 000 Pres COSTAS ANTONIADES Gen Sec KYRKA COŞ NATHANAEU

Synomospindia Ergaton Kýprou (Cyprus Workers Confederation) 23 Athanasioy Diakou P O B 1138 1944 7 Federations 5 Labour Centres 39 Unions 162 Branches 20 000 mems affiliated to the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions Gen Sec MICHAEL PISSAS publ *Ergatikí Phóni* (weekly) circ 5 000

At the end of 1970 there were 18 employers associations with a total membership of 869 104 unions with 255 branches throughout Cyprus and 8 union federations and 5 confederations with 10 branches Total union membership was approximately 73 500

TRADE FAIR

Cyprus International Trade Fair P O B 1094 Nicosia annually in September

TRANSPORT

RAILWAYS

There are no railways in Cyprus

ROADS

There are about 4 700 miles of roads of which over 200 miles have been asphalted There is an extensive network of bus services between Nicosia and the major towns and most villages and between district centres and villages in each area There are also taxi services between the principal towns

SHIPPING

Famagusta is the main port of the island and has a natural harbour vessels of an overall length of 430 feet and a maximum draught of 22 feet can be accommodated

alongside the quay in the inner harbour ships with a maximum draught of 30 ft can be accommodated in the outer harbour There is open roadstead accommodation at Larnaca and Limassol The harbours of Paphos and Kyrenia offer good anchorage to small vessels and fishing craft There is very little coastal shipping

Most of the island's oil passes through Larnaca although large quantities are discharged at Dhekelia Vassiliko Moni and Akrotiri for use in power stations and cement factories Minerals are exported mainly through Vassiliko Limni Aeris and Karavostasi

There are over sixty lines running cargo and passenger services to Cyprus at approximately weekly bi monthly and monthly intervals

CIVIL AVIATION

The airport at Nicosia has a main runway of 8 000 ft which is suitable for all types of aircraft including jets and work on an extension to 9 700 ft started in 1970 there is a secondary runway of 6 000 ft new terminal buildings costing £1.1 million (including £300 000 from a British Government grant) were opened by President Makarios in March 1968

Cyprus Airways Head Office 16 Byron Avenue P O B 1903 Nicosia 1946 Chair G. LIADIS Gen Man E. SAVVA routes to Ankara Istanbul Tel Aviv Cairo Rhodes and Beirut fleet of two Trident 2E routes to Athens Ankara Istanbul Tel Aviv Cairo London Frankfurt and Beirut

Cyprus is also served by the following foreign airlines Aeroflot Alia (Jordan) Alitalia AUA Balkan BEA BOAC CSA El Al Interflug KLM LOT Malev MEA Olympic Turk Hava Yolları United Arab Airlines and Zambia Airways

TOURISM

Since earliest times Cyprus has been at a crossroads between east and west lying on the main trade routes of the Mediterranean and therefore of strategic importance As a result of the commercial and military interest shown by neighbouring peoples over the centuries Cyprus has gained a wide cultural background which is now one of its chief assets as a tourist centre

There was a flourishing civilization in neolithic times already showing contact with neighbouring countries and during the early Bronze Age 2300-1900 B.C. relations with the Near East were both cultural and commercial By the Middle Bronze Age 1900-1550 B.C. contact with other cultures had become so varied that Cypriot art began to lose its own individual characteristics The first Greeks came to the island in the Late Bronze Age 1500-1050 B.C. first as traders then as colonizers it was they who laid the basis of modern Cyprus introducing their architecture and town planning language writing religion political institutions art customs etc. The mingling of styles evolved into what is known as the Levant Mycenaean Later Cyprus came under Ptolemy's rule and then became part of the Roman Empire not much trace remains of the former influence but many examples of architecture sculpture ceramics etc. survive from the Graeco-Roman period notably the ruins of Salamis which include an amphitheatre Severe earthquakes destroyed the principal centres of civilization in the fourth century A.D.

The influence of Byzantium was strong and some fragments remain of the great basilicas erected from the fourth century onwards Arab invasions from the seventh to the tenth centuries caused much destruction but the

inhabitants were not driven from the island and it later became a refuge for various minority groups.

Perhaps the main sources of historical interest in Cyprus are the churches, in the Byzantine style, ornamented sometimes by classical frescoes (twelfth century), sometimes by ikons, and influenced by the French Gothic (fourteenth to fifteenth centuries). The three centuries covered by the reigns of the Princes of Lusignan gave rise to some outstanding examples of architecture, such as the Abbey at Bellapais (fourteenth century). Byzantine creative activity virtually came to an end with the Turkish occupation of the island (1570), with only ikon painting surviving until the eighteenth century; the Turks, however, adapted some existing buildings to their own use, such as the cathedral, built mainly to French designs about 1250, which was Nicosia's principal church until the Turks converted it into a mosque in 1570. There was quite considerable intermingling between the Muslim minority and the Greek majority, with many Christians converting to Islam during the Turkish sovereignty, mainly for commercial reasons; this intermingling lasted until the nineteenth century. *Little has survived of early private building in Cyprus, but the churches, particularly in the Gothic style, are some of the finest in the world, and there are many notable castles and mosques.* The successive invasions of Cyprus can be seen in the castle at Kyrenia, which has a Byzantine core, surrounded by a set of ramparts built by the Crusaders (c. 1190) and a further set erected by the Venetians (c. 1490).

Handicrafts in Cyprus have always displayed a good sense of design—spinning and weaving, embroidery and lacemaking, pottery (all still flourishing) and sculpture in wood and silver and gold work (no longer practised). Poetry has a long tradition dating back at least to the time of Homer: Stassinus, reputed to be Homer's father-in-law, wrote the "Cypriot epics", an introduction to the *Iliad*. Further intellectual flowerings came in the fourth century B.C. and the early Christian period.

Cyprus Tourism Organisation: P.O.B. 4535, Nicosia; there are 141 established hotels with 9,413 beds; Chair. M. G. COLOCASSIDES; Dir.-Gen. A. G. COROMILAS.

Cyprus Automobile Association: Flat 101, Pedhieos Building, Louki Akrita Ave., P.O.B. 2279, Nicosia; f. 1933; Chair. M. S. AGROTIS.

CULTURAL ORGANIZATIONS

E. Ka. Te: Pancyprrian Chamber of Fine Arts, P.O.B. 2179, Nicosia; f. 1964; Pres. STELIOS G. VORSIS; Sec. Gen. GEORGE KYRIAKOU; publ. *Bulletin* (monthly).

Othak: c/o Eleftheria, Nicosia; theatrical organization; Dir. GEORGE PHILIS.

FESTIVALS

Pancyprrian Folk Dance, Music, and Song Festival: c/o Municipal Committee, Limassol; Limassol, June.

Orange Festival: Famagusta and Morphou; early Spring.

Lefkara Lace Festival: c/o Lefkara Municipal Council; July.

Lemon Festival: c/o Karavas Municipal Council, Karavas; August.

Cyprus Night: Larnaka; Summer.

Platres Festival: Platres; August-September.

Wine Festival: Limassol; September.

Limassol Carnival: c/o Limassol Municipal Committee; early Spring.

During the Summer there are productions of Classical and Modern Drama at the ancient open-air theatres of Salamis and Curium.

EDUCATION

Until 31st March, 1965, each community in Cyprus managed its own schooling through its respective Communal Chamber. Intercommunal education had been placed under the Minister of the Interior, assisted by a Board of Education for Intercommunal Schools of which the Minister was the Chairman. On 31st March, 1965, the Greek Communal Chamber was dissolved and a Ministry of Education was established to take its place. Intercommunal education has been placed under this Ministry.

Greek-Cypriot Education

Elementary education is compulsory and is provided free in six grades to children between 6 and 14 years of age. In some towns there are separate junior schools consisting of the first two grades. In some large rural centres there are schools where children can take a two-year post-elementary course if they are not proceeding to a secondary school; there are 11 such schools with 598 pupils. There are also 4 schools for handicapped children and the Ministry runs 9 kindergartens with 483 pupils; most pre-primary education is privately run.

Secondary Education is fee-paying, but over 25 per cent of pupils are wholly or partially exempt from payment. There are two types of six-year schools: the Gymnasion-Lykeion (classical, science and economic sections) and the Vocational-Technical schools (engineering sections) including the Agricultural Gymnasion. There are four-year vocational (trade) schools and five-year commercial schools. There are also 9 foreign-run schools (formerly called "intercommunal") with 199 teachers and 4,120 pupils, and 12 private schools, mainly with a commercial bias, with 158 teachers and 4,779 pupils.

Post-Secondary education is provided at the Pedagogical Academy, which organizes three-year courses for the training of elementary school teachers. There is also a two-year Forestry College (administered by the Ministry of Agriculture) and a three-year Nurses School and one-year School for Health Inspectors (Ministry of Health). Adult education is conducted through 72 Youth Centres in rural areas, six Foreign Language Institutes in the towns and an apprenticeship scheme for young workers (in co-operation with the Ministry of Labour).

Turkish-Cypriot Education

The Turkish Education Office caters for some 18 per cent of the island's population and administers 10 kindergartens, 227 elementary schools (16,298 pupils, 512 teachers), 14 *Orta Okullar* (junior secondary schools with 4,332 pupils), 5 Lycées (1,747 pupils), 3 technical schools (204 pupils) and 1 teacher-training college (56 students). There are 43 evening institutes for adult education.

LEARNED SOCIETIES

British Council: 17/19 Archbishop Makarios III Ave., Nicosia; Rep. R. K. BRADY; library: (see Libraries).

Cyprus Musical Society: 74 Liperti St., Nicosia.

Etaireia Kypriakon Spoudon (*Society of Cypriot Studies*), P.O. Box 1436, Nicosia; f. 1936; aims: the collection, preservation and study of material concerning all periods of the history, dialect and folklore of Cyprus, and the organization of popular art there; the Society maintains a Museum of Cypriot Folk Art; Pres. Dr. K. SPYRIDAKIS; Vice-Pres. Dr. V. KARAGEORGHIS; Sec. and Librarian G. PAPAHRALAMBOUS; Treas. TH. PAPADOPOULLOS; library 2,000 vols.; 250 mems.; publ. *Kypriakai Spoudai* (Cypriot Studies) since 1937.

CYPRUS—(LIBRARIES, MUSEUMS, COLLEGES)

Goethe Institute P.O.B. 1813 Nicosia f 1959 library 2 000 vols Dir Dr WOLFGANG EBERT

Greek Library Association of Cyprus P.O.B. 1039 Nicosia f 1962 promotes library science and professional activities 55 mems Pres COSTAS D STEPHANOU publ *Library Bulletin* (annually)

LIBRARIES

British Council Library 17 Archbishop Makarios III Ave. Nicosia f 1940 re-established 1955 22 400 vols Librarian T THOMAS

Library of French Cultural Centre 4 Costis Palamas Str Nicosia f 1960 5 500 vols Librarian Mrs F JAD JIDAKI

Library of Lantion Gymnasium Limassol f 1940 6 000 vols Librarian A KATTIDES

Library of Paphos Gymnasium Ktima Paphos f 1940 6 000 vols

Library of the American Centre 338 Homer Ave. Nicosia f 1962 lending and reference 8 050 vols Librarian A JACOVIDES

Library of the Archbishopric P.O. Box 1130 Nicosia f 1821 5 000 vols Librarian C. THEODOROU

Library of the Paedagogiki Akademia (Institute of Education) Nicosia f 1959 18 000 vols Greek English German and French Librarian COSTAS D STEPHANOU

Library of the Famagusta Greek Gymnasium P.O. Box 80 Famagusta f 1937 9 500 vols Librarian D A KYPRIANOU SKOUROU

Library of Phaneromeni P.O. Box 237 Nicosia f 1934 26 000 vols Librarian CONSTANTINE HADJIPSAITIS

Library of the Pan-Cyprian Gymnasium P.O.B. 1034 Nicosia f 1927 33 500 vols Librarian Miss D STEPHANOU

Library of the Cyprus Museum P.O.B. 2024 Nicosia f 1883 incorporated in Dept of Antiquities 1934 12 000 vols Librarian Miss L AGRIDIOTOU publs *Report of the Department of Antiquities* (annual) *Report of the Director of the Department of Antiquities* (annual)

Ministry of Education Library Didaskalikon Megaron Archbishop Makarios III Ave. Nicosia f 1962 incorporates Cyprus Public Library 25 000 vols Librarian COSTAS D STEPHANOU

Municipal Library P.O. Box 41 Famagusta f 1954 reference and lending section, an educational films projecting section and art gallery (The Famagusta Municipal Art Gallery) 14 500 vols Librarian and Curator G PH PIERIDES

Municipal Library Limassol f 1945 12 000 vols Librarian Miss A KYRIAKIDES

Sultan's Library Evcaf Nicosia f by Sultan Mahmud II collection of Turkish Persian and Arabic books

Turkish Public Library 49 Mecidiye Street Nicosia f 1955 about 4 000 vols Librarian M NESIJET

There are also Municipal Libraries in Ktima Larnaca and Paphos

MUSEUMS

Cyprus Museum, The P.O.B. 2024 Nicosia f 1883 inc in Dept of Antiquities 1934 Curator K NICOLAOU

The Cyprus Museum displays (1) pottery from the Neolithic and Chalcolithic periods to the Roman Age and a small collection of medieval pottery (2) terracotta figures of the Bronze Age to Roman times (3) limestone and marble sculpture from the Archaic to the Roman Age (4) jewellery from the Bronze Age and especially the Mycenaean period (1400-1200 B.C.) to early Byzantine times and coins from the sixth century to Roman times (5) miscellaneous collections including inscriptions (Phoenician Cypriot and Greek) bronzes glass alabaster bone etc An interesting feature is the room of reconstructed tombs. Extensive reserve collections are available for students. Medieval objects are temporarily housed in annexes.

An archaeological library (*see above*) is housed in the Cyprus Museum building and is open to students.

Publs *A Guide to the Cyprus Museum* (in English and Greek) *Report of the Department of Antiquities Annual Report of the Director of Antiquities*

Folk Art Museum P.O.B. 1436 Nicosia f 1950 Cyprus arts and crafts from early to recent times mainly Cypriot Greek items

Lapidary Museum Nicosia medieval tombstones marble lintels carved stones of palaces churches etc

Museum of Byzantine Icons Nicosia belongs to the Church collections of icons from 11th century onward

District Museums Limassol Larnaca and Paphos and local museums in Famagusta Episkopi (Curium) and Kouklia (Old Paphos)

COLLEGES

Paedagogiki Akademia (College of Education) Nicosia f 1959 3 year courses for elementary school teachers Principal MICHAEL J MARATHEFTIS BA MEd 25 teachers 150 students publs *Epistola Paedagogikis Akademias* (yearbook) *Deltion Pedagogikis Emmeroseos* (Educational Bulletin quarterly) *Spoudastis* (Student twice a year)

Cyprus Forestry College Prodromos f 1951 3 teachers 36 students Principal W FINLAYSON Asst Principal N TH KARAPITIDES

Technical Institute Nicosia courses in machine shop fitting and turning blacksmithing welding and sheet metal work motor vehicle repair electrical installation and radio and television mechanics separate Building Trades Dept

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The Gulf States

BAHRAIN QATAR TRUCIAL STATES

Until 1858 diplomatic and administrative contacts between Britain and the Persian Gulf Principalities were conducted through the East India Company from 1853 to 1873 these functions were handled by the Government of Bombay acting for the Crown, and from 1873 to 1947 by the Government of India. Since 1947 negotiations have been conducted by the British Foreign Office in London. Early in 1968 the British Government announced plans to withdraw all military forces from the Gulf by the end of 1971

THE FEDERATION OF ARAB EMIRATES

Following this representatives of Bahrain Qatar and the seven Trucial States met in Dubai in February 1968. As a result of their discussions the Federation of Arabian Emirates came into being on March 30th. However permanent arrangements for union have yet to be agreed upon. A supreme council of rulers and a temporary federal council consisting of one representative from each state have been introduced. The proposals for a higher federal court joint diplomatic representation and a federal capital have yet to be settled. Talks on implementing these proposals continued intermittently throughout 1968 and until October 1969. A meeting of rulers was then held in Abu Dhabi which selected that town as the temporary capital and its Ruler Sheikh Zaid as the Federation's first President. Sheikh Rashid of Dubai was elected Vice-President. No further decisions were taken as the meeting then broke up over the allocation of posts in the federal 13 member Cabinet. Meetings of rulers scheduled for November 1969 and October 1970 did not take place owing to serious differences emerging at the meetings of deputy rulers.

The situation has been complicated by the return to power in the United Kingdom of the Conservative Party in June 1970. The reiteration of Britain's policy of withdrawal from the Gulf by the end of 1971 came only in March 1971 with the offer by the British Foreign Secretary Sir Alec Douglas Home of a new treaty of friendship to replace the defence treaties due to expire at the end of the

year. The Trucial Oman Scouts would be incorporated into a federal defence force (as proposed by Sir John Willoughby in 1969). British officers would be available for secondment and equipment and training supplied. However such a treaty presupposes the existence of a formal union of Gulf states by the end of 1971. Britain and Saudi Arabia had both been doing their utmost to secure agreement on union among all nine states but Britain at least realized by the summer of 1971 that probably the best that could be hoped for was a loose association of the Trucial States. Bahrain's greater size and sophistication (and her freedom from the Iranian claim to her territory dropped in May 1970) have prompted her to seek separate independence backed by Kuwait and Qatar with whom Saudi Arabia has close ties. She has shown a similar desire to stand alone.

The attitude of Iran and the Arab states is crucial to the success of any federation. Iran has refused to recognize the federation if her claims to the islands of Abu Musa and the Tumbas (at present in the hands of Sharjah and Ras al Khaimah) are not met. She has threatened force if necessary to regain the islands. Iraq naturally opposes Iran's claims and has also called for a complete British withdrawal from the Gulf, leaving the states there to form a federation completely free of all alliances. Kuwait despite seeking closer ties with Bahrain favours federation in the Gulf and reacted favourably to Sir Alec Douglas Home's proposals. Cairo regards complete British withdrawal as a prerequisite of any later arrangements for security in the Gulf.

Late Developments

In July 1971 the rulers of Abu Dhabi, Dubai, Sharjah, Fujairah, Ajman and Umm Al Quwain agreed to form a Federation. Ras Al Khaimah declined to sign the new constitution and it is expected that Bahrain and Qatar will proceed to full independence. A meeting is expected to be held in Abu Dhabi in August 1971 to adopt legislation for the federal machinery and to discuss executive appointments. In late July 1971 there was speculation that a considerable British military presence might remain in the Gulf beyond 1971.

These territories are British Protected States all external relations being conducted by the United Kingdom

BRITISH REPRESENTATION

British Political Resident in the Persian Gulf Bahrain
C G ARTHUR

British Political Agents

Bahrain A J D STIRLING
Qatar E F HENDERSON
Dubai J L BULLARD
Abu Dhabi C J TREADWELL

Special British Representative for Gulf Policy Co-ordination
Sir WILLIAM LUCE

JUDICIAL SYSTEM

Full Court for the Persian Gulf Bahrain Two or three judges nominated by the Secretary of State appeal lies to the Privy Council in London

Chief Court for the Persian Gulf Bahrain Chief Legal Adviser W J PALMER

Both the above Courts can sit anywhere in the Persian Gulf although the Registries are in Bahrain

Territorial Courts Bahrain Qatar Trucial States appeal lies from these courts to the Chief Court

BAHRAIN

GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY

The Bahrain Archipelago lies near Qatar off the west coast of the Gulf.

The total area of the Bahrain group of islands is 245 square miles. Bahrain itself, the principal island, is 30 miles long and 10 miles wide. To the north-east of Bahrain, and linked to it by a causeway and motor road, lies Muharraq island, which is approximately 4 miles long. The archipelago comprising the State of Bahrain consists of thirty-three islands, including Nabih Salih, Jeddah, Hawar and Umm Suban.

The total population is 205,000. The port of Manama, the capital and seat of government, has a population of approximately 80,000 (including some Indian merchants and several hundred Europeans). The town of Muharraq has a predominantly Arab population of approximately 35,000. Both Sunni and Shia Moslems are represented in the indigenous population, the Ruling Family belonging to the Sunnis.

After several centuries of independence Bahrain passed firstly under the rule of the Portuguese (1521 to 1602) and secondly, but intermittently, under Iranian rule (1602 to 1782). The Iranians were expelled in 1783 by the Utub tribe from Arabia whose paramount family, the Al-Khalifas, became the independent Sheikhs of Bahrain and have ruled Bahrain ever since, except for a short break before 1810. Iranian claims based on the Iranian occupation of the islands in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries nevertheless continued to be made from time to time.

In the nineteenth century European powers began to interest themselves in the Gulf area, and Britain was principally concerned to prevent French, Russian and German penetration towards India, and to suppress the slave and arms trades. In 1861, in consequence of political claims put forward by Iran and Turkey, the Sheikh of Bahrain undertook to abstain from the prosecution of war, piracy and slavery by sea in return for British support against aggression. In 1880 and 1892 the Sheikh further undertook not to cede, mortgage or otherwise dispose of parts of his territories to anyone except the British Government, nor to enter into any relationship with a foreign government other than the British without British consent.

Bahrain was naturally affected by the general post-war ferment in the Arab world. The first tentative step towards democratic institutions was taken in February 1956, when elections were held for members of an Education and Health Council. Shortly afterwards there was a strike in the oil refinery, said to be partly a protest against the paternalistic attitude of the British adviser to the Shaikh. There were further disturbances at the time of the Suez crisis. Meanwhile, further symbols of Bahrain's growing independence were the establishment of Bahraini as opposed to British legal jurisdiction over a wide range of nationalities (1957), the issue of Bahrain's own stamps (1960), and the introduction of a separate currency (1965).

A small-scale distribution of village lands was started in 1960, and among economic developments the construction of a new town, Isa Town, which is being built to Western standards of amenity, has been prominent; its first stage was completed and formally inaugurated in November 1968. Bahrain also pioneered free education and health services in the Gulf, and good electricity and water services are available. There was another major strike in 1965 lasting from March 19th to April 30th, the principal cause being a fear of redundancies in the oil companies. In May 1966 Britain announced that her principal base in Arabia would be transferred from Aden to Bahrain in 1968, and a more realistic rent was agreed with the Bahrain Government for the military establishment. However, in 1968 the Wilson government announced that all forces "East of Suez"—including those in the Gulf—would be withdrawn by the end of 1971. This decision was confirmed by the Heath government in March 1971.

Bahrain is officially committed to membership of the embryonic Federation of Arab Emirates, and Sheikh Isa bin Sulman al-Khalifa reaffirmed this policy in December 1970. However, most observers consider that Bahrain is likely to become independent outside a federation by the end of 1971 and to draw closer to Kuwait. With over half the Federation's population and high educational and social welfare standards built up over 40 years, Bahrain would certainly be the natural leader of the Federation and has a strong claim to be its capital; the claim is, however, resisted by the richer but more backward sheikdoms further down the Gulf. One major obstacle to progress on this issue appeared to be finally removed in May 1970 when Iran accepted the United Nations' report on Bahrain's future. The UN representatives visited the island in April and found that popular opinion overwhelmingly favoured complete independence rather than union with Iran. Teheran nevertheless expressed misgivings about the safety of the Iranian community in Bahrain, which it claims is much larger than the 4 per cent figure given in the official census.

Extensive administrative and political reforms came into effect in January 1970. A twelve-member Council of State became the State's supreme executive authority, this being the first formal delegation of the sheikh's powers. Only four of the initial twelve "Directors" were members of the royal family, but all were Bahrainis, and the British advisers were officially reduced to civil servant status. Equal numbers of Sunni and Shi'ite Muslims were included (the royal family apart) to represent Bahrain's religious balance. The reform was claimed to bring Bahrain closer to the Kuwait form of government rather than that in the Trucial sheikdoms. In December 1970, on the ninth anniversary of his accession, the ruler of Bahrain announced that the drafting of the country's first constitution would begin at once and that it would be promulgated at the end of 1971. No arrangements for elections were mentioned.

C.N.B.

ECONOMICS

Agriculture and cattle breeding are practised throughout the islands the main crops being dates and lucerne. Traditional occupations such as dhow building, fishing and pearling continue but on a much smaller scale than before. In recent years several soft drink factories and brick making plants have been established and a major British firm has recently established a local fishing company to develop the prawn potential.

Oil in commercial quantity was found in 1932. The concession is held by the Bahrain Petroleum Company, which is owned jointly by the Standard Oil Company of California and Texaco Inc. It extends over the whole of Bahrain and expires in 2024. The Company is registered in Canada. It was announced in December 1952, that the agreement between the Sheikh and the Company had been modified to allow a fifty-fifty profit sharing arrangement. The State's revenue from oil was thereby doubled. Bahrain became a member of OAPEC (the Organization of Arab Petroleum Exporting Countries) in May 1970. The first approach for exploration rights in Bahrain from Japanese companies came in July 1970 when a delegation discussed the possibility of exploring a 1,500 square mile area formerly held by the Continental Oil Company.

The second largest refinery in the Middle East is at Bahrain. In 1970 it refined a record total of over 92 million barrels, although this figure includes crude oil piped from Saudi Arabia. The Bahrain Petroleum Company itself produced a record 28 million barrels in 1970. Production from Abu Saafa, a new offshore field between Bahrain and Saudi Arabia, began in 1968 at the rate of 1,500,000 tons per annum.

The island is becoming an important communications centre. A new bridge between Manama and Muharraq and a modern air terminal were completed during 1961. In 1969 a development programme was announced which should enable the terminal to handle 'jumbo' jets by the end of

1970. In the first half of 1962 new port installations were completed at Mina Salman. This includes storage and refrigeration facilities for the transit trade. A slipway and modern marine and engineering workshops adjacent to the port were completed during 1963. Bahrain has a free zone in which many British, American and local concerns have their headquarters. The island is a major entrepôt market for the neighbouring Gulf states.

The new Bahrain Development Bureau offers inducements to foreign investors in industrial and commercial projects, notably in the form of relief from taxation, freedom to repatriate profits and cheap power (Bahrain has a large surplus of low cost natural gas). The concern for industrial development is stronger than in the other Gulf states owing to the greater educational advancement of the population and the small scale of the islands' oil production and reserves. In addition, the economy may suffer from the anticipated withdrawal of the British garrison, whose local spending is estimated at £5 million annually.

In October 1968 the Development Bureau achieved a major breakthrough in the form of a project to build an aluminium smelter on the island. The construction contract was signed in January 1969 when the eventual capacity of the £40 million plant was estimated at 90,000 tons per annum. This was raised to 120,000 tons when a contract for extensions to the plant was awarded to a British company in June 1970. The Bahrain Government has a 27½ per cent share in the consortium Aluminium Bahrain (ALBA); the rest of the capital has been subscribed by a variety of European and American interests. A twenty-year contract for cheap natural gas—the principal economic justification for the project—has been negotiated and production is scheduled to start in March 1971.

C N B

STATISTICS

AREA AND POPULATION

Area sq. miles	Population (1965 census)		
	Total	Manama (capital)	Muharraq Town
255	182,203	79,100	34,430

(1969 population estimate 205,000).

The area of Bahrain Island is about 217 square miles; there are about 30 other islands, all much smaller, within the Emirate.

EMPLOYMENT

(1965)

Agriculture and fishing . . .	4,654
Manufacturing	401
Construction	8,328
Oil	6,940
Mining and Quarrying . . .	177
Retail Trade	5,920
Transport	5,494
Government Services . . .	10,394
Other	10,956
TOTAL	53,274

CRUDE OIL PRODUCTION

('000 metric tons)

1966	1967	1968	1969	1970
3,020	3,600	3,686	3,800	3,836

REFINERY PRODUCTION

(Output in million barrels)

1965	1966	1967	1968	1970*
67.6	69.6	84.3	84.5	92.0

Note: 1 metric ton equals approx. 7.3 barrels.

* 1969 figure not available.

Industry: Building materials, clothing, soft drinks, plastic products, industrial gases, boat building and pearl diving.

FINANCE

1 Bahrain Dinar=1,000 fils=10 Qatar/Dubai Riyals.

1.142 Bahrain Dinars=£1 sterling; 0.454 Bahrain Dinars=U.S. \$1.00.

100 Bahrain Dinars=£87.50 sterling=U.S. \$210.

BUDGET

(1969—'000 Bahrain Dinars)

REVENUE	
Oil Payments	8,870
Customs	2,500
Other Items	1,380
TOTAL	12,750

EXPENDITURE (Principal items)	
Health	2,700
Education	3,200
Security	1,950
Administration and Posts . . .	950
Other	4,750
TOTAL	12,550

There is a separate development budget, with an expenditure of B.D. 2.17 million in 1969.

Currency in Circulation at year end (B.D.): (1966) 9,925,000, (1967) 13,437,000, (1968) 16,957,000. The Bahraini Dinar is the official currency in Abu Dhabi and is accepted in other Gulf States; by 1969 nearly two-thirds of the issue circulated outside Bahrain.

THE GULF STATES—BAHRAIN—(STATISTICS)

EXTERNAL TRADE
(B D '000)

	1966	1967	1968
Imports	42 034	45 453	52 021
Exports and Re exports (excl oil)	12 593	14 690	18 494

COMMODITIES

IMPORTS	1966	1967	1968
Household goods	6 764	7 928	10 508
Provisions n e s	3 751	4 117	4 671
Garments	2 427	3 005	4 113
Machinery and oilwell supplies	3 078	3 463	3 805
Cotton piece goods	1 526	1 844	2 526
Silk and silk piece goods	1 739	1 707	2 486
Hardware and cutlery	2 406	2 286	2 389
Rice	2 135	2 130	2 192
Motor cars lorries and tractors	1 469	1 511	1 933
Fresh fruits and vegetables	1 099	1 254	1 262
Building materials n e s	921	1 123	1 028
Haberdashery and hosiery	670	810	949
Cigarettes	770	1 029	943
Wool and woollen p ece goods	602	618	896
Spices	901	1 029	813
Motor accessories	651	629	702
Timber	773	640	642
Cement	898	661	628

RE EXPORTS	1966	1967	1968
Household goods	1 114	1 732	2 207
Cotton piece goods	989	1 276	2 031
Garments	928	1 378	2 019
Silk and silk piece goods	1 065	1 114	2 000
Provisions	775	730	1 586
Machinery and oilwell supplies	653	961	980
Spices	763	1 003	695
Rice	1 106	967	679
Haberdashery and hosiery	339	436	559

COUNTRIES

IMPORTS	1966	1967	1968	1969*
United Kingdom	9 298	10 237	12 735	9 914
India	2 355	2 521	2 516	1 927
United States	5 829	5 832	6 289	4 024
Japan	4 534	6 049	8 248	5 943
German Federal Republic	1 808	1 681	2 239	1 771
Netherlands	1 580	1 426	1 499	1 178
Pakistan	1 862	1 960	2 455	1 686
Italy	1 307	1 105	1 383	737
China People s Republic	1 391	1 846	2 435	2 444
Hong Kong	1 197	1 603	1 785	1 654

* Jan Sept

THE GULF STATES—BAHRAIN—(STATISTICS, THE CONSTITUTION)

COUNTRIES—continued

RE-EXPORTS	1966	1967	1968
Saudi Arabia	6,009	7,632	10,625
Qatar	1,853	1,842	1,554
Iran	1,451	1,251	1,052
Dubai	496	758	905
Abu Dhabi	818	1,076	1,112
Kuwait	756	753	727

TRANSPORT ROADS

TYPE OF LICENCE	1966	1967	1968
Private Cars	6,027	6,480	7,078
Taxi Cabs	810	857	901
Vans and Lorries	2,210	2,288	2,372
Private Buses	257	275	286
Public Buses	137	129	130
Motor Cycles	584	660	923
TOTAL (excl. motor cycles)	9,441	10,029	10,767

EDUCATION

(Number of pupils—1968-69)

	BOYS	GIRLS	TOTAL
Primary	20,165	14,636	34,801
Intermediate	2,941	2,322	5,263
Secondary	3,334	1,904	5,238
Higher, Technical and Religious Edu- cation	840	96	936
TOTAL	27,280	18,958	46,238

In 1968-69 there were 71 primary, 21 intermediate and 6 secondary schools, with 4 institutions offering further education courses.

Source: Statistical Bureau, Finance Department, Bahrain Government.

THE CONSTITUTION

Important constitutional reforms were announced in December 1969 and came into effect early in 1970. A new Council of State was created by royal decree; it consists of twelve members and a President, and is empowered to direct the internal and external affairs of the state. Members of the Council all have particular responsibilities but are described as Heads of Departments rather than Ministers. The reform reduced the royal family's representation on the administration and also that of the British officials in Bahrain, whose status became subordinate to that of the Heads of Departments.

There are four urban municipalities—Manama, Muharraaq, Rifaa and Hedd—and two rural municipalities—Sitra and Jidhafs—which are administered by councils,

half of whose members are elected by male and female ratepayers and half of whom are nominated by the Government. The Municipal Councils in turn nominate five members to the eight-man Health and Education Councils, the remaining three members being selected by the Government. These bodies, together with other committees responsible for such matters as Electricity, Rural Affairs. Water Conservation and Agriculture are given a fairly free hand in the administration of the respective Departments.

Bahrain is linked by treaties with Great Britain, which has undertaken to protect it against foreign aggression and to conduct its external affairs. Treaties have been signed between Bahrain and Britain in 1820 (through the East India Company), 1861 and 1892.

THE GOVERNMENT

Ruler Sheikh Isa bin Sulman Al-Khalifa K.C.M.G.
 Crown Prince Sheikh Hamed bin Isa Al Khalifa

COUNCIL OF STATE

(July 1971)

President Sheikh Khalifa bin Sulman Al Khalifa
 (Pres. of Finance and Pres. of Electricity Board)

Members.

Head of Defence Department H.E. Sheikh Hamed bin Isa Al Khalifa

Head of Foreign Affairs Department Sheikh Muhammad bin Mubarak Al Khalifa

Head of Finance Department Sayed Mahmood Alawi

Head of Education Department Ahmed al Umran

Head of Health Department Dr. Ali Fakheroo

Head of Information Department Muhammad Jabir al Ansari

Head of Justice Department Sheikh Khalid bin Muhammad al Khalifa

Head of Development and Technical Services Department Yusuf Shukrawi

Head of Labour and Social Affairs Department Jawwad al Arrayed

Head of Municipal and Rural Affairs Department Sheikh Abdullah bin Khalid al Khalifa

Legal Adviser Dr. Hussein al Baharna

JUDICIAL SYSTEM

Chief Judge of the Bahrain Courts Sheikh Dajj bin Hamad al Khalifa O.B.E.

Registrar, Bahrain Courts Salim al Urayidh

Judicial Adviser to Bahrain Courts Wasfi Nimr

Judge of the British Courts W. J. Palmer

The Bahrain local courts exercise jurisdiction over Bahrain nationals, natives of other Persian Gulf Sheikhdoms and nationals of Saudi Arabia, Muscat and Oman, the Yemen, Iran, Iraq, the United Arab Republic, the Lebanon and a number of other Muslim countries.

The Criminal Law is contained in various Codes, Ordinances and Regulations which have been brought into force for the British Courts and with certain exceptions for the Bahrain local courts.

The British jurisdiction has been regulated by a number of British Orders in Council. Under these orders British jurisdiction extends to all those persons not included in the list above.

Judges of the British Court are qualified lawyers appointed by the Secretary of State. There is a Registrar who is also a qualified lawyer who may try criminal cases within certain limits. Appeals lie from the Registrar to the Judge. Appeals from a Judge of the Court lie to the Chief Court for the Persian Gulf.

A Joint Court consisting of a Judge or Registrar of the British Court and a nominee of the Ruler deals with cases involving local subjects and foreigners and appeal lies to a Joint Court of Appeal. Few cases are now heard by this court.

Britain is engaged in handing over complete control of the Bahrain courts to the Bahrain authorities during the 1970-71 period.

RELIGION

The great majority of the people are Muslims of the Sunni and Shia sects, the Ruling Family being Sunnis.

Religious affiliation (1965 Census)

Muslims	173,594
Christians	5,832
Jews	149
Others	2,628
TOTAL	182,203

PRESS AND RADIO

al Adhwa Arab Printing and Publishing Establishment
 P.O.B. 224 Tijjar Rd. Manama f 1965 Arabic
 illustrated weekly Editor MAHMOUD AL MURSI circ 3,000

Arab Markets P.O.B. 604 Bahrain monthly English and Arabic Editor ABDU F. BUSHARA

Awali Evening News Awali English daily newsheet published by The Bahrain Petroleum Co. Ltd. circ 1,000

Awali Magazine* Awali English monthly illustrated published by the Bahrain Petroleum Co. Ltd. circ 800

Bahrain Trade Directory P.O.B. 524 Manama annual Publisher and Man. Dir. A. E. ASHIR

al Hiya al Tijariya (Commerce Review) P.O.B. 666 Manama bilingual published by Bahrain Chamber of Commerce and Industry

Huna al Bahrain (Bahrain Calling) P.O.B. 253 Manama Rad. o monthly Arabic published by the Information Dept. Manama Editor (vacant) circ 4,000

al Jarida al Rasmiya (Official Gazette) Information Department Government of Bahrain Manama f 1957 Arabic weekly

Kanoo News Yusuf bin Ahmed Kanoo Bahrain monthly Editor L. MORELAND

al Murshid Gulf Trade Services P.O.B. 553 Bahrain monthly guide including 'What's on in Bahrain' English and Arabic Editor M. SOLIMAN

al Najma al Asbuia (Weekly Star) Awali Arabic weekly published by The Bahrain Petroleum Co. Ltd. circ 8,000

Sada al Asboa P.O.B. 549 Bahrain f 1969 Arabic weekly Owner and Editor in Chief ALI SAYYAR

Welcome to Bahrain Augustan Press P.O.B. 551 Bahrain annual Author J. H. D. BELGRAVE

Bahrain Broadcasting Station P.O.B. 253 Manama f 1955 state owned and operated enterprise two 2 kW transmitters programmes are in Arabic only and include news, plays and talks. Head of Information Sheikh MUHAMMAD BIN MUBARAK AL-KHALIFA Dir. of Broadcasting IBAHIM KANAO

English language programmes broadcast by the U.S. Air Force in Dhahran and by ARAMCO can be received in Bahrain as can the television service provided by the latter.

In 1968 there were approximately 53,000 receiving sets.

FINANCE

BANKING

(cap. = capital; dep. = deposits; m. = millions; B.D. = Bahrain Dinars)

Bank of Bahrain: P.O.B. 106, Manama; f. 1957; cap. p.u. (1969) B.D. 750,000; dep. B.D. 5.53m.; Chair. AL-HAJ KHALIL EBRAHIM KANOO; Man. I. McLAREN.

FOREIGN BANKS

Arab Bank Ltd.: Amman, Jordan; P.O.B. 395, Manama; Man. ADNAN N. BSEISU.

British Bank of the Middle East: London; P.O.B. 57, Manama; Man. B. W. J. S. BRISBY.

Chase Manhattan Bank: New York; Manama.

Eastern Bank Ltd.: London; P.O.B. 29, Manama; Man. in Bahrain E. G. SCOTT.

First National City Bank: New York; P.O.B. 548, Manama; Man. C. H. HALLOCK.

Habib Bank (Overseas) Ltd.: Karachi; Government Road, Manama.

Rafidain Bank: Baghdad; Tijjar Road, Manama.

United Bank: Karachi; Government Road, Manama.

INSURANCE

About fourteen foreign insurance companies are represented.

TRADE AND INDUSTRY

Bahrain Chamber of Commerce and Industry: P.O.B. 248, Manama; f. 1939; 1,200 mems.; Pres. ALI ABDUL RAHMAN AL WAZZAN; Dir. YUSUF MUHAMMAD SALEH.

Bahrain Department of Development and Engineering Services: P.O.B. 235, Manama; Dir. YOUSSEF SHIRAWI.

Department of Information: P.O.B. 8554, Bahrain Government, Manama.

Michael Rice Group—Middle East: P.O.B. 551, Manama; consultants to the Bahrain Government and to numerous local and foreign businesses trading in Bahrain, the Gulf area, Saudi Arabia and Kuwait.

There are no Trade Unions in Bahrain.

OIL

The Bahrain Petroleum Company (BAPCO) Ltd.: Awali; the sole oil producer in Bahrain; owned jointly by Texaco and Standard Oil of California; also operates the Bahrain refinery and holds contract to supply natural gas to the ALBA aluminium smelter; Pres. L. D. JOSEPHSON.

TRANSPORT

ROADS

Director of Works: T. D. LEWIS.

Most inhabited areas of Bahrain are linked by bitumen-surfaced roads. Public transport consists of taxis and privately owned bus services. A modern network of dual highways is in course of development; the length of the paved road system rose from 4,300 metres in 1964 to 30,000 metres in 1968. In 1967 the rule of the road was changed from left to right. At the end of 1969 there were 14,700 vehicles in use, being an increase of 14 per cent during the year. There were 909 taxis and 139 buses in use. A Petrol Tax of 21 per cent was introduced.

SHIPPING

Director-General of Customs and Ports: Shaik DAIJ BIN KHALIFA AL-KHALIFA.

Harbour Master: Captain D. M. WALTER.

Cargo Manager: HASSAN SHAMS.

Numerous shipping services link Bahrain and the Gulf with Britain and with Europe (Strick Line, V.N.S. "Kerk" Line, Hansa Line, Nationale Compagnie Havraise Peninsulaire and Compagnie Maritime Belge, Kuwait Shipping Company, Iraqi Maritime Transport Corporation, Lauro Line, Yugo-Linea, Polish Ocean Lines); with the East and West Coasts of U.S.A. (Concordia Line, Nedlloyd Line, Hoegh Line); with South and East Africa (KPM Line); with Pakistan, India, Japan and the Far East and Australia (British & India Steam Navigation Company, Maersk Line, Everett Johnson Line, "K" Line of Japan, etc.). Though predominantly cargo operators, most of the foregoing lines have some passenger accommodation available; the British India Line operates a mail service between Bombay, Karachi, Bahrain and other Gulf Ports, carrying passengers in Saloon and Deck classes.

The deep water harbour of *Mina Sulman* was opened in April 1962; it has six berths capable of taking vessels of draughts up to 30 ft. In the vicinity is a slipway, on which may be slipped vessels of up to 1,000 tons and 220 ft. in length. A trawler basin is the centre of a flourishing shrimping industry, the packaged produce being exported primarily to Europe and North America.

Since 1958 Bahrain has been a free transit area.

CIVIL AVIATION

Muharraaq Airport has a first-class runway, capable of taking the largest aircraft in use. A modern airport terminus was opened in December 1961.

Gulf Aviation Co. Ltd.: P.O.B. 138, Bahrain Island; f. 1950; jointly owned by the governments of Bahrain, Qatar, Abu Dhabi, and by B.O.A.C.; services from Bahrain to Kuwait, Abu Dhabi, Al Ain, Bandar Abbas, Dhahran, Doha, Dubai, Muscat, Sharjah and Shiraz; the fleet consists of one BAC 1-11, two F27, four DC-3, two Beechcraft B80 and one chartered VC10 (Gulf/London Services).

Bahrain is served by the following foreign airlines: Air India, B.O.A.C., Iran Air, Iraqi Airways, Kuwait Airways, M.E.A., P.I.A. (Pakistan), Qantas, Saudi Arabian Airways, T.M.A.

EDUCATION

Education is free in Bahrain, and the primary schools (of which there are 70—40 boys' and 30 girls' schools, with nearly 36,000 pupils in 1970) take children at the age of six for a six-year course. There are 35 intermediate and secondary schools—21 boys' and 14 girls' schools—and pupils study two years at the Intermediate and three years at the Secondary stage. In 1970 there were 6,800 pupils at Intermediate level and 5,750 at Secondary level.

Approximately 1,000 students were studying in post-Secondary education at all levels and there are three higher educational establishments in the island, a Men's Teacher Training College (120 students) and a Women's Teacher Training College (100 students) and the Gulf Technical College with 60 students which opened in September 1969. The sexes are segregated in all schools.

British Council: P.O.B. 452, Manama, Bahrain; cultural and educational activities; library of 10,000 books and 85 periodicals; branch in Dubai; Rep. J. G. HANSON.

Gulf Technical College: Isa Town, Bahrain; f. 1969; 200 full-time students.

QATAR

GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY

The Sheikdom of Qatar is a peninsula roughly 100 miles in length with a breadth varying between 35 and 50 miles on the west coast of the Persian Gulf. The total area is 4,000 square miles. There are some 80,000 inhabitants two-thirds of whom are concentrated in the town of Doha on the east coast. Two other ports, Zakrit on the west coast and Umm Said on the east, owe their existence to the discovery of oil. Zakrit is a convenient if shallow harbour for the import of goods from Bahrain and Umm Said affords anchorage to the deep-sea tankers and freighters.

Qatar is stony, sandy and barren, limited supplies of underground water are unsuitable for drinking or agriculture because of high mineral content. Over half the water supply is now provided by sea water distillation processes. The inhabitants have traditionally lived from pearl-diving, fishing and nomadic herding.

Owing to the aridity of the peninsula the early history of Qatar is of little interest. In 1916 Great Britain in order to exclude other powers from the area, made an agreement with the Sheikh of Qatar who undertook not to cede mortgage or otherwise dispose of parts of his territories to anyone except the British Government nor to enter into any relationship with a foreign government other than the

British without British consent. Similar agreements had been concluded with Bahrain in 1880 and 1892 with the Trucial States in 1892 and with Kuwait in 1899. In return Britain undertook to protect Qatar from all aggression by sea and to lend her good offices in case of an overland attack.

The discovery of oil in the 1930s promised greater prosperity for Qatar but because of the Second World War production did not begin on a commercial scale until 1949 (see below). An ambitious development programme is now being put into operation with the revenues from the production and export of oil. The Sheikdom has taken a leading part in moves towards the formation of a Gulf Federation; it also enjoys close relations with Saudi Arabia. In January 1961 Qatar joined the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries and in May 1970 it also became a member of OPEC (the Organization of Arab Petroleum Exporting Countries).

In April 1970 a new provisional constitution was announced which it was said would assist Qatar's entry into the Federation of Arab Emirates. The constitution came into effect from July but the first cabinet was formed in May. The Ruler became Prime Minister with responsibility for oil and six of the other nine members were also members of the Royal Family.

ECONOMICS

Formerly Qatar was one of the centres of the pearl industry but today her principal source of wealth is oil. Some fishing is carried on to supply local demands. Unlike many of the other Sheikdoms, Qatar has no entrepôt trade.

Interest in the petroleum possibilities of Qatar was first stimulated by the entry of Standard of California into Bahrain in 1930. Shortly after this date the Anglo-Iranian Company received permission from the ruler to make a surface survey of his territories and in 1935 they were granted a concession. This gave them exclusive petroleum rights in the Sheikdom and its territorial waters for 75 years. Payments were to be 400,000 rupees upon signature, an annual rental of 150,000 rupees for the first 5 years and 300,000 rupees thereafter, and a royalty of 3 rupees per long ton. The concession was later transferred to Petroleum Concessions Ltd. which formed an operating company, Petroleum Development (Qatar) Ltd.

Petroleum Development started exploration in 1937 and oil was discovered in 1939. Field activities were interrupted during the war but resumed in 1947. By 1949 the Company had completed a drilling programme, the laying of a pipeline system from the field of Dukhan on the west coast to Umm Said and the construction of terminal facilities. At the end of that year the first shipment was made from the Umm Said offshore berths. Since 1963 production has stagnated at a little over nine million tons a year.

In 1951 the royalty rate was raised to 10 rupees and in 1952 a profit sharing scheme was adopted. A year later the name of the Company was changed to Qatar Petroleum Company Ltd.

An offshore grant was awarded to the 'Shell Overseas

Exploration Company in 1952. This covers an area of approximately 10,000 square miles and it expires in 2027. A down payment of over £260,000 was made and exploration started in 1953. The first and second exploratory wells failed to find oil and were abandoned in 1955 and 1956 respectively. The operating company, the Shell Company of Qatar Ltd., lost their original drilling platform in a storm in 1956. This was replaced and drilling operations recommenced in December 1959. Test production from the offshore field at Idd el Shavgi through temporary facilities began in January 1964. Construction of permanent facilities on Halul Island, some 60 miles off the coast of Qatar, were completed early in 1966. This also enabled production to be commenced from Shell's second field in Maydan Mazam. Shell Qatar began commercial production of oil in 1966 at an annual rate of more than 5,000,000 long tons and this is increasing steadily. In 1963 the Continental Oil Company of Qatar was granted a concession over land and offshore areas relinquished by the Qatar Petroleum Company and the Shell Company of Qatar, and over a strip of territory in the south of the peninsula not previously included in any concession. In March 1969 a Japanese consortium was granted an exploration concession in the south eastern offshore area and it made its first strike in May 1971.

With Britain's withdrawal of military forces from the Persian Gulf by the end of 1971 and the probable failure to realize a nine-state Trucial Federation, Qatar is likely to become more independent economically. One of its first moves has been to establish its own national oil company which is expected to start exploring offshore areas not already held by foreign companies. Moreover, it has commissioned an economic development survey by the British Foreign Office.

THE GULF STATES—QATAR—(ECONOMICS, STATISTICS)

The revenue derived from the production and export of oil comprises the principal source of income; by 1970 this revenue amounted to over £40 million per annum. A high percentage of this is being used by the Government to finance an ambitious development programme. So far development has been concentrated in Doha, the capital. Part of the substantial income of the country is being expended on building and equipping schools and hospitals. A 130-bed hospital, which was built in Doha at a total cost of £3.5 m., claims to be one of the most modern hospitals in the world. Early in 1971 the Qatar Petroleum Company announced a £25 million project to process and export natural gas; the liquid gas will pass by pipeline to the terminal at Umm Said. Any surplus is to be supplied, free of charge, to the Qatari Government. Natural gas, piped from Dukhan to Doha, is also used to distil sea-water and to run a 30-MW power station. Doha has a piped water supply which will eventually carry over two million gallons a day. Doha airport is of international standard. Dredging of a four-mile channel, twenty-seven feet deep, into Doha Bay was completed in 1966.

In order to avoid complete dependence on oil the Government will invest oil revenues abroad in stocks and bonds, and will diversify the economy, encouraging such projects as gas-based petrochemical industries, fish-processing, cement, and intensified agriculture. The

Department of Agriculture has already succeeded in making the country self-sufficient in vegetables, production of which was negligible as recently as 1960; fruit production and the planting of forest trees is making rapid progress. Some vegetables, mainly tomatoes, marrows and cucumbers, are now exported to other Gulf states.

Two sections of the diversification programme have recently come to fruition; in 1966 the Qatar National Fishing Company was formed as a partnership between the government (with a 60 per cent interest) and the British Ross Group, with the object of fishing for shrimp in the rich fishing grounds in the Gulf. A freezing plant has been constructed near the new Doha harbour. Seventy-five per cent of the government interest was later sold to private Qatari interests. A few months earlier the Qatar National Cement Manufacturing Company had been founded, after experts had confirmed that ample supplies of suitable raw materials existed within the country, and that sufficient market potential existed within the Gulf area. The plant, powered by natural gas, is at Umm Bab and began production at the rate of 100,000 tons a year early in 1969. In January 1969 a project to build a major ammonia and urea fertilizer plant was announced. Based on the conversion of waste gas, it is scheduled to be completed at Umm Said in 1972 with an output of 430,000 tons annually.

STATISTICS

AREA AND POPULATION

AREA sq. miles	POPULATION (1970 Estimates)	
	TOTAL	DOHA (capital)
4,000	112,000	80,000

OIL

QATAR PETROLEUM COMPANY CRUDE OIL PRODUCTION

YEAR	LONG TONS	YEAR	LONG TONS
1961	8,381,000	1966	9,059,000
1962	8,800,000	1967	9,070,000
1963	9,096,000	1968	9,018,000
1964	9,978,000	1969	9,366,000
1965	9,158,000	1970	8,882,000

1971 Jan.-May production: 4,111,000 long tons.

SHELL QATAR CRUDE OIL PRODUCTION

YEAR	LONG TONS
1967	6,263,437
1968	7,005,379
1969	7,390,292

THE GULF STATES—QATAR—(STATISTICS)

FINANCE AND TRADE

1 Q/D ryal=100 Dirhams.

11.43 Q/D ryals=£1 sterling; 4 54 Q/D ryals=U.S. \$1 00.

100 Q/D ryals=£8 75 sterling=U.S. \$21.

10 Q/D ryals=1 Bahraini Dinar.

Currenty: In 1965 it was agreed to establish a new currency throughout the Persian Gulf Principalities, the Gulf ryal, to replace the External rupee of which 13 3 equalled £1 sterling. Following the devaluation of the Indian rupee in June 1966 the Saudi ryal was adopted as the official currency until September when the Qatar/Dubai ryal was introduced. The ryal was not devalued with the pound sterling in 1967

OIL REVENUES

(million Q/D ryals)

	1965	1966	1967	1968
Payments by Qatar Petroleum Co .	265 7	267 4	282 2	323 4
Payments by Shell Qatar . . .	22 8	85 7	142 8	197.7

EXTERNAL TRADE

('000 Q/D ryals)

	1965	1966	1967
Imports	247,271	311,391	476,895*
Exports and Re-Exports (excl oil)	n a	36 092	59 482

* Provisional 1970 figure 305 000

IMPORTS*

('000 Qatar/Dubai ryals)

COMMODITIES	1965	1966	1967
Household goods	54,352	108,762	138,429
Garments	45,738	50,788	91,973
Machinery	29,923	30,702	77,093
Foodstuffs	67,667	61,043	68,023
Building materials	18,365	19,136	41,903
Electrical radio and allied goods	12,788	10,868	18,999
Outfield materials	6,952	13,705	15,783

COUNTRIES	1965	1966	1967	1969
Switzerland	26,604	69 547	90 084	n a
Japan	33 017	40,629	78,700	19 365
United Kingdom	42,130	37,779	69 504	56 894†
U S A	14,535	16,432	38,491	31,606†
India	23 056	20,194	21,277	11,293
Pakistan	14 297	11,452	17,710	n a
China	6,072	11,862	16 092	n a
Germany, Federal Republic	9 458	8 936	15,911	17,563
Malaysia/Singapore	6,555	10,075	14,177	n a
Holland	9 904	11,256	12,167	n a
Hong Kong	5 938	6,665	11,437	n a

* The official trade figures for Qatar are not regarded as being fully comprehensive and should only be used as a guide

† Provisional 1970 figures United Kingdom 74,000, United States 30 000.

THE CONSTITUTION

Qatar is an independent Sheikdom linked by treaty with the United Kingdom, which has undertaken to protect it against foreign aggression and to conduct its external affairs. A new provisional constitution came into effect in July 1970. Executive power is put in the hands of a ten-man Cabinet, which will appoint three members to a twenty-three member Consultative Assembly; the other twenty members are to be elected. All fundamental democratic rights are guaranteed.

THE GOVERNMENT

Ruler: Sheikh AHMED BIN ALI AL THANI.

(July 1971)

Prime Minister, responsible for Finance and Petroleum Affairs: Sheikh KHALIFA BIN HAMAD AL THANI, Heir to Ruler of Qatar.

Minister of Education: Sheikh JASIM BIN HAMAD AL THANI.

Minister of Public Health: Sheikh ABDELAZIZ BIN HAMAD AL THANI.

Minister of the Economy and Commerce: Sheikh NASSER BIN KHALID AL THANI.

Minister of Electricity and Water: Sheikh JASIM BIN MUHAMMAD AL THANI.

Minister of Justice: Sheikh ABDEL RAHMAN BIN SAUD AL THANI.

Minister of Industry and Agriculture: Sheikh FAISAL BIN THANI AL THANI.

Minister of Public Works: KHALID BIN ABDULLAH AL ATIYYAH.

Minister of Labour and Social Affairs: ALI BIN AHMAD AL ANSARI.

Minister of Transport and Communications: ABDULLAH BIN NASSER AL SUWAIDI.

JUDICIAL SYSTEM

Qatar courts exercise jurisdiction over Qatar subjects and nationals of all Arab States, and over Iranians, Indonesians and Somalis. The Sharia Court has jurisdiction in personal status matters.

British jurisdiction extends to all those not included in the above categories. Appeals from H.B.M. Court lie to the Chief Court for the Persian Gulf.

In matters regulated by the Labour Law, the Qatar Labour Court has jurisdiction over all persons, irrespective of nationality.

RELIGION

The indigenous population are Muslims of the Sunni sect, most being of the strict Wahabi persuasion.

PRESS

Al-Doha Magazine: Information Department, P.O.B. 2324, Doha; f. 1969; monthly; Arabic.

Gulf News: Arabian Newspaper Printing and Publishing House, Doha; f. 1969; weekly; English; Editor ABDULLAH HUSAIN NAAMA.

al Orouba: Arabian Newspaper Printing and Publishing House, Doha; f. 1969; weekly; Arabic.

RADIO AND TELEVISION

Radio Qatar: P.O.B. 1414, Doha; f. 1968; government service, broadcasting in Arabic only.

Qatar Television: P.O.B. 1944, Doha; f. 1970; a new 5-kW. transmitter came into operation in February 1971 which extends reception to the whole Gulf area.

FINANCE

BANKING

Qatar and Dubai Currency Board: P.O.B. 1234, Doha; f. 1966; administers the currency for Qatar and Dubai; each state appoints two directors, a fifth being appointed by the Bank of England; currency in circulation (Dec. 1970) Q/D rials 152.rm.; Chair. The Ruler; Man. L. P. TEMPEST.

Qatar National Bank, S.A.Q.: Doha, P.O.B. 1000; f. 1964; cap. Q/D rials 14m., dep. (Dec. 1970) Q/D rials 105m.; Man. D. A. SMITH.

Arab Bank Ltd.: Amman, Jordan; Doha, P.O.B. 172; Man. SHARIF AL JA'ABARY.

Bank Sadevat Iran: Doha.

British Bank of the Middle East, The: London; Doha, P.O.B. 57; Man. A. MILLER.

Eastern Bank Ltd.: London; Doha, P.O.B. 29; Man. J. P. DEASY.

First National City Bank: Doha.

Intra Bank Ltd.: Beirut; Doha; re-opened March 1968.

National and Grindlays Bank Ltd.: London; Doha, P.O.B. 90; Man. A. ANDERSON.

United Bank of Pakistan: Doha.

INSURANCE

Qatar Insurance Co.: P.O.B. 666, Doha; f. 1964; branch in Dubai; Man. FATHI I. GABR.

Four foreign companies are also represented.

COMMERCE

Qatar Chamber of Commerce: P.O.B. 402, Doha; f. 1963; 13 mems.; Pres. AHMED MUHAMMAD AL SOWAIDI; Sec. KAMAL AL SALEH.

OIL

National Oil Development Co.: Doha; handles local distributions and marketing of petroleum products; Dir. ALI JAIDAH.

Qatar Oil Co. Ltd (Japan): Doha; formed by a consortium of Japanese companies; granted an 8,500 square mile offshore concession in March 1969; drilling began in January 1971.

Qatar Petroleum Co.: Doha; the original and still the largest oil producer in Qatar; subsidiary of the Iraq Petroleum Company.

Shell Company of Qatar: Doha; holds an offshore concession. A third field at Bul Hanine will come on stream in 1972.

South-East Asia Oil and Gas Co.: Doha; an independent American company; granted an offshore concession in March 1970; Pres. Dr. ROBERT T. BRINSMADE.

TRANSPORT

ROADS

There are some 450 miles of surfaced road linking Doha and the oil centres of Dukhan and Umm Said with the northern end of the peninsula and with Salwa on the Saudi Arabian border and many more of rough tracks across the desert. In 1970 the Salwa road is due to link up with a new road built by Saudi Arabia which will give Qatar access to the Arabian hinterland. About 11 000 cars and lorries form the chief means of transport.

PIPELINES

Oil is transported by pipeline from the oilfield at Dukhan to the loading terminal at Umm Said.

Natural gas is brought by pipeline from Dukhan to Doha where it is used as fuel for a power station and water distillation plant.

SHIPPING

Qatar National Navigation and Transport Co. Doha shipping agents lighterage contractors ship chandling clearing and forwarding agents at the port of Doha.

A 27 ft deep dredged channel leads to a natural basin where ships may anchor. A 30-ft. deep channel leads from the anchorage to the New Deep Water Jetty which has 30 ft. alongside at all states of tide and can accommodate four vessels alongside at one time.

Oil terminals exist at Umm Said and Halul Island for the export of crude oil.

CIVIL AVIATION

Doha airport has one 8 000 ft. runway (which is to be extended to 15 000 ft.) and is equipped to a fair international standard.

Gulf Aviation Co. Ltd. jointly owned by Bahrain, Qatar, Abu Dhabi and B.O.A.C. (see Bahrain—Civil Aviation)

Doha is served by the following airlines: Alia (Jordan), B.O.A.C., Gulf Aviation, Iranian Airways, Iraqi Airways, Kuwait Airways, M.E.A., Saudi Arabian Airlines, Syrian Arab Airlines, T.M.A., U.A.A.

EDUCATION

All education within Qatar is free and numerous scholarships are awarded for study overseas. The state education system was inaugurated in 1956 when 1 400 boys attended 17 primary schools. By 1969-70 some 13 500 children (7 500 boys and 6 000 girls) attended 78 primary schools staffed by about 700 teachers. The six year primary stage is followed by a three year preparatory stage (1 450 boys and 750 girls in three schools in 1969-70) and a further three-year secondary stage. Secondary education facilities at present include a teacher training institute, a technical school, a commercial school and an institute of religious studies. Altogether 1 070 boys and 300 girls received secondary instruction in 1970. Over 200 Qatari are at present enrolled in higher education institutions abroad, almost all in other Arab countries, Britain or the U.S.A.

TRUCIAL STATES

ABU DHABI DUBAI SHARJAH RAS AL KHAIMAH UMM AL QUWAIN AJMAN
FUJAIRAH

GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY

The coastline of the seven Trucial States extends for nearly 400 miles from the frontier of the Sultanate of Muscat and Oman to Khor al-Odaid on the Qatar Peninsula. The area is one of extremely shallow seas, with off-shore islands and coral reefs, and often an intricate pattern of sandbanks and small gulfs as a coastline. In contrast to the Mediterranean, there is a large tide. The waters of the Gulf contain relatively abundant quantities of fish, large and small, hence fishing plays some part in local life. The climate is arid, with very high summer temperatures; and except for a few weeks in winter, air humidity is also very high. The total area of the States has been estimated at approximately 32,000 square miles and it has a rapidly growing population estimated at 180,000, now concentrated in the oil boom areas of Abu Dhabi and Dubai. Many inhabitants are nomadic or settled Arabs. In the coastal towns live also many Persians, Indians, Pakistanis, Baluchis and Negros, the latter being descended from slaves carried from Africa during the course of several centuries of slave trading. The most important port is Dubai, the seat of a British Political Agent, and this has a population of about 75,000. Its significance is due to its position on one of the rare deep creeks of the area, and it now has a very large transit trade. There is also a British Political Agent at Abu Dhabi.

In the early 16th century the Portuguese commercial monopoly of the Gulf area began to be challenged by other European traders eager for a share in the profits from the Eastern trade, first by the Dutch, later by the British. By the end of the century the Portuguese ascendancy in the East had declined and in 1650 the Portuguese evacuated Oman losing their entire hold on the Arabian shore. Then followed a period of commercial and political rivalry between the Dutch and the British during which the initial Dutch predominance weakened and in 1766 came practically to an end, while the British were consolidating their supremacy in India.

Both European and Arab pirates were very active in the Persian Gulf during the 17th, 18th and early 19th centuries. Lawlessness reached its height at the beginning of the 19th century when the seafaring Arab tribes were welded together and incited to pillage by Wahhabi emissaries who had established their supremacy over the whole Arabian coast of the Gulf. Attacks on British-flag vessels led to British expeditions against the pirates in 1806 and 1809 and, finally, in 1818 against the pirate headquarters at Ras al Khaimah and other harbours along the 150 miles of "Pirate Coast". In 1820 a General Treaty of Peace for suppressing piracy and slave traffic was concluded between Great Britain and the Arab Tribes of the Persian Gulf. Among the signatories were the principal Sheikhs

of the Pirate Coast and the Sheikhs of Bahrain. A strong British squadron was stationed for some time at Ras al Khaimah to enforce the treaty.

Many piratical acts continued to be committed and accordingly, in 1835, the Sheikhs were induced to bind themselves by a "Maritime Truce" not to engage, in any circumstances, in hostilities by sea for a period of six months (i.e. during the pearl-diving season). The advantages of this were so marked that they were easily persuaded to renew the truce and continually did so for increasing periods until, in May 1853 a Treaty of Maritime Peace in Perpetuity was concluded between all the Sheikhs of the "Trucial Coast"—as it was henceforth called—establishing a "perpetual maritime truce". It was to be watched over and enforced by the British Government, to whom the signatories were to refer any breach. The British, however, did not interfere in wars between the Sheikhs on land.

The British concern in stopping the slave trade had also led to contacts with the Trucial Coast, where the Sheikhs had been engaged in carrying slaves from Africa to India and Arabia. By agreements signed with the British in 1838-39 and 1847 the Sheikhs undertook to prohibit the carriage of slaves on board vessels belonging to them or their subjects, and consented to the detention and search of such vessels and to their confiscation in case of guilt.

Towards the end of the 19th century France, Germany and Russia showed increasing interest in the Persian Gulf area and in 1892 Britain entered into separate but identical "exclusive" treaties with the Trucial rulers concluded on different dates, whereby the Sheikhs undertook not to cede, mortgage nor otherwise dispose of parts of their territories to anyone except the British Government, nor to enter into any relationship with a foreign government other than the British without British consent. Britain had already undertaken to protect the states from outside attack in the Perpetual Maritime Treaty of 1853.

In 1820 when the General Treaty was signed, there were only five Trucial States. In 1866, on the death of the Chief Sheikh of Sharjah, his domains were divided amongst his four sons, the separate branches of the family being established at Sharjah, Ras al Khaimah, Dibah and Kalba.

In 1952, Kalba was incorporated into Sharjah when its ruler undertook to accept all the treaties and agreements in force between the United Kingdom and the other Trucial States. These undertakings now include recognition of the right of the U.K. Government to fix State boundaries, to settle disputes between the Trucial Sheikhdoms and to render assistance to the Trucial Oman Scouts, a British-officered Arab force set up in 1952. The Ruler of Fujairah also accepted these undertakings when his State was recognised as independent in 1952.

THE GULF STATES—TRUCIAL STATES—(GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY, ECONOMICS)

In 1952 on British advice a Trucial Council was established at which all seven rulers meet at least twice a year under the chairmanship of the Political Agent in Dubai. It was formed with the object of inducing the rulers to adopt a common policy in administrative matters and in the hope that it will lead to a federation of the Trucial States. (For the moves made towards a federation since 1968 see the introduction to the Persian Gulf States chapter.)

With the advent of commercial production of oil in mid 1962 Abu Dhabi has a great opportunity for development. The deposition of the Ruler Sheikh Shakhbut in 1966 removed a major obstacle to implementing this opportunity and the history of this sheikhdom since then is a classic example of a society being transformed almost overnight by the acquisition of immense wealth. Dubai has also benefited greatly from the oil boom.

A British-sponsored Development Fund for the Trucial States was set up in 1965 to which Abu Dhabi is now the main contributor.

In June 1965 Shaikh Saqr of Sharjah was deposed. In 1966 an appeal to the UN Secretary General supported by Iraq and the United Arab Republic the accession of his cousin Shaikh Khalid passed off without incident. There was an unsuccessful attempt on the Shaikh's life in July 1970.

Since June 1966 Britain has gradually built a substantial

military base at Sharjah with the object of replacing Aden as the major base in the Middle East. By July 1968 the force of 3 000 men there had also displaced Bahrain to become the principal base in the Gulf. Early in 1968 the British Government announced that all its forces would be withdrawn from the area by the end of 1971 and this policy was eventually reaffirmed after the Conservative Party's return to power in Britain in June 1970. The Trucial Oman Scouts the effective police and security force in the Trucial States are also based in Sharjah. A force of some 1 600 men it has British officers and is paid for by Britain. It has been proposed as the nucleus of a federal security force after British withdrawal in 1971 but some states notably Abu Dhabi are already creating their own defence forces. Friction may be aroused by disputes over the ill defined state borders those between Qatar Abu Dhabi and Dubai were settled early in 1970 but the settlement is disputed by Saudi Arabia whose claimed territory overlaps that of Abu Dhabi to a considerable extent. In July 1970 King Faisal requested that a plebiscite be held in the Buraimi district now ruled by Abu Dhabi.

Further down the Gulf offshore rights also caused trouble in the summer of 1970. Rival claims over the island of Abu Musa were made by both Sharjah and Iran when Umm al Quwain's concessionaire Occidental Petroleum began drilling there.

ECONOMICS

ABU DHABI

In Abu Dhabi the oil concession for the greater part of the mainland area is held by Abu Dhabi Petroleum Company (same shareholders as the Iraq Petroleum Company). In 1967 a consortium of Phillips Petroleum, American Independent Oil Company and ENI obtained a concession over part of the area relinquished by ADPC. Further onshore areas are still available. Offshore the principal concession holder is Abu Dhabi Marine Areas (owned by British Petroleum and Compagnie Française des Pétroles). A contract was signed in September 1970 between British Petroleum and four Japanese companies: Abu Dhabi Oil, Qatar Oil, North Slope Oil and Alaska Petroleum Development for a joint operation to develop the Banduq oilfield part of the ADMA concession. The Japanese Abu Dhabi Oil Company (Maruzen Oil, Daikyu Oil and Nippon Mining) obtained a concession covering relinquished offshore areas in December 1967 and plans to start production from its Mubarratz field by the end of 1972. eventual output is likely to reach 200 000 barrels a day. The Murban field started producing in December 1963 and the Bu Hasa field a year later. These fields are both about 75-80 miles west of the town of Abu Dhabi and well inland from the sea. Production in 1969 was over 17 million tons onshore and nearly 12 million tons offshore.

The tremendous growth of the oil revenues has already enabled Abu Dhabi to claim to be the richest country in the world in terms of income per capita. These revenues reached £35 million in 1967, doubled in 1968 and are expected to exceed £100 million in 1970. The population was estimated at around 17 000 before 1966 but with the considerable number of immigrants since then it is thought to have reached 55 000 by 1970. The explosive growth has inevitably led to bottlenecks in such facilities as water and power supplies, accommodation and transport, but the money is available to solve these problems. It is just a question of time. The pace and pressure of develop-

ment led to a minor crisis in late 1969 when expenditure began to exceed revenues partly because the government had authorized more projects than it could immediately pay for, especially as inflation had driven up the cost of all construction. The state has however felt able to launch its first National Plan which envisages a total of £274 million being spent on social services, industry and agriculture over the period 1968-73. In time the social services are expected to rival or even surpass those of Kuwait. Following a minor recession in 1970 Shaikh Zaid approved a £44 million development budget in January 1971 aimed at stimulating industrial activity. Abu Dhabi's development has been made more difficult by the poor port facilities—most trade comes through Dubai as the Gulf waters surrounding Abu Dhabi are extremely shallow. Plans for a deep water port are being pushed forward as fast as possible. In late 1967 the country joined the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries.

DUBAI

In the offshore area of Dubai (where oil has been discovered) exploitation is carried on by a partnership of Dubai Marine Areas, Dubai Petroleum Company, Deutsche Texaco, Delfzee, Dubai Petroleum and Sun Oil. Dubai Marine Areas has 50 per cent, Dubai Petroleum Company 30 per cent and Delfzee, Texaco and Sun share the remainder. Dubai Petroleum Company operates the concession DMA is owned solely by Compagnie Française des Pétroles since October 1969. Dubai Petroleum Company is a wholly owned subsidiary of Continental Oil. It also holds land concessions for Dubai some of which it has assigned to other firms, one German and one American. The offshore concessionaires announced in 1966 that oil had been discovered in commercial quantities and production started in 1969 at the rate of 30 000 barrels a day. However the Continental Oil Company announced

THE GULF STATES—TRUCIAL STATES—(ECONOMICS, STATISTICS)

in February 1971 that it was planning to invest a further £33 million in an attempt to increase production to 300,000 barrels a day, earlier estimates of reserves having been far exceeded.

Dubai has long been the principal commercial centre and entrepôt port for the Trucial States, and in consequence has benefited greatly from the oil boom in the area. The basis of this supremacy has been the relatively good facilities for shipping offered by Dubai Creek; this lead is now being consolidated by the construction of a £24 million deep water harbour. In 1972 this harbour, to be known as Port Rashid, will be the largest harbour in the Middle East and Dubai will become a free port. Dubai's official import figures are the most reliable index of economic activity in the Trucial States; in 1966 imports totalled £23 million, in 1967 £44 million, in 1968 £66 million, and in 1969 they exceeded £100 million. This growth rate is probably unprecedented on such a scale, and it has made Dubai a rich state even before its own oil revenues began to flow in. The sheikhdom has all the characteristics of a boom economy, albeit not in such an extreme form as Abu Dhabi. Massive construction projects absorb most of the local labour force, and immigrants, whose numbers have now had to be restricted, already outnumber natives. All food and manufactured articles have to be imported. Traditional occupations have declined—in Dubai these mainly consisted of fishing and smuggling. Dubai's low tariffs and absence of official restrictions have fostered smuggling to states with higher tariffs in the Gulf, and to India and Pakistan. This was

particularly true of gold, still thought to be smuggled into India on a large if declining scale; the apparent decline is due to both increasingly vigilant Indian policing and to the safer and equally profitable opportunities now available in legal trade.

THE SMALLER SHEIKHDOMS

Until very recently the other Trucial States had only a traditional and very impoverished economy based on fishing and pearling. Red oxide deposits are exploited in Sharjah and Ras al Khaimah possesses an Agricultural Trials Station operated under British supervision. Several sheikhdoms have produced colourful series of postage stamps and attempted to tap the world philatelic market, with varying success. All have now signed oil agreements which give the rulers a limited income whilst exploration continues; oil has yet to be discovered outside Abu Dhabi and Dubai. The ill-defined borders between the states, and the offshore rights which are disputed both amongst themselves and with Iran, are both likely to cause friction should commercial discoveries be made.

Sharjah is the most developed of these five states, owing to both the presence and expenditure of the R.A.F. station for some 30 years and the progressive attitudes of the present Ruler. Any British withdrawal would, however, be a serious blow to the economy unless compensated for by oil discoveries; in the meantime the rich fishing grounds are to be exploited from Sharjah's enclave on the Gulf of Oman, around Khor Fakkan.

STATISTICS

AREA AND POPULATION

AREA (sq. miles)		POPULATION (1968)			
Total	Abu Dhabi (estimate)	Total (estimate)	Abu Dhabi (1968 Census)	Dubai (1970 est.)	Sharjah (1968 Census)
32,000	25,000	177,640	46,375	70,000	31,480

Population estimates (1970) for the other sheikhdoms are as follows: Rasal Khaimah 24,500, Fujairah 10,000, Ajman and Umm al Quwain 4,000 each.

EMPLOYMENT

Oil prospecting, fishing, pearl fishing, boat building, livestock. Commercial oil production is carried on from Murban and Bu Hasa, in Abu Dhabi, and also offshore from Abu Dhabi and Dubai.

OIL PRODUCTION OF CRUDE OIL (Metric Tons)

YEAR	ABU DHABI MARINE AREAS LTD.	ABU DHABI PETROLEUM CO. LTD.
1966 . .	5,050,000	12,247,000
1967 . .	5,978,271	12,360,686
1968 . .	8,878,089	15,156,700
1969 . .	11,728,264	16,815,000
1970 . .	12,686,029	20,080,000

Oil production in Dubai (1970): 523,000 tons.

Abu Dhabi Petroleum Co. production (Jan.-May 1971): 10,939,000 tons.

ABU DHABI DEVELOPMENT PLAN (1968-73—million Bahrain Dinars)

Electricity Generation and Distribution	40
Industrial Development	60
Roads	48
Irrigation	13
Education	13
Health	6
Government and Defence	15
Arab Countries Development Fund	30
TOTAL (incl. others)	296

THE GULF STATES--TRUCIAL STATES--(STATISTICS)

FINANCE

£1 sterling = 1 1/2 Bahrain Dinars

£1 sterling = 11 1/3 Qatar/Dubai riyals

Following the devaluation of the Indian Rupee in June 1966 the External Rupee (13 3 = £1) was replaced as the official currency by the Bahrain Dinar in Abu Dhabi and by the Qatar/Dubai riyal in the other six Trucial States and in Qatar

Oil revenues in Abu Dhabi amounted to approximately 85 million Bahrain Dinars in 1969

EXTERNAL TRADE

DUBAI

IMPORTS

(000 Qatar/Dubai riyals)

COMMODITIES	1966	1967	1968	1969†
Household Goods	108 761	132 429	179 411	202 000
Foodstuffs	61 042	68 022	117 634	114 000
Garments	50 788	92 973	147 812	164 000
Machinery	30 702	77 093	150 880	187 000
Building Materials	19 135	41 902	73 947	101 000
Electrical Radio and Allied Goods	10 867	18 999	30 560	44 000
Stationery	2 011	3 312	5 024	7 000
Photographic Goods	675	1 165	2 413	n a.
Cosmetics	2 998	4 169	6 591	7 000
Medicines and Chemicals	2 752	3 179	5 141	n a.
Fuel and Oil	5 907	9 045	12 088	28 000
Arms and Ammunition	651	1 071	1 369	n a.
Oil Field Materials	13 704	15 782	25 550	45 000
Liquor and Wine	1 318	1 748	2 657	n a.
TOTAL	311 391	476 895	761 080	922 000

Dubai is the entrepôt market for the Trucial States

PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES	1966	1967	1968	1969†
Switzerland	69 547	90 084	89 523	106 000
Japan	40 629	78 700	130 321	179 000*
United Kingdom	37 779	69 504	125 055	161 000*
United States	16 432	38 491	71 658	76 000
India	20 194	21 277	36 003	42 000
Pakistan	11 452	17 710	53 647	35 000
China	11 862	16 092	29 305	33 000
German Federal Republic	8 936	15 911	26 288	39 000
Malaysia and Singapore	10 075	14 177	16 828	n a.
Netherlands	11 256	12 167	17 207	20 000

* 1970 figures U K 184 000 Japan 163 875

† Approximate figures

There is a large and officially authorized trade in gold which is not however included in the official trade statistics for Dubai

ABU DHABI

Official imports into Abu Dhabi in 1969 amounted to 59.3 million Bahrain Dinars the principal suppliers were the United Kingdom (19 million B D) the U.S.A. (10.9 million B D) and Dubai (4.1 million B D)

THE CONSTITUTION

The Rulers of the Trucial States have absolute control over their own subjects. Foreign relations are handled by the British Government, to whom they are bound by treaties.

The Trucial States Council, on which all the Rulers are represented, meets at least twice a year to discuss problems of mutual interest.

THE GOVERNMENT

Ruler of Sharjah: Sheikh KHALID BIN MUHAMMAD AL QASIMI (succeeded 1965).

Ruler of Ras al Khaimah: SAQR BIN MUHAMMAD AL QASIMI (1948).

Ruler of Umm al Quwain: AHMED BIN RASHID AL MU'ALLA, M.B.E. (1929).

Ruler of Ajman: RASHID BIN HUMAID (1928).

Ruler of Dubai: RASHID BIN SAID AL MAKTUM (1958).

Ruler of Abu Dhabi: ZAID BIN SULTAN AL NAHAYYAN (1966).

Ruler of Fujairah: MUHAMMAD BIN HAMAD AL-SHARGI (recognized March 1952).

TRUCIAL STATES COUNCIL

P.O.B. 1565, Dubai.

Secretary-General's Office: f. 1966 to administer the Secretariat of the Council of the Rulers of the Trucial States and to co-ordinate activities between the states; to assist the Chairman of the Council in supervising the execution of resolutions of the Council; mems. the seven Rulers of the Trucial States.

Chairman: Sheikh KHALID BIN MUHAMMAD AL QASIMI.

Secretary-General: AHMED ADI BITAR.

Development Office: f. 1965 to execute development in the Trucial States in accordance with the policy of the Council. The Development Office, which administers the Capital Projects programme of the Council and also recurrent services in agriculture, technical education, scholarships, health and public works, is financed from the Development Fund, to which various countries have contributed, and to which the principal recurrent contributors are the Ruler of Abu Dhabi and the U.K. Government.

Capital Projects include inter-state roads, urban water and electricity schemes, housing and other urban development, rural water supplies, agricultural extension schemes and harbour works. Investigations into water resources, mineral prospects, soil, agricultural marketing and fisheries have been conducted. An economic survey which has recommended a five-year development plan (1970-74) for the Development Office has been accepted in principle by the Council.

Financial Adviser and Acting Director: C. B. KENDALL.

Director of Works: R. G. RAE.

Agricultural Supervisor: R. MCKAY.

Principal, Technical Education: J. H. TAYLOR, M.B.E.

Health Adviser: Dr. ASIM AL JAMALI.

Fisheries Adviser: A. W. WHITE.

Director of Co-operative and Marketing Department: AZMI DAJANI.

JUDICIAL SYSTEM

Trucial States' subjects and citizens of all Arab and Muslim states with the exception of Commonwealth countries are subject to the jurisdiction of the local courts. The remainder are under British jurisdiction, except that in Abu Dhabi all Traffic and Workmen's Compensation cases are heard in the Ruler's Court.

In the local courts the rules of Islamic law generally prevail. A modern code of law is being produced for Abu Dhabi.

In Dubai there is a court run by a *qadi*, while in some of the other states all legal cases are referred immediately to the Ruler or a member of his family, who will refer to a *qadi* only if he cannot settle the matter himself. In Abu Dhabi a professional Jordanian judge presides over the Ruler's Court.

The British courts are presided over by professional British judges. Appeal lies to the Chief Court for the Persian Gulf.

A legal adviser to the Rulers of the six Northern Trucial States was appointed in 1964.

RELIGION

Most of the inhabitants are Muslims of the Sunni and Shiite sects.

THE PRESS

Abu Dhabi Chamber of Commerce Review: P.O.B. 662, Abu Dhabi; monthly; Arabic.

Abu Dhabi News: Department of Information and Tourism, Abu Dhabi; weekly; English.

Akhbar Dubai: Dubai Municipality, P.O.B. 67, Dubai; fortnightly; Arabic.

Dubai Official Gazette: P.O. Box 516, Custom House Building, Dubai; monthly; Arabic and English.

al Sharooq (The Sunrise): Sharjah; f. 1970; monthly; Dir.-Gen. TAREEM OMRAN; Editor YOUSEF AL HASSAN; circ. 3,000.

Akhbar Ras al Khaimah: Ras al Khaimah; monthly; Arabic.

RADIO AND TELEVISION

There are radio stations in Abu Dhabi and Sharjah and television stations in Abu Dhabi, Dubai and Qatar.

Voice of the Coast (Sawt as Sahh): Sharjah; broadcasts daily in Arabic over a wide area; accepts advertisements.

Forces Radio Station: P.O.B. 64, Sharjah; broadcasts in English; accepts advertisements.

FINANCE

BANKING

- Arab Bank Amman** Jordan Sharjah
Bank of Oman Ltd P.O.B. 2111 Dubai f 1967 cap p u Q/D rials 6 750 000 branch in Abu Dhabi Gen Man MAJED AL GHURAIR
British Bank of the Middle East, The London Dubai Sharjah Khor Fakhan Ras al Kaimah and Abu Dhabi
Commercial Bank of Dubai Cinema Square Dubai f 1969 owned by Chase Manhattan Bank, Commerzbank A.G. and the Commercial Bank of Kuwait
Dubai Bank P.O.B. 2545 Deira Dubai f 1970 control is held by local interests but British French and American banks are also participating
Eastern Bank London Abu Dhabi Sharjah and Buraimi
First National City Bank New York P.O.B. 749 Dubai also in Sharjah and Abu Dhabi
Habib Bank Karachi Dubai
National and Grindlays Bank London Abu Dhabi (formerly Ottoman Bank) and Sharjah
National Bank of Abu Dhabi P.O.B. 4 Abu Dhabi f 1968 cap p u m B.D. Chief Exec. MOHAMED ALI CHALABI Gen Man J S W COOMBS
National Bank of Dubai P.O.B. 777 Dubai branches in Abu Dhabi and Umm al Quwain Gen. Man D W MACK.

INSURANCE

- Arab Commercial Enterprise (Dubai) Ltd** P.O.B. 1100 Dubai Man. TOUTIC H BARAKHH
Arabia Insurance Co Ltd P.O.B. 1050 Dubai Rep WALTER H JISHI
Sharjah Insurance Co Sharjah f 1970 monopoly of local insurance business cap Q/D rials 2 5m half subscribed by the Sharjah government
 A large number of foreign insurance companies are represented in the Trucial States

COMMERCE

- Abu Dhabi Chamber of Commerce and Industries** P.O.B. 662 Abu Dhabi
Dubai Chamber of Commerce P.O.B. 1457 Dubai f 1965 1 800 mems Pres MUHAMMAD SAID AL MULLAH Dir MAJDOUH SADIK TABBAH
Sharjah Chamber of Commerce and Industry Sharjah f 1970 Dir DASA THOUFIC ZEBIN

DEVELOPMENT

- Trucial States Development Office** Trucial States Council P.O.B. 1505 Dubai f 1965 to co-ordinate development of the Trucial States (see Trucial States Council)
Planning and Co-ordination Department Abu Dhabi supervises Abu Dhabi's Development Programme Dir MAHMOUD HASSAN JUMA.

OIL

ABU DHABI

Department of Petroleum Affairs and Industry Abu Dhabi State supervisory body Dir MANI AL OTAIBA.

Abu Dhabi Marine Areas Ltd P.O.B. 303 Abu Dhabi owned two-thirds by British Petroleum and one third by Compagnie Française de Pétroles oil has been found in commercial quantities 60 miles offshore from Abu Dhabi on the Umm Shaif structure 20 miles east of Das Island only a mile long and half a mile wide the operating headquarters and tanker loading terminal A new field at Zakum was brought into production in 1967 Production (1970) 12 686 038 long tons Gen Man Dr A. J. HORAN

Abu Dhabi Oil Company Abu Dhabi consortium of three Japanese oil companies Maruzen Daikyo and Nihon Kogyo holds offshore concession oil strikes reported in September 1969 and January 1970

Abu Dhabi Petroleum Company Ltd P.O.B. 270 Abu Dhabi the company has the same shareholders as the Iraq Petroleum Company Export of oil from the Murban Field started on December 14th 1963 The terminal is at Jebel Dhanna The annual production capacity was raised to 12 million tons during 1965 by the connection of Bu Hasa field to Jebel Dhanna Facilities installed to raise annual production capacity to 20 million tons were completed in December 1967 Gen Man A. TURNER Exports in long tons (1970) 20 155 669

Middle East Oil Company Abu Dhabi formed 1966 by the Mitsubishi group holds concessions covering some 15 000 square km on land

Phillips Petroleum P.O.B. 6 Abu Dhabi heads consortium with the Italian AGIP Company (each with a 41 66 per cent interest) and the American Independent Oil Company (with a 16 66 per cent interest) holds 9 000 square km concess on on land Gen Man O J KOOR

United Petroleum Development (Japan) Abu Dhabi f 1970 association of four Japanese companies in association with British Petroleum, to develop the Bunduq oilfield

DUBAI

Petroleum Affairs Department Dubai government supervisory body Dir MAHDI AL TAJIR

Deffze Dubai Petroleum Dubai subsidiary of Wintershall Aktiengesellschaft (W Germany) with a 5 per cent holding in production

Deutsche Texaco Dubai has a 10 per cent holding in production

Dubai Marine Areas Dubai holds offshore concession agreement signed in 1963 with a 50 per cent holding in production British Petroleum sold its 10-thirds interest in the company to Compagnie Française des Pétroles in October 1969

Dubai Petroleum Company Dubai subsidiary of Continental Oil Co. (U.S.A.) with minority participation by Deutsche Erdöl and Sun Oil Co. (U.S.A.) holds offshore concession in Fateh oilfield which began producing in 1969 and has a 30 per cent holding in production output in 1970 amounted to about 1 million metric tons

Dubai Sun Dubai has a 5 per cent holding in production

RAS AL KHAIMAH

Union Oil operates the offshore concession.

In March 1969 the Ruler signed an oil concession agreement with *Shell Hydrocarbons N.V.* covering the Emirate's mainland territory.

SHARJAH

John Mecom Ltd. have held a concession since 1964. In January 1969 the Ruler of Sharjah signed two exploration agreements with *Shell* interests, and in December 1969 he also granted an offshore exploration concession to the *Buttes Oil and Gas Co.* of California.

FUJAIRAH

Bochumer Mineralöl G.m.b.H., owned by the Federal German Bomin Group, has held a concession covering the whole of the land area and territorial waters of the sheikhdom since 1966.

AJMAN

John Mecom Ltd. has held a concession since 1964.

UMM AL QUWAIN

An offshore concession was granted to *Occidental Petroleum* in November 1969. *John Mecom Ltd.* and *Shell* also hold concessions.

TRANSPORT

ROADS

Until very recently there was no proper system of roads except in Dubai town, but the desert tracks are often motorable. In 1965 plans were made for a £1 million all weather metalled road to be built from Dubai to Ras al Khaimah, to be financed by the new Trucial States Development Office. The Dubai/Sharjah section of this was opened in September 1966. Work has now been completed on the Sharjah/Ras al Khaimah section at the expense of the Saudi Arabian Government. In 1968 Abu Dhabi opened a £1 million bridge linking the town with the mainland. The town is also linked with the Buraimi Oasis by a dual-carriageway motor road built mainly for political reasons. The oil companies have constructed roads in the areas in which they operate. Motor vehicles are in general use for passengers and goods. Camels and donkeys are used in the less accessible areas.

SHIPPING

Dubai is the main port. The British India Steam Navigation Co. Ltd. maintains a weekly scheduled service to Dubai on the Bombay-Basra run. The ships of British India Line and F. Strick & Co. call at Dubai and Abu Dhabi several times a month. Other lines which call regularly are D. D. G. Hansa, Johnson Line, Holland-Persian Gulf, Maersk Line, and Jugolinÿa. A contract to build a deep water port at Dubai, Port Rashid, has also been signed and is expected to take four years to complete. With fifteen deep water berths, it will then become the largest harbour in the Middle East. Work began in 1970 on a new four-mile channel which will make the port of Abu Dhabi accessible to sea-going vessels including tankers.

CIVIL AVIATION

A new air terminal is being built to international standards at Dubai. When completed in 1971 it is expected to be the first airport in the Middle East able to handle "Jumbo" jets.

Gulf Aviation Co. Ltd.: P.O. Box 138, Bahrain; Dubai National Air Travel Agency, P.O. Box 434, Dubai;

Khalifa and Omeir Abna Youssef, Abu Dhabi; International Aeradio Ltd., P.O. Box 400, Sharjah; daily service Bahrain-Doha-Abu Dhabi-Dubai and weekly flight from Dubai to Kuwait (see Bahrain—Civil Aviation).

Air India, B.O.A.C., Iran Air, Kuwait Airways, Middle East Airlines, P.I.A., Saudi Arabian Airlines, Syrian Arab Airlines and T.M.A. all serve Dubai, and Gulf Aviation and Syrian Arab Airways serve Sharjah.

TOURISM

Department of Information and Tourism: Government of Abu Dhabi, P.O.B. 17, Abu Dhabi.

EDUCATION

There are boys' primary-intermediate schools in all states and girls' schools in Dubai, Abu Dhabi, Sharjah and Ras al Khaimah. There are trade schools in Sharjah and Dubai and the two oil companies operate training centres for employees in Abu Dhabi. There is an agricultural school in Ras al Khaimah, and a school attached to the Trucial Oman Scouts. There is some secondary education for boys in Dubai and Sharjah. Abu Dhabi is now drawing up extensive plans for the development of its school system.

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Iran

(PERSIA)

PHYSICAL AND SOCIAL GEOGRAPHY

SITUATION

The kingdom of Iran is bounded on the north by the Caspian Sea and the Transcaucasian and Turkistan territories of the U.S.S.R., on the east by Afghanistan and Pakistan, on the south by the Persian Gulf and Gulf of Oman and on the west by Iraq and Turkey

PHYSICAL FEATURES

Structurally, Iran is an extremely complex area and owing partly to political difficulties and partly to the difficult nature of the country itself complete exploration and investigation have not so far been achieved. In general it can be stated that Iran consists of an interior plateau, from 3 000–5 000 ft in height, that is ringed on almost all sides by mountain zones of varying height and extent. The largest mountain massif is that of the Zagros which runs from the north-west of Iran, where the frontiers of Iran, Russia, Turkey and Iraq meet, first south westwards to the eastern shores of the Persian Gulf and then eastwards fronting the Arabian Sea and continuing into Baluchistan. Joining the Zagros in the north-west, and running along the southern edge of the Caspian Sea, is the narrower but equally high Elburz range, whilst along the eastern frontier of Iran are several scattered mountain chains, less continuous and imposing than either the Zagros or the Elburz but still sufficiently high to act as a barrier.

The Zagros range begins in north-west Iran as an alternation of high tablelands and lowland basins, the latter containing lakes the largest of which is Lake Urmia. This lake having no outlet, is saline. Further to the south east the Zagros becomes much more imposing, consisting of a series of parallel hog's back ridges some of which reach over 14,000 ft in height. In its southern and eastern portions the Zagros becomes distinctly narrower, and its peaks much less high though a few exceed 10 000 ft. The Elburz range is very much narrower than the Zagros, but equally, if not more abrupt, and one of its peaks, the volcanic cone of Mt. Damavand (18,700 ft.), is the highest in the country. There is a sudden drop on the northern side to the flat plain occupied by the Caspian Sea which lies nearly 90 ft below sea level and is shrinking rapidly in size. The eastern highlands of Iran consist of isolated massifs separated by lowland zones some of which contain lakes from which there is no outlet, the largest being the Hurmand Basin, on the borders of Iran and Afghanistan.

The interior plateau of Iran is partly covered by a remarkable salt swamp (termed *kavir*) and partly by loose sand or stones (*dashi*), with stretches of better land mostly round the perimeter, near the foothills of the surrounding mountains. In these latter areas much of the cultivation of the country is carried on, but the lower lying desert and swamp areas towards the centre of the plateau, are largely uninhabited. The Kavir is an extremely forbidding region, consisting of a surface formed by thick plates of crystallized salt which have sharp upstanding edges. Below the salt lie patches of mud, with, here and there, deep drainage

channels—all of which are very dangerous to travellers, and are hence unexplored. Because of this great handicap from the presence of an unusually intractable 'dead heart', it has proved difficult to find a good central site for the capital of Iran—many towns, all peripheral to a greater or lesser degree, have in turn fulfilled this function but none has proved completely satisfactory. The choice of the present capital, Teheran, dates only from the end of the eighteenth century.

Iran suffers from occasional earthquakes, which can cause severe loss of life, damage to property and disruption of communications. A particularly bad example occurred in the north-eastern Khurasan province in August and September 1968, estimates placed the toll from this disaster at up to 20 000 deaths and severe damage over 750 square miles.

The climate of Iran is one of great extremes. Owing to its southerly position, adjacent to Arabia and near the Thar Desert, the summer is extremely hot, with temperatures in the interior rising possibly higher than anywhere else in the world—certainly over 130° F has been recorded. In winter, however, the great altitude of much of the country and its continental situation result in far lower temperatures than one would expect to find for a country in such low latitudes. Minus 20° F can be recorded in the north west Zagros, and 0° F is common in many places.

Another unfortunate feature is the prevalence of strong winds which intensify the temperature contrasts. Eastern Iran in particular has a violent visitation in the so-called 'Wind of 120 Days', which blows regularly throughout summer, reaching at times over 100 m p h and often raising sand to such an extent that the stone walls of buildings are sometimes scoured away and turn to ruins.

Most of Iran is arid but in contrast, parts of the north-west and north receive considerable rainfall—up to 80 inches along parts of the Caspian coast, producing very special climatic conditions in this small region, recalling conditions in the lower Himalayas. The Caspian shore has a hot, humid climate and this region is by far the most densely populated of the whole country. Next in order of population density comes the north west Zagros area,—the province of Azerbaijan with its capital, Tabriz, the second city of Iran. Then, reflecting the diminished rainfall, next in order come the central Zagros area and adjacent parts of the interior plateau, round Isfahan, Hamadan, Shiraz, and Kermanshah, with an extension as far as Teheran. The extreme east and south where rainfall is very scanty, are practically uninhabited.

ECONOMIC LIFE

Owing to the difficulties of climate and topography there are few districts apart from the Caspian plain that are continuously cultivated over a wide area. Settlement tends to occur in small clusters, close to water supplies, or where there are especially favourable conditions—a good soil, shelter from winds, or easy communications. Away from

these cultivated areas, which stand out like oases among the barren expanses of desert or mountain, most of the population live as nomads, by the herding of animals. The nomadic tribesmen have had great influence on the life of Iran. Their principal territory is the central Zagros, where the tribal system is strongly developed; but nomads are found in all the mountain zones, though their numbers are very few in the south and east. Reza Shah (see "History") made considerable efforts to break the power of the nomadic tribes and to force them to settle as agriculturalists; but since his death there has been a recrudescence of tribal activity. However, the Iranian oilfields lie within tribal territories, and an important change is taking place as nomads accept employment as labourers in the oil industry. This may in time accomplish much of what Reza Shah attempted to do.

Economic activity has suffered from the handicaps of topography and climate, prolonged political and social insecurity (with constant pressure by foreign powers), and widespread devastation in the later Middle Ages by Mongol invaders, from which Iran has never fully recovered. Agricultural methods in particular are primitive, so that yields are low; but the drawbacks to efficient production mentioned in the general introduction to this volume—archaic systems of land tenure, absentee landlords, lack of education, and shortage of capital—are gradually being overcome. In the north and west, which are by far the most productive, a wide variety of cereals (including wheat, barley, and rice) and much fruit are grown, but in the south and east the date is the principal source of food. Some Iranian fruit is of remarkable quality (especially the apricots and grapes) and melons of over 100 lbs. weight are known.

Iran has a number of mineral resources, some of which are exploited on a commercial scale. Iranians have always had a high reputation as craftsmen—particularly in metal work and in carpet-making; and Reza Shah attempted to develop modern mechanized industry by placing State owned factories in most of the big towns. Some of these have proved successful, others not, but bazaar manufactures still remain the more important. Teheran has now become a sizeable manufacturing centre, with brick- and cement-making, light engineering, processing of foodstuffs and manufacture of consumer goods as chief activities. Carpet making remains important in Iran owing to considerable demand from the U.S.A. and Europe (especially West Germany) where Persian rugs are a status symbol.

The adverse nature of geographical conditions has greatly restricted the growth of communications in Iran. The country is very large in relation to its size of population—it is 1,400 miles from north-west to south-west—and because of the interior deserts, many routes must follow a circuitous path instead of attempting a direct crossing. Then, too, the interior is shut off by ranges that are in parts as high as the Alps of Europe, but far less broken up by river valleys. Road construction is everywhere difficult,

and few hard-surfaced tracks exist, although road construction is now being undertaken both by the Plan Organization of Iran and the Central Treaty Organization. An important link is the railway constructed at great effort before the Second World War, between the Caspian coast and Teheran and the Persian Gulf. Other rail links with bordering countries are slowly being built. Though there are mountain streams, many flowing in deep inaccessible gorges, only one, the Kharun River, is at all navigable. The Caspian ports suffer rapid silting, whilst in the south most harbours are either poorly sheltered or else difficult of access from the interior. During the last few years, however, with greater strategic and economic interest in the south and east of Iran, parts of the Gulf, especially Bushire, are in process of development as more direct outlets for the interior. A CENTO plan has resulted in the development of roads into Turkey and Pakistan; and in some slight measure the north-east of Iran is less remote, distant provinces being reachable only through Teheran.

RACE AND LANGUAGE

Iran has numerous ethnic groups of widely differing origin. In the central plateau there occurs a distinctive sub-race, termed by some anthropologists Iranian or Irano-Afghan. The distinguishing qualities are a moderate to rather tall stature, a moderately round head, pronounced features, but less so than among Armenoids, and a colouring generally lighter than that of many surrounding peoples. In the mountain districts there are many other smaller groups of separate racial composition. A number of nomads, including the Bakhtiari tribes, would seem to be of Kurdish stock; whilst Turki (Mongoloid) strains are apparent in others, such as the Qashqai tribes. Smaller groups from the Caucasus (Georgians and Circassians) are represented in Azerbaijan and the Caspian provinces, whilst Turki influence is again apparent in the racial composition of the eastern districts of Iran, especially round Meshed. The southern Zagros near the Arabian Sea has a small population that tends to be of mixed Iranian, Afghan, and Hindu stock. Some observers have suggested that in this region there may also be representatives of a primitive negrito race, related to the hill-tribes of India and of south-east Asia.

With so many differing ethnic groups, it is not surprising to find that several languages are current in Iran. Persian, an Indo-Aryan language related to the languages of western Europe, is spoken in the north and centre of the country, and is the one official language of the State. As the north is by far the most densely peopled region of Iran, the Persian language has an importance somewhat greater than its territorial extent would suggest. Various dialects of Kurdish are current in the north and central Zagros mountains, and alongside these are found several Turki-speaking tribes. Baluchi occurs in the extreme south-east. English and French are spoken by most of the educated classes.

W.B.F.

HISTORY

EARLY HISTORY

The Achaemenid empire the first Persian empire was founded by Cyrus who revolted against the Median empire in 553 B.C. After the defeat of the Median empire Babylon was taken in 539 B.C. and in 525 B.C. under Cambyses the successor of Cyrus, Egypt was conquered. The period of conquest was rounded off by Darius who reduced the tribes of the Pontic and Armenian mountains and extended Persian dominion to the Caucasus. The main work of Darius however lay not in the conquest but in the organization which he gave to the empire. During his reign wars with Greece broke out and in 490 B.C. the Persian army suffered a major defeat at Marathon. An expedition under Xerxes the successor of Darius which set out to avenge this defeat was after initial successes defeated at Salamis in 480 B.C. The empire was finally overthrown by Alexander who defeated the Persian army at Arbela in 331 B.C. and then burnt Persepolis the Achaemenid capital. The last Darius fled and was killed in 330 B.C. Alexander thereafter regarded himself as the head of the Persian empire. The death of Alexander was followed by a struggle between his generals one of whom Seleucus took the whole of Persia apart from northern Media and founded the Seleucid empire. About the year 250 B.C. a reaction against Hellenism began with the rise of the Parthian empire of the Arsacids. Although by origin nomads from the Turanian steppe the Arsacids became the wardens of the north-east marches and were largely preoccupied in defending themselves in the east against the Scythians who with the Tocharians and Sacae repeatedly attacked the Parthian empire while in the west they were engaged in fending off attacks by the Romans.

The Arsacids were succeeded by the Sasanians who like the Achaemenids came from Persia and like them were Zoroastrians. Artashir B. Babak after subduing the neighbouring states (c. A.D. 212) made war on the Arsacid Artabanus V. whom he eventually defeated. The empire which he founded largely continued the traditions of the Achaemenids although it never equalled the Achaemenid empire in extent. The monarchy of the Sasanian period was a religious and civil institution. The monarch who ruled by divine right was absolute but his autocracy was limited by the powers of the Zoroastrian hierarchy and the feudal aristocracy. In the reign of Qubad (A.D. 488-531) a movement of revolt partly social and partly religious led by Mazdak gained ground. Under Qubad's successor Anushirvan (531-579) orthodoxy was restored but at the cost of the imposition of a military despotism. Like the Arsacids before them the Sasanians were occupied in the west with wars with Rome and in the east with repelling incursions of the nomads from Central Asia.

MUSLIM PERSIA

By the beginning of the seventh century A.D. Persia had been greatly weakened by these wars and when the Muslim Arabs attacked little effective resistance was offered. The decisive battles were fought at Qadisiyya (A.D. 637) and Nahavand (c. A.D. 641). Persia did not re-emerge as a political entity until the sixteenth century A.D. although with the decline of the Abbasid empire semi-independent and independent dynasties arose in different parts of Persia and at times even incorporated under their rule an area extending beyond the confines of present-day Persia. As a result of the Arab conquest Persia became part of the Muslim world. Local administration remained largely in the hands of the indigenous population and many local

customs continued to be observed. In due course a new civilization developed in Persia the unifying force of which was Islam.

With the transfer of the capital of the Islamic empire from Damascus to Baghdad (c. A.D. 750) Persian influence began to be strongly felt in the life of the empire. Islam had already replaced Zoroastrianism and by the tenth century modern Persian written in the Arabic script and including a large number of Arabic words in its vocabulary had established itself. Its emergence was of immense importance the literary tradition for which it became the vehicle has perhaps more than any other factor kept alive a national consciousness among the Persians and preserved the memory of the great Persian empires of the past. However much the details became blurred and even distorted in the course of transmission.

By the eighth century A.D. the Abbasid caliphate had begun to disintegrate and when in the eleventh century control of the north-eastern frontiers broke down the Ghuzz Turks invaded Persia. This movement of which the Seljuks became the leaders was ethnologically important since it altered the balance of population. The Turkish element from then on being second only to the Persian in numbers and influence. Secondly it was in the Seljuk empire that the main lines of the politico-economic structure which was to last in Persia in a modified form down to the twentieth century A.D. were worked out. The basis of this structure was the land assignment the holder of which was often virtually a petty territorial ruler who was required when called upon to do so to provide the ruler with a military contingent. This system was to some extent forced upon the Seljuks and others after them because they were unable to establish an effective system of direct administration or to exercise financial control over their military forces and because they could not integrate the settled and semi-settled elements of the population. The weakness of the system was that whenever the central control slackened the empire tended to split up into independent or semi-independent units.

The Seljuk empire itself broke up in the twelfth century into a number of succession states. The thirteenth century saw the Mongol invasion and in 1258 Hulagu the grandson of Chinghiz (Jenghiz) Khan sacked Baghdad and destroyed the caliphate. For some years the Ilkhan dynasty founded by Hulagu ruled Persia as vassals of the Great Khan in Qaraqorum but from the reign of Abaqa (1265-1281) onwards they became virtually a Persian dynasty. Their empire like that of the Seljuks before them—and for very much the same reasons—broke up at the beginning of the fourteenth century into a number of succession states. Towards the end of the century Persia again fell under the dominion of a military conqueror when Timur who had started his career as the warden of the marches in the Oxus-Jaxartes basin against the nomads of Central Asia under took a series of military campaigns against Persia between 1381 and 1387. The kingdom founded by him was short-lived and rapidly disintegrated on the death of his son Shahrukh the western part falling first to the Turkomans of the Black Sheep and then to the Turkomans of the White Sheep while Transoxania passed into the hands of the Uzbeks.

THE PERSIAN MONARCHY

The sixteenth century saw the foundation of the Safavid empire which was accompanied by an eastward movement of the Turkomans from Asia Minor back into Persia. For

the first time since the Muslim conquest Persia re-emerged as a political unit; her frontiers became more or less fixed, although there was a general movement of contraction in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries notably in the north-west and north-east. The foundations of the Safavid empire were laid by Isma'il Safavi (1502-24). He deliberately fostered a sense of separateness and of national unity vis-à-vis the Ottoman Turks with whom the Safavids were engaged in a struggle for supremacy in the west, and the main weapon he used to accomplish his purpose was Shi'ism. Not only the Turks but the majority of his own subjects were at the time Sunni—nevertheless he imposed Shi'ism upon them by force and created among the population of his dominions, many of whom, especially among his immediate followers, were Turks, a sense of national unity as Persians. Apart from a brief interlude under Nadir Shah, Shi'ism has since then remained the majority rite in Persia and is the official rite of the country at the present day. Under Shah Abbas (1587-1629) the Safavid empire reached its zenith and Persia enjoyed a power and prosperity which she has not since achieved.

GREAT POWER RIVALRY

During the Safavid period intercourse with Europe increased. Various foreign embassies interested mainly in the silk trade reached the Safavid court via Russia and via the Persian Gulf. In the latter area in the early years of the sixteenth century a struggle for supremacy developed between the British and the Dutch. "Factories" were established by the East India Company in the Gulf from the early sixteenth century.

Under the later Safavids internal decline set in and from 1722-30 Persia was subject to Afghan invasion and occupation while in the west and north she was threatened by Turkey and Russia. After the death of Peter the Great there was a temporary slackening of Russian pressure, but the Turks continued to advance and took Tabriz in 1725, peace being eventually made at Hamadan in 1727. The Afghans were finally evicted by Nadir Shah Afshar whose reign (1736-47) was remarkable chiefly for his military exploits. The Afsharids were succeeded by Karim Khan Zand (1750-79) whose relatively peaceful reign was followed by the rise of the Qajars who continued to reign until 1925. Under them the capital was transferred from Isfahan to Teheran. During the Qajar period events in Persia became increasingly affected by Great Power rivalry until not only Persia's foreign policy was dominated by this question, but her internal politics also.

With the growth of British influence in India in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries the main emphasis in Anglo-Persian relations, which during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries had been on commerce, began to shift to strategy. Persia and the Persian Gulf came to be regarded as one of the main bastions to India and the existence of an independent Persia as a major British interest. In the early nineteenth century fear of a French invasion of India through Persia exercised the mind of the British in India and Whitehall. French envoys were active in Persia and Mesopotamia from 1796 to 1809, and to counter possible French activities Captain (afterwards Sir John) Malcolm was sent to Persia in 1800 by the Governor General of India; he concluded a political and commercial treaty with Fath Ali Shah, the main purpose of which was to ensure that the Shah should not receive French agents and would do his utmost to prevent French forces entering Persia. With the defeat of Napoleon in Egypt the matter was no longer regarded as urgent and the agreement was not ratified. Subsequently the French made proposals to Persia for an alliance against Russia and in 1807 Persia concluded the Treaty of Finkenstein with France after which a military mission under General Gardanne came to

Persia. In 1808 another British mission was sent under Malcolm. Its object was "first, to detach the Court of Persia from the French alliance and to prevail on that Court to refuse the passage of French troops through the territories subject to Persia, or the admission of French troops into the country. If that cannot be obtained, to admit English troops with a view of opposing the French army in its progress to India, to prevent the creation of any maritime post, and the establishment of French factories on the coast of Persia". Malcolm's task was complicated by the almost simultaneous arrival of a similar mission from Whitehall. In 1809 after the Treaty of Tilsit, which debarred the French from aiding the Shah against Russia, Gardanne was dismissed.

WARS WITH RUSSIA AND TURKEY

Meanwhile the formal annexation of Georgia by Russia in 1801 had been followed by a campaign against Russia. This proved disastrous to Persia and was temporarily brought to an end by the Treaty of Gulistan (1813) by which Persia ceded Georgia, Qara Bagh and seven other provinces. British policy continued to be exercised over the possibility of an invasion of India via Persia and in 1814 the Treaty of Teheran was concluded with Persia by which Great Britain undertook to provide troops or a subsidy in the event of unprovoked aggression on Persia. Although the treaty provided for defence against any European power it was primarily intended to provide against the designs of Russia. In fact it proved ineffective and when the Perso-Russian war recommenced in 1825 Great Britain did not interfere except as a peacemaker and discontinued the subsidy to Persia, who was technically the aggressor. The war was concluded in 1828 by the Treaty of Turkomanчай, under the terms of which Persia ceded Erivan and Nakhjivan and agreed to pay an indemnity; in addition, she was prohibited from having armed vessels on the Caspian.

During this period Persia was also engaged in hostilities with Turkey. Frontier disputes in 1821 culminated in the outbreak of war, which was concluded by the Treaty of Erzerum (1823).

By the nineteenth century the Persian Government had ceased to exercise effective control over the greater part of Khurasan. Russian policy, which became conciliatory towards Persia during the twenty-five years or so after the Treaty of Turkomanчай, encouraged the Shah to reimpose Persian rule on the eastern provinces. British policy, on the other hand, having come to regard Afghanistan as an important link in the defence of India, urged moderation upon the Persian Government. Nevertheless a Persian expedition set out, took Quchan and Sarakhs and laid siege to Herat; on the death of Abbas Mirza, the heir apparent and commander of the Persian forces in the east at the time, the siege was raised. After the accession of Muhammad Shah in 1834, a new expedition was sent against Herat. The sending of this, too, was encouraged by Russia while the Barakzai chiefs of Kandahar also offered the Persians assistance against their Saduzai rivals in Herat. The siege of Herat began in 1837 but was raised when the Shah was threatened with British intervention. Subsequently local intrigues headed by Sa'id Muhammad had enabled the Persians to enter Herat, and when Muhammad Yusuf Saduzai seized Herat some years later in 1855 and put Sa'id Muhammad to death, relatives of the latter went to Teheran to enlist the support of the Shah who thereupon ordered the governor of Meshed to march on Herat. The seizure of the city by Persia led to the outbreak of the Anglo-Persian war in 1856, which was terminated by the Treaty of Paris (1857) after a British force had occupied the island of Kharg in the Persian Gulf.

In the second half of the century the subjection of the

Turkoman tribes by Russ a her capture of Marv in 1854 and the occupation of the Panjeh meant that Russian influence became dominant in Khurasan in the same way as the advance of Russia to the Araxes after the Persian wars in the early part of the nineteenth century had made Russian influence dominant in Azerbaijan

INCREASED FOREIGN INTERVENTION

Internally the second half of the nineteenth century was remarkable chiefly for the beginnings of the modernist movement which was stimulated on the one hand by internal misgovernment and on the other by increased intervention in the internal affairs of the country by Russia and Britain. Towards the end of the century numerous concessions were granted to foreigners largely in order to pay for the extravagances of the court. The most fantastic of these was the Reuter concession. In 1877 a naturalised British subject Baron de Reuter was given by the Shah a monopoly for seventy years of railways and tramways in Persia all the minerals except gold silver and precious stones irrigation road factory and telegraph enterprises and the farm of customs dues for twenty five years. Eventually this concession was cancelled and permission instead given for the foundation of a Persian state bank with British capital which was to have the exclusive right to issue banknotes and accordingly in September 1889 the Imperial Bank of Persia began business. In the same year Doigornia obtained for Russia the first option of a railway concession for five years. In November of the following year the railway agreement with Russia was changed into one interdicting all railways whatsoever in Persia. In 1889 after negotiations for foreign loans Belgian officials were put in charge of the customs administration. By the turn of the century there had been a pronounced sharpening of Anglo-Russian hostility as a consequence of a whole series of Russian actions not only in northern Persia where Russian ascendancy to a large extent had to be admitted but as well in southern and eastern Persia which had hitherto been predominantly British preserves. In 1900 a Russian loan was given to be followed by another in 1902 secured on the customs (excluding those of Fars and the Gulf). Subsequently various short term advances and subsidies from the Russian treasury including advances to the heir apparent Muhammad Ali were made so that by 1906 some £7½ millions were owing to the Russ and Under the 1891 Russo-Persian tariff treaty trade between the two countries had increased and when under the 1901 Russo-Persian commercial treaty a new customs tariff was announced in 1903 Russian exports to Persia were considerably a deal and up to 1914 Russian commerce with Persia continued to grow.

The grant of these various concessions to foreigners and the raising of foreign loans gave rise to growing anxiety on the part of the Persian public. Further large numbers of Persians had fled the country and were living in exile. When a tobacco monopoly was granted to a British subject in 1890 various elements of the population including the intellectuals and the religious classes combined to oppose it. Strikes and riots threatened and the monopoly was rescinded. No effective steps however were taken to allay popular discontent. In 1901 protests were made against the loans and mortgages from Russia which were being contracted to pay for Mirza Ali Din Shah's journeys to Europe. By 1905-6 the demand for reform had grown in strength and finally on August 5th 1906 after 12 000 persons had taken sanctuary in the British legation a constitution was granted. A long struggle then began between the constitutionalists and the Shah. The Cossack Brigade forced during the reign of Nasir ud Din Shah which was under Russian officers and was the most effective military force in the country played a major part in this struggle

and was used by Muhammad Ali Shah to suppress the National Assembly in 1908. Civil war ensued and Muhammad Ali Shah's abdication was forced in 1909.

Meanwhile in 1907 the Anglo-Russian convention had been signed. The convention which included a mutual undertaking to respect the integrity and independence of Persia, divided the country into three areas that lying to the north of a line passing from Qasr Shirin to Kakh where the Russian Persian and Afghan frontiers meet in the east that lying to the south of a line running from Qazik on the Perso Afghan frontier through Bijaard and Kerman to Bandar Abbas on the Persian Gulf and that lying outside these two areas. Great Britain gave an undertaking not to seek or support others seeking political or economic concessions in the northern area. Russia gave a similar undertaking with reference to the southern area. In the central area the freedom of action of the two parties was not limited and their existing concessions (which included the oil concession granted to D. Arey in 1901) were maintained. The conclusion of this convention—which had taken place partly because of a change in the relative strength of the Great Powers and partly because the British Government hoped thereby to terminate Anglo-Russian rivalry in Persia and to prevent further Russian encroachments—came as a shock to Persian opinion which had hoped much from the support which the British Government had given to the constitutional movement. It was felt that Persian interests had been bartered away by Great Britain for a promise of Russian support in the event of a European war. In fact the convention failed in its object. Russian pressure continued to be exercised on Persia directly and indirectly. In 1909 1911 and 1912 Russian troops occupied Tabriz and other towns in north Persia and in 1911 as a result of Russian pressure the National Assembly was suspended and the resignation forced of the American Administrator-General of the Finances Shuster who had been appointed in the hope of bringing order into the finances of Persia.

THE FIRST WORLD WAR

During the 1914-18 War Persia was nominally neutral but in fact Turkish British and Russan forces and German agents were active in the country and on the conclusion of the armistice between Russia and Turkey in 1917 two British expeditionary forces set out for Russia through Persia on what proved to be abortive missions. By the end of the war the internal condition of Persia was chaotic. To the British Government the restoration of order was desirable and with this end in view the Agreement of 1919 was drawn up whereby a number of men were to be lent to reorganise the Persian army and to reform the Ministry of Finance and a loan of £2 million was to be given. There was opposition to this agreement in the U.S.A. and France and in Persia and the treaty was not ratified. A coup d'état took place in 1921. Reza Khan (later Reza Shah) becoming Minister of War. In February 1921 the Soviet Persian Treaty was signed whereby the USSR declared all treaties and conventions concluded with Persia by the Tsarist Government null and void. Under Article VI the USSR was permitted to advance her troops into the Persian interior for the purpose of carrying out the military operations necessary for its defence in the event of a third party attempting to carry out a policy of usurpation by means of armed intervention in Persia or if such a Power should desire to use Persian territory as a base of operations against Russia. In a letter dated December 12th 1921 from the Russian diplomatic representative at Teheran to the Persian Minister for Foreign Affairs it was stated that this article was intended to apply only to cases in which preparations have been made for a considerable armed attack upon Russia or the Soviet Republics allied to her,

by the partisans of the régime which has been overthrown or by its supporters among those foreign Powers which are in a position to assist the enemies of the Workers' and Peasants' Republics and at the same time to possess themselves, by force or by underhand methods, of part of the Persian territory, thereby establishing a base of operations for all attacks—made either directly or through the counter-revolutionary forces—which they might meditate against Russia or the Soviet Republics allied to her”.

REZA SHAH 1925-1941

In 1923 Reza Khan became Prime Minister and finally in 1925 the crown of Persia was conferred upon him. His first task was to restore the authority of the central government throughout the country, and the second to place Persia's relations with foreign countries on a basis of equality. All extra-territorial agreements were terminated from 1928. Lighting and quarantine duties on the Persian littoral of the Persian Gulf, hitherto performed by Great Britain, were transferred to the Persian Government in 1930. The Indo-European Telegraph Company, which had been in operation since 1872, had almost entirely been withdrawn by 1931 and the British coaling stations were transferred from Basidu and Henjam to Bahrain in 1935.

In 1932 the cancellation of the Anglo-Persian Oil Company's concession was announced by Persia. The original concession obtained by D'Arcy in 1901 had been taken over by the Anglo-Persian Oil Company (later the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company) in 1909 and the British Government had acquired a controlling interest in the company in 1914. Thenceforward the main emphasis of British policy towards Persia had been on oil rather than strategy, though from 1941 onwards the strategic aspect again became important. The Persian Government's action in cancelling the concession was referred to the League of Nations. Eventually an agreement was concluded in 1933 for a new concession whereby the concession area was materially reduced and the royalty to be paid to the Persian Government increased. The concession was to run to 1993.

Internally Reza Shah's policy aimed at modernization and autarchy. In the later years of his reign the Government became increasingly totalitarian in its nature. Compulsory military service was introduced and the army much increased in size. Communications were greatly improved; the construction of a trans-Persian railway was begun. Education was remodelled on western lines. Women were no longer obliged to wear the veil after 1936. Foreign trade was made a state monopoly, currency and clearing restrictions were established. These arrangements fitted in with the economy of Germany and by the outbreak of World War II, Germany had acquired considerable commercial and political influence in Persia.

On the outbreak of war Persia declared her neutrality. In 1941 the Allies demanded a reduction in the number of Germans in the country, and when no satisfaction was obtained sent another communication demanding the expulsion of all German nationals, except such as were essential to Persian economy and harmless to the Allies. This demand was not complied with and on August 26th, 1941, Persia was invaded. Hostilities lasted some two days. On September 16th Reza Shah abdicated in favour of his son Muhammad Reza. In January 1942 a Tripartite Treaty of Alliance was concluded with Great Britain and the U.S.S.R. whereby Great Britain and the U.S.S.R. undertook jointly and severally “to respect the territorial integrity, sovereignty and political independence of Persia” and “to defend Persia by all means in their command from aggression” and the Persian Government undertook to give the Allies for certain military purposes the unrestricted right to use, maintain and guard, and in the case of

military necessity, to control, all means of communications in Persia. Allied forces were to be withdrawn not later than six months after the conclusion of hostilities between the Allied Powers and Germany and her associates. In so far as the establishment of communications with the U.S.S.R. was concerned the Treaty was effective; its operation in other respects was less satisfactory. In the Russian zone of occupation the Persian authorities were denied freedom of movement and effective administration made impossible. American advisers were appointed by the Persian Government in 1942 and 1943 in the hope of reorganising certain aspects of the administration. Their efforts were for a variety of reasons in no case attended by more than a limited measure of success and in due course their services were terminated.

In 1943 a British company applied for an oil concession in south-east Persia and in 1944 the Socony Vacuum and Sinclair Oil Companies made various proposals to the Persian Government. In September the Persian Cabinet issued a decree deferring the grant of oil concessions till after the war. The U.S.S.R. meanwhile asked for an oil concession in the north and brought heavy, though unavailing, pressure to bear on the Persian Government to accede to this demand. Persian security forces were prevented by Soviet forces from entering Azerbaijan or the Caspian Provinces and an autonomous government was set up in Azerbaijan with Russian support in December 1945. In January 1946 the Persian Government had recourse to the Security Council. In March the Tripartite Treaty expired and British and American forces evacuated Persia, Soviet forces remaining. The Persian Government again presented a note to the Security Council. In April an oral understanding, confirmed by an exchange of letters between the Persian Prime Minister and the Soviet Ambassador, was arrived at whereby a joint Soviet-Persian company to exploit the oil in the northern provinces was to be formed. In May Soviet forces evacuated the country. Soviet pressure, however, continued to be exerted through the Tudeh party, the Democrat movement in Azerbaijan, and the Kurdish autonomy movement, and the Persian Government was unable to re-enter Azerbaijan until December. In the following October, the Soviet Oil Agreement was presented to the National Assembly but was not ratified. In October 1947 an agreement was signed with America, providing for a U.S. military mission in Persia to co-operate with the Persian ministry of war in “enhancing the efficiency of the Persian army”.

NATIONALIZING THE OIL INDUSTRY

Meanwhile unrest and discontent at internal misgovernment increased, culminating in the Nationalist movement of 1950/51. In July 1949 a Supplemental Oil Agreement with the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company was initialled. Opposition to this agreement (whereby Persia was offered considerable financial gains) was strong. In November 1950 the oil commission of the National Assembly recommended its rejection. Meanwhile Persia had received a loan of \$25 m, from the Export & Import Bank of Washington and a grant of \$500,000 under the Point IV allocation. Subsequently in 1952 the Point IV aid programme was expanded. In April 1951 the National Assembly passed a Bill for the nationalization of the oil industry, and in May, Dr. Musaddiq, who had led the campaign for nationalisation of the oil industry, became Prime Minister. The Company and the British Government severally filed petitions with the International Court, the former asking the Court to declare Persia bound by the 1933 agreement to agree to accept the Company's request for arbitration and the latter asking the Court to nominate an arbitrator. The Persian Government declined to recognize the Court's jurisdiction. Eventually the British Government referred

the dispute to the Security Council, which decided on October 19th, 1951, to defer consideration of the Persian case pending a final pronouncement of the International Court. The *status quo* however, could not be maintained in Persia and the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company evacuated the country, being unable to continue operations.

On July 22nd, 1952, the International Court found that it had no jurisdiction in the oil dispute. This decision, however, was not a decision on the merits of the case. The Company accordingly maintained its claim to be entitled to all crude oil and oil products derived from the area covered by its concession agreement, and stated its intention to take such action as was necessary to protect its interests. American policy showed an increasing interest in Persian affairs. During the period August to October, 1952, considerable correspondence passed between the British, American and Persian Governments in the oil dispute, culminating in a joint offer by Sir Winston Churchill and President Truman making proposals concerning the assessment of the compensation to be paid to the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company and the re-starting of the flow of oil to world markets. The Persian Government rejected these proposals and put forward counter proposals which were unacceptable. On October 22nd the Persian Government broke off diplomatic relations with Great Britain. Further Anglo-American proposals for an oil settlement were put forward in February 1953, which the Persian Government rejected. Meanwhile dissension between Musaddiq and some of his supporters broke out, and a rift also developed between him and the Shah. The economic situation of the country began to deteriorate rapidly. Disorders became more frequent. At the end of February the Shah announced his decision to leave the country. The Tudeh party thereupon appealed for a united front against the court, but in response to demonstrations of loyalty the Shah abandoned his decision. In April it was announced that the dissension between Musaddiq and the Shah had been removed. Unrest nevertheless continued and opposition to Musaddiq in the *majlis* grew. The economic situation of the country continued to worsen. In June President Eisenhower announced that the U.S. would give Persia no further aid unless the oil dispute was settled or referred to an international body. In July there were several resignations from the *majlis* in protest against Musaddiq's conduct of affairs. Musaddiq meanwhile held a "referendum", claimed that this showed a majority in favour of the dissolution of the *majlis* and dissolved it forthwith. On August 16th there was an abortive attempt by the Imperial Guards to arrest Musaddiq. The Shah and the Queen fled the country. Three days later, General Zadeh, who had received an imperial firman appointing him Prime Minister a few days before the abortive coup, assumed control. Musaddiq and other members of his Government were arrested. The Shah returned and asked for immediate help to restore the economic stability of the country. In September an emergency grant of \$45 million was made by the U.S. and the continuation of military and technical assistance was promised. Musaddiq was tried and sentenced to three years solitary confinement for trying to overthrow the régime and illegally dissolving the *majlis*.

The new Government resumed diplomatic relations with Great Britain in December 1953, and negotiations with British and American oil interests began for the solution of the oil problem. In September 1954 an agreement was signed, and ratified by the *majlis* and senate in October, granting a concession to a consortium of eight companies (subsequently increased to seventeen) on a percentage basis.

It was also agreed that the claims of the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company and the Persian Government against each

other were to be settled by the payment of a lump sum to the Company, which was also to receive compensation from the other members of the consortium. The profits arising within Persia from the oil operations were to be equally shared between the Persian Government and the consortium. The agreement was for a period of twenty-five years with provision for three five-year extensions, conditional upon a progressive reduction of the original area. The National Iranian Oil Company was to operate the Naft-i Shah oilfield and the Kermanshah refinery to meet part of Persia's own needs and to handle the distribution of oil products in Persia and to be responsible for all facilities and services not directly part of the producing, refining, and transport operations of the two operating companies set up under the agreement. The greater part of the cost of these facilities and services, which would include industrial training, public transport, road maintenance, housing, medical care and social welfare would be recovered by the NIOC from the operating companies.

GROWING POWER OF THE SHAH

Internally order was restored. The Tudeh party was proscribed, but continued to exist underground, and in January and August 1954, Tudeh conspiracies were uncovered. The failure of the Government to push forward actively with reform, however, led in due course to a re-appearance of unrest and discontent. In April 1955 Zadeh resigned and was succeeded by Ala, the Shah henceforward taking a more active part in the administration. In October, Persia joined the Baghdad Pact. The change of Government, however, did not materially lessen the mounting discontent and in November an attempt was made on the Prime Minister's life. Meanwhile, the country had not recovered from the financial difficulties brought on by the Musaddiq régime, in spite of the considerable financial aid granted to Persia by the U.S. to enable the country to carry on until oil revenues began to come in. U.S. aid has continued during the years that oil revenues have been coming in, and over 800 million U.S. dollars were poured into Iran between the end of the Second World War and September 1960. On March 5th, 1959, a bilateral defence agreement was signed in Ankara between the United States and Iran. Under the agreement the government of the United States "will, in case of aggression, take such appropriate action, including the use of armed force, as may be mutually agreed, and as envisaged in the Joint Resolution to promote peace and security in the Middle East". (The Joint Resolution refers to the "Eisenhower Doctrine").

Relations with the U.S.S.R. in the years following the fall of Musaddiq were not cordial, but in December 1954 an agreement providing for (1) the repayment by the U.S.S.R. of her war debts to Persia for goods supplied and services rendered, and (2) mapping of the revised frontiers was signed. In 1956 the Shah made a state visit to the U.S.S.R. The joint Soviet-Iranian frontier demarcation commission, which began working in August 1955, completed its task in April 1957, when protocols were signed defining the frontiers in detail.

On April 3rd, 1957, Hussein Ala resigned and was succeeded as Prime Minister by Dr. Manoutchehr Eghbal, who formed a new Government. Immediately after taking office Dr. Eghbal issued a decree ending martial law and declared his intention of forming a democratic two-party system, in accordance with the desires of the Shah. In February 1958, the formation of a Government National Party was announced. An Opposition People's Party had been formed in 1957. Elections contested by both these political parties were held for the first time in August 1960, but after accusations that electoral irregularities had enabled the Government party to secure an overwhelming

majority the Shah declared the elections annulled, and the Prime Minister Dr. Egbal, resigned. A new cabinet was formed under the leadership of Jafar Sharif Emami, the former Minister of Mines and Industries. New elections were held in January 1961 but National Front supporters alleged that the elections had again been rigged. Dr. Emami was again elected Prime Minister, but it was generally agreed that the existing electoral law was unsatisfactory and the Shah, in his speech to the new *majlis*, stated that its first task must be the passing of a new electoral law.

In May 1961, however, Dr. Emami resigned as a result of criticism of his handling of a teachers' strike, and the Shah called upon Dr. Ali Amini, the leader of the opposition, to form a new government.

Dr. Amini quickly took stern measures to halt the political and economic chaos in Iran. A drive against corruption in the Government and civil service was coupled with policies of land reform, decentralization of administration, control of Government expenditure and limitation of luxury imports. Both Houses of Parliament were dissolved pending the passing of a new electoral law which would make free and fair elections possible. Postponement of elections, in July 1962, led to disorder in Teheran, and the added difficulty of producing a reasonably balanced budget led Dr. Amini to tender his resignation.

A new government was quickly formed by Mr. Assadollah Alam, the leader of the *Mardom* (People's) Party. Mr. Alam, one of Iran's largest landowners and administrator of the Pahlevi Foundation, had previously distributed much of his land voluntarily amongst the peasants. He stated that Iran would remain closely linked to the West, and that he would continue the land reform programme and the struggle against internal political corruption. A reform programme was approved by a national referendum held in January 1963. Presenting the new budget in April, Mr. Alam announced that elections restoring the country to a parliamentary government would be held in June or July 1963.

Iran suffered as the result of a serious earthquake in September 1962; about 10,000 people were killed and many more thousands injured over a large area of north-west Iran.

REFORMS OF THE SHAH

Since 1950 the Shah has been distributing his estate amongst the peasants. By the end of 1963 he had disposed of all his Crown Properties and in future he will receive only the sums allotted in the civil list. The Pahlevi Foundation was established in 1958 and has received considerable gifts from the Shah for the purpose of improving standards of education, health and social welfare amongst the poorer classes. In October 1961 the Shah created the £40 million Pahlevi Dynasty Trust, the income of which is being used for social, educational and health services for the Iranian people.

In January 1963 a referendum was held, as a result of which overwhelming approval was given to the Shah's six-point plan for the distribution of lands among the peasants, the promotion of literacy, the emancipation of women, etc. The break-up of great estates began almost immediately, and reached its third stage in the spring of 1966; another important measure was the formation of the Literacy Corps (and later of the Health Corps), in which students could serve their period of national service as teachers, working in the villages. This aspect of the Shah's reforms was widely publicized, and in September 1965 an international anti-illiteracy conference was held in Teheran, attended by a number of Ministers of Education. In May 1966 the Shah donated £250,000, or one day's defence expenditure, to the world campaign against illiteracy.

A court statement of March 14th, 1958, announced the

divorce of the Shah and Queen Soraya. The Shah and the Queen, who were childless, were married in 1951. The announcement said that the Shah had been unanimously advised by his Privy Councillors that the heir to the throne must be in direct descent from the Sovereign, in order to safeguard national interests. The Shah has a daughter by his previous marriage to Princess Fawzia of Egypt which was dissolved in 1948. In December 1959, the Shah married Farah Diba, an Iranian architectural student, and in October 1960 Riza Kurush, a son and heir, was born. A daughter, Princess Maasoumeh Farahnaz, was born in March 1963, and another son in May 1966.

Early in June 1963 there were riots by political and religious groups protesting against the land reforms and the emancipation of women. Martial law was imposed and the leaders of the riots were arrested, and a return to normal conditions was quickly effected. Some friction was caused with the United Arab Republic, which the Shah accused of fomenting the riots. The accusation was denied in Cairo.

The elections scheduled for July 1963 eventually took place in September of that year. The result was an overwhelming victory for the National Union of Mr. Alam; his party was in fact a coalition of several political groups, all pledged to support the reform programme of the Shah. The elections, in which for the first time women were allowed to vote, were held in the face of strenuous opposition from the left-wing parties of Iran, notably the National Front and the Communist Tudeh party, which called unsuccessfully for a boycott. The new Parliament—the first since both houses were dissolved by Dr. Amini in May 1961—was opened in October; in a speech from the throne, the Shah called on Parliament to inaugurate a new 20 year programme of economic and social reform and political development; he stressed the importance of drastic judicial and administrative reorganization, of educational expansion, and of a system of democratic local government. These reforms, said the Shah, were vital to the future existence of the nation. He announced a second phase of the land reform programme, whereby it was hoped that another 20,000 villages would be added to the 10,000 already handed over to the tenants. Queen Farah accompanied the Shah at the opening—the first Queen ever to do so. The Alam government continued until March 1964, when without tendering any reason, Mr. Alam resigned. The new leader was Hassan Ali Mansur, a former Minister and founder of the Progressive Centre, which had played a prominent part in the coalition of Mr. Alam the previous year. In December 1963 he had formed the New Iran Party, which by now had the support of some 150 members of the *majlis*. In his policy statement, Dr. Mansur said that the major objectives of his party would be the implementation of the Shah's reform programme, the protection and expansion of home industries, and the diversification of Iran's export trade, which hitherto had consisted of little more than oil. The second stage of the land reform plan was placed before the *majlis* in May; this aimed to break down the great estates more thoroughly; the maximum permissible size was to be from 120 hectares in arid regions to 30 hectares in more fertile areas. In spite of fears that the necessary credit would not be forthcoming, the programme was pressed forward by the knowledge that there was impatience among the peasantry and some lack of enthusiasm to undertake new works by landlords who were to be dispossessed.

REGIONAL CO-OPERATION

After preliminary talks by their Foreign Ministers in Ankara earlier in the month, the three Heads of State of Iran, Turkey, and Pakistan met on July 21st–22nd in

Istanbul and issued a statement which affirmed the need for increased regional co-operation between the three countries, and announced the formation of a new tripartite scheme of collaboration to be known as 'Regional Co-operation for Development'. The scheme provided for regular three-yearly meetings between the Foreign Ministers of the countries concerned with the possible addition at a later date of Afghanistan, there would be close collaboration in the economic and technical spheres, and many projects could be undertaken together in the fields of communications, agriculture, industry, education, health, tourism and regional development, cultural links, based on the common Islamic heritage of the three nations, would be strengthened, especially at University level. It was emphasised that although the scheme was to exist independently of the Central Treaty Organization, it was not intended to usurp its functions, a large area existed outside the province of CENTO in which collaboration on national projects was possible. The incentive for the project seemed to have come from President Ayub Khan of Pakistan, and was clearly generated by the impatience which had been shown, especially in Iran and Pakistan, with the slow progress of CENTO sponsored economic development projects. The addition of Afghanistan to the group would create an important new power bloc in the Middle East, with a total population of 150 million as against the 100 million of the Arab bloc.

On January 21st, 1965, Mr Mansur was the victim of an armed attack in Teheran, by a young man who fired four shots at him at point blank range, he died five days later in hospital. The assassin, Muhammad Bokharai, was arrested on the spot, together with two alleged accomplices. The three men, together with another who was said to have incited them to the crime, and nine others who were also implicated, were all members of the extreme right-wing religious sect Fedayan Islam, which was strongly opposed to the liberal policies of the Mansur government. There was no suggestion that the murder was other than an internal affair. The accused men were tried *in camera* by a military tribunal in Teheran and on 9th May the four principal accused were sentenced to death by firing squad. The others received varying terms of imprisonment.

Amir Abbas Hoveida, the Finance Minister, was immediately appointed Acting Premier and became Prime Minister on the day following Mr Mansur's death, retaining his post as the Finance Ministry. He pledged himself to the continuation of his predecessor's policies, and was given the massive support of the *majlis*. More active than some of his predecessors, he made a particular point of visiting the provinces in order to study their problems at first hand.

The Regional Co-operation for Development group continued to make progress and at a meeting in March recommendations were made for the immediate implementation of many of the projects suggested at the inaugural meeting. In July 1965 passports were abolished for travel by nationals between the three countries and plans were put in hand for the supply of oil from Iran to Turkey and Pakistan.

In April 1965 an attempt was made on the Shah's life. The trial of the six people accused of organizing the attempt attracted world wide publicity, two received a death sentence but these sentences were eventually reduced to life imprisonment. All six were apparently members of a militant Communist sect.

Several more trials followed, 55 men were accused of plotting armed insurrection and their leader was sentenced to death, thirteen former Tudeh leaders were sentenced to death *in absentia*, and in February 1966 Khalil Maleki, a former Tudeh leader who broke away to form a moderate

socialist group, was sentenced to three years' imprisonment in another public trial. In April 1966 the discovery of another Tudeh network was announced.

FOREIGN RELATIONS

The good relations between Iran and the Soviet Union have continued since 1964-65, when various mutually beneficial trading and technical agreements were signed, and a regular air service between Teheran and Moscow was inaugurated. It had been an avowed part of Mr Mansur's policy that Iran should be as much interested in maintaining links with the Soviet Union as with the West. In June 1965 the Shah visited Moscow, and in October an agreement was signed for the construction by Soviet engineers of a steel mill. Relations with other countries were mainly commercial, including the U.S.A., Federal Germany, Japan, Romania, Hungary and Czechoslovakia.

The Shah also took seriously his role as a mediator, remaining firmly neutral in the Pakistan-India dispute of September 1965 and discussing the Viet Nam situation with Averell Harriman in January 1966. Only with Iraq were relations strained during the winter, when the long standing disagreement over the Shatt al-Arab erupted into a series of border incidents, protest notes and popular demonstrations. By the spring of 1966 the situation had eased, discussions expected to start in April were postponed by the death of President Arif.

The policy of strengthening international relations continued throughout 1966 and 1967, with visits by the Shah to Yugoslavia and Morocco in June 1966, and Bulgaria, Hungary and Poland in September, and by the Prime Minister to Romania in November, these resulted in economic and cultural agreements. In April 1967 the King and Queen of Thailand paid a state visit to Iran, and in May the Turkish Prime Minister and King Hussein of Jordan both visited Teheran. At the end of May the Shah and the Queen paid a visit to West Germany, where in spite of elaborate precautions by the police, Iranian students succeeded in carrying out demonstrations of protest. This was followed by a visit to France, cut short because of the Middle East crisis. On May 31st the Government issued a statement of support for the claims of the Palestinian Arabs in accordance with the principles laid down by the United Nations.

A large number of countries from West and East Europe, Asia and America have participated in various aspects of Iran's economic development, most notable being plans for U.S.S.R. assistance in the exploitation of natural gas resources in the north. Iran is also to co-operate in the construction and operation of an oil refinery at the Sudanese port of Port Sudan.

The most publicized event of 1967 was the coronation of the Shah on October 26th, twenty-six years after his accession to the throne. An appropriate atmosphere had been built up by frequent stress in publicity inside and outside Iran on the claim that the Iranian monarchy was the oldest in the world, having been established 2,500 years ago. The long-delayed coronation was also hailed as the crowning glory of the "white revolution" inaugurated by the Shah in 1963. Immediately after placing the crown on his head the Shah crowned Queen Farah—the first woman to receive this honour in Iranian history—in an act symbolizing the emancipation of Iranian women. By an earlier act of a Constituent Assembly, meeting on September 7th, the Queen had been nominated as Regent in the event of the Shah being unable to carry out his duties before the Crown Prince's twentieth birthday.

The stability of Iran was emphasized, not only by economic development and expansion and by the organization of international gatherings ranging from the Regional Co-operation Organization for Development (in which Iran continued to be an active partner) to the International Congress of Iranian Art and Archaeology, but also by the formal ending on November 29th of United States economic aid under the "Point Four" scheme. Iran, which had been the first country to accept this aid in 1951, was now the second (after the Republic of China) to find herself able to dispense with it. Military aid, however, was to continue. At the same time economic co-operation with the U.S.S.R. was developed, and an agreement was made for the purchase of £40,000,000 of munitions, the first time the Soviet Union had concluded an arms transaction with a member of the Western bloc.

At the end of July 1967 President Ayub Khan of Pakistan and President Demirel of Turkey met the Shah at Ramsar for discussions on matters of common interest. In August King Hussein of Jordan arrived on a state visit, and a few days later the Shah and the Queen left for a ten-day's visit to the United States, Canada and France. Another visitor to Iran during the year was Prime Minister Kosygin of the U.S.S.R.

In August 1967 elections were held for the two houses of parliament, the Senate and the Majlis, as well as for the Constituent Assembly, as a result of which the ruling Iran Novin party strengthened its position.

IRAN 1968-1971

The domestic situation remained relatively tranquil during 1968-70 and early 1971, though several important events did occur: the Khurasan earthquake disaster in the late summer of 1968 and an alleged plot against the government organized in Iraq, uncovered in December 1970. This followed mounting opposition both within Iran and abroad, especially amongst students.

By contrast there were several significant developments affecting Iran's relations with its neighbours in the Gulf area. In January 1968 the British government announced its decision to withdraw all its forces from the Gulf by the end of 1971. Since these forces had apparently helped to preserve the local status quo, a revival of the ancient rivalry between Arabs and Persians over supremacy in the Gulf then seemed a likely prospect following their removal. The Iranian government's reiteration of its claim to Bahrain in February 1968 did not help relations with the Arab world, and the Shah's official visit to Saudi Arabia was abruptly cancelled later that month. However, the political climate in the Gulf improved as the year progressed, partly owing to Iran's reduction of emphasis on the Bahrain question and to its cautious welcome for the proposed Federation of Arab Emirates (which it was thought would incorporate Bahrain). In October the government signed an agreement with Saudi Arabia delineating the continental shelf between the two countries; this was hailed as a major step forward as the ownership of the shelf had become an important issue since the discovery of large offshore oil deposits in 1965. In November the Shah was able to make his state visit to Saudi Arabia, including the pilgrimage to Mecca and Medina, and the occasion was acclaimed as a significant move towards Muslim unity.

The Bahrain dispute was submitted to the United Nations early in 1970, and a special mission visited the island in the spring. As was generally expected, it found that the large Arab majority overwhelmingly preferred full independence to joining Iran or remaining a British protectorate. Iran had previously agreed to accept the mission's findings, and it did so without complaint, though expressing concern for the future of Iranians in the Gulf states. In June 1970 a dispute with other Gulf states also arose over islands in the Strait of Hormuz. Iran claims Abu Musa and the Tumbs (at present in the possession of Sharjah and Ras al Khaimah respectively) and has threatened force to regain them, if necessary, by the end of 1971. Iran's policy towards the proposed federation of the Gulf states will be governed by the success or failure of her claims.

Relations with the more radical Arab states have been less friendly. These states have long been suspicious of Iran's close ties with the West, and especially of the generous American military aid to the powerful Iranian armed forces. The Iranian attitude to Israel is now, for them, an even greater cause for concern. Though no formal diplomatic ties exist, Iran maintains normal trading links with Israel, of which oil supplies and landing rights for Israeli airlines are thought to be particularly important. Israeli expertise is playing an active part in Iran's development programme, and some reports have even hinted at a limited military co-operation. The National Iranian Oil Company is thought to be the principal user of Israel's oil pipeline running from Eilat to the Mediterranean, which opened early in 1970.

Iran's only frontier with an Arab state is with Iraq. Near the Gulf the border is delineated by the Shatt al Arab waterway, and, by the terms of the 1937 treaty, it actually runs along the eastern, i.e. Iranian bank; thus Iraq legally has sovereignty over the whole waterway. Iran has long resented this position and in April 1969 it decided to abrogate the treaty by sending Iranian vessels flying the national flag through the waterway, whilst heavy naval forces stood by. The aim was apparently to force a re-negotiation of the treaty, but there has been no sign of this as yet. Iraq's armed forces have other commitments and are in any case hardly strong enough to challenge Iran, whilst the domestic position of the regime is such that it dare not officially renounce sovereignty over any of its territory, even if, as in this case, the loss would have little strategic importance. In September 1969, there were further armed clashes on the border—reports differed as to the extent of the casualties. In January 1970, Iraq accused the Iranian government of backing the abortive coup in Iraq, and diplomatic relations between the two countries were broken. The situation both on the border and at governmental level remained tense throughout 1970. Two further causes of bad relations are the Iraqi expulsion of some 15,000 Iranian residents over this period, and the aid Iran was widely thought to be granting the Kurdish rebels in northern Iraq.

The close relations with the U.S.A. and Western Europe continued without serious interruption, as did the more recently established friendship with the Soviet Union (based upon the large scale supplies of Iranian gas) and some of the Eastern European countries.

L.P.E.-S.

ECONOMIC SURVEY

At the census of 1966 the population was returned at 23 780 000. The population increased to an estimated 26 935 000 in mid 1968. This is attributed to the great advances in public health in recent years in particular the virtual eradication of malaria and the control of opium consumption. The population growth has produced many problems and has largely contributed to the rapid growth of the urban population particularly in Teheran which has expanded from about 300 000 in 1939 to over 2 000 000 by 1970 but also in Tabriz Isfahan and Meshed. While it is true that nearly 75 per cent of the population still live in villages or are nomadic yet it is the urban section which is growing the most rapidly and which by the achievement of 65 per cent literacy compared with less than 15 per cent in the country is indicated as the most dynamic section.

AGRICULTURE

Agriculture whether arable or pastoral is the principal economic activity of the Iranian people. A large variety of crops are cultivated in the very diverse climatic regions of Iran. Most types of grain (including rice in the Caspian provinces) sugar beet fruit nuts and vegetables are grown. Silk production in the Caspian provinces has been historically significant. Opium used to be an important export crop but its cultivation was banned from 1956 until 1968. However since Iran's estimated 400 000 addicts continued to be supplied by illegal Turkish imports (the ban was lifted in the latter year and some opium is now exported for medicinal purposes). There has been a general tendency in the last forty years to shift the emphasis from subsistence farming to the production of cash crops.

The principal limiting factors on the size of production are poor communications limiting access to markets poor seed implements and techniques of cultivation e.g. burning manure as fuel natural disasters lack of water and under-capitalisation. Attempts have been made and are continuing to be made to remedy these problems. Rural roads are provided for in the new five-year plan agricultural research stations and colleges often with U.S. help have been established there are flood control and water conservation projects. Dams on the Dez River in Khuzestan Province at Safirud and Zayenderud permitted irrigation of many acres of former desert as well as the generation of electricity for the Persian Gulf ports. Perhaps the most obstinate problem of all however is the low *per capita* income of the peasant. The average annual income of each peasant is calculated at £60 which divided among his family gives a *per capita* income of less than £30. This situation is partly the result of the tenurial system. Improvements are taking place slowly consumption of fertilizers has increased and more agricultural machinery is being used.

There are between 45 000 and 50 000 villages in Iran. Of these about 10 000 belong to people owning five or more villages. This has led to a position in which a share cropping peasant cultivates the land on behalf of an absentee landlord. Various attempts at reform aimed at increasing the peasant's share of the crop limiting land holdings and eliminating absenteeism have all failed because of the dominance of the landlord element in the Majlis. In 1962 Dr Amiri taking advantage of the absence of a Majlis promulgated a new land reform law limiting landholdings to one village. All land above this was to be sold to the peasants. It was recognised that many peasants would lack the knowledge and capital to work their own land in

dependently so the project was accompanied by a drive to organise the peasants into co-operatives through which state land might be channelled. It is proposed to sell state-owned factories to finance the establishment of these co-operatives. The first phase involving about 20 per cent of all villages was almost complete by mid 1964. In some areas peasants had anticipated the introduction of land reform. There was also considerable opposition from the old landowning class. In the province of Fars the official responsible for land reform was murdered but the Shah appeared to be determined to press on with a measure which if carried through, will imply not only an economic but a political and social revolution in Iran. In January 1963 he called a successful Peasants Congress in Teheran and declared the abolition of the offensive term *ra'ayat* from official correspondence.

The second phase of reform was launched in May 1964. This was a much more ambitious matter involving the redistribution of all land in excess of a maximum varying according to soil fertility between 120 and 300 hectares (hectare—2.5 acres approx.). Especially in the fertile rice-growing areas of the Caspian this will involve very considerable changes. The effect of the programme is somewhat cushioned by escape clauses which allow land lords for a transitional period to keep up to 500 hectares of mechanised land and an unlimited further amount of land if it can be shown that this is virgin land which the farmer has himself brought under mechanisation. These measures have the double advantage of softening the blow for the richer landlords and encouraging the continued use of mechanised farming with hired labour. The government will also pay to the landlord one third of the price of any land sold to a peasant in cash which shall be repaid by the peasant over 14 months and there are further financial inducements to landlords designed to speed the process of changeover. Landlords have three choices with regard to excess lands: to sell to their peasants at a mutually agreed price to lease the land for a thirty year period or to divide up the land according to local ratios of crop-sharing between themselves and their peasants. Fears were expressed that credit facilities would not be available to cover the heavy load on the system imposed by the extended programme particularly since the government must provide the initial capital and resources for the new owners but the reforms were pushed forward at least in part by the momentum of the original law and its attendant publicity. By 1966 the reform had succeeded in breaking up nearly all the large and middle-sized estates benefiting some four million farming families. Early in 1971 it was announced that the land reform programme itself had been completed and that legislation integral to it would be withdrawn. Subsequently emphasis is to be placed on increasing the participation of the peasant population in farming activities. Thanks to the land reform the introduction of machinery the use of fertilizers and fortuitous weather conditions the size of crops has increased considerably in recent years. The wheat crop reached 4.4 million tons and barley 1.2 million tons in 1968-69. In 1966-67 wheat was exported for the first time for many years. The growth of the rice crop from under 600 000 tons in earlier years to 975 000 tons in 1968-69 resulted from improved irrigation. Sugar beet cotton and tea all showed similar increases.

The principal products of the nomad sector of Iranian agriculture are livestock products—dairy produce wool hair and hides. Production is limited by the prevalence of animal pests and the apparently inevitable lower pro-

ductivity of pastoral as compared with domestic stock breeding. There have been attempts by the Government and the Plan Organisation to improve breeds and to eliminate pests and diseases and attempts to settle the nomads which have been pursued vigorously since the time of Reza Shah (1923-41) are gradually achieving success.

There are large forests in Iran, covering nearly 50 million acres owned chiefly by the State and managed by the Forestry Commission. Forest land was nationalized in 1963. There has been much help from experts in forest management from the United States in planning the proper exploitation of these forests.

Finally, there is in Iran a large fishing industry both in the Caspian, where the average annual production is 3,250 metric tons of fish a year including over 200 metric tons of caviar, and in the Persian Gulf where production is estimated at 14,000 metric tons per annum. The Caspian fisheries, which used to be run by a joint Russo-Iranian company, are now managed by an all-Iranian company under the aegis of the newly-formed Ministry of Natural Resources.

THE OIL INDUSTRY

The major industry of Iran is the oil industry to which the second largest town of Abadan owes its entire existence. The history of commercial exploitation dates back to 1901, when W. K. D'Arcy was granted a sixty-year monopoly of the right to explore for and exploit oil in Iran, with the exception of the five northern provinces which fell within the sphere of Russian influence. Oil was eventually discovered in commercial quantities at Masjid-i-Sulaiman in 1908 and in 1909 was formed the Anglo-Persian Oil Company, renamed Anglo-Iranian in 1935 and British Petroleum in 1954. A long series of disputes between the Iranian Government and Anglo-Iranian ended with the nationalisation of the oil industry by Iran in 1951 and the replacement of Anglo-Iranian by what is generally known as the Consortium. The Consortium is an amalgam of interests (British Petroleum 40 per cent; American interests 40 per cent; Royal Dutch Shell 14 per cent; Compagnie Française des Pétroles 6 per cent) formed to produce oil in the area of the old Anglo-Iranian concession as redefined in 1933. The Consortium's concession lasts until 1979 with the possibility of a series of extensions under modified conditions for a further fifteen years. Ownership of oil deposits throughout Iran and the right to exploit them or to make arrangements for their exploitation outside the area of the Consortium's concession, is vested in the National Iranian Oil Company, an Iranian State enterprise.

Under the agreement with the Consortium of October 1954 Iran is entitled to receive in payment 12.5 per cent of the oil produced or the same proportion of the value of all crude oil exported, valued at the official posted price. In addition Iran derives revenue from oil through her taxation on the profits of the operating and trading companies organised by the Consortium. Her income from these two sources in 1959 amounted to £94 million, and rose to £185 million in 1966 and by a 28 per cent increase in 1967 to £265.6 million (partly due to Iranian oil replacing Arab supplies during the Arab boycott of some Western states after the Palestine War). This excludes the sum due to the government as a result of the OPEC settlement finally made in December 1964. According to the agreement which Iran accepted, royalties (12.5 per cent of the posted price) will be treated in future as an expense for tax purposes. In return the government has agreed for tax calculations to discounts off the posted prices, bringing them nearer realised prices; the discounts vary from 8.5 per cent in the first

year to 6.5 per cent in the third year. Early in 1968 OPEC's claim for the progressive elimination of these discounts was accepted, with effect from 1968. Consortium payments amounted to £338 million in 1968 and £379 million (\$908 million) in 1969, i.e. over \$90 million less than the \$1,000 million target sought by the government. In 1970, however, Consortium payments showed a very substantial increase, to £443 million. A further source of foreign exchange derived from the Consortium's operations is the purchase of rials by the company to finance spending in Iran.

The revenues derived from the Consortium form by far the greatest part of the profits derived by Iran from her oil, though recently revenues from oil operations by other companies have been increasing (\$17 million in 1968). The operations of the National Iranian Oil Company are on a much smaller scale. Under the terms of the oil law of July 1957 the NIOC has power either to exploit oil itself or to make agreements with other foreign companies for joint exploitation.

Through its subsidiary the Iran Oil Company, the NIOC has developed two oil fields, at Naft-i-Shah near the Iraqi frontier and at Alborz, near Qum, about eighty-five miles south of Teheran, a new field opened in 1961 which appears to have great promise. But the work of independent exploitation has been held back by technical difficulties and by shortage of money.

The NIOC has also made agreements with a number of foreign companies. In August 1957 an agreement was made with the Italian firm Agip Mineraria (ENI) to form a joint company known as the Société Irano-Italienne des Pétroles (SIRIP). This company was granted a concession along part of the Northern Continental Shelf of the Persian Gulf, on the Eastern slopes of the Central Zagros and on the Mekran coast. In 1961 oil was produced from a discovery made at Bahregan Sar by the company in the Persian Gulf. Another field was discovered offshore at Nowruz, which is expected to begin production in 1971. In April 1958 another agreement was made with Pan American International (Standard of Indiana) to form a company called IPAC, which was given another offshore concession in the Persian Gulf. This company so far has two fields, Darius, about three miles south-west of Kharg Island, and Cyrus from which production started in 1964. In 1970, production from the IPAC wells totalled some 33.8 million barrels, most of which came from the Darius field. IPAC has another offshore field called Fereidoon which is thought to have a high production potential. Thirdly, an agreement was made in June 1958 with Sapphire Petroleum Ltd., of Canada, with a concession in Persian Baluchistan and an offshore concession in the Gulf of Oman off the Mekran coast. Concessions were granted in 1965 in new offshore areas in the Persian Gulf. Successful companies or groups of companies were: (1) Shell (with NIOC formed Dashtestan Offshore Petroleum Co.—DOPCO); (2) BRP and ERAP (with NIOC formed Farsi Petroleum Co.); (3) Tidewater (with NIOC formed Iranian Offshore Petroleum Co.—IROPPO); (4) A West German group, which formed the Persian Gulf Petroleum Co. with NIOC. These four companies carried out exploration programmes for five years and having failed to find oil surrendered their concessions.

Two other companies were awarded concessions in 1965, and subsequently found oil. They are Lavan Petroleum Co. (LAPCO, formed by Atlantic Sun, Union and Murphy with NIOC) and Iranian Marine International Co. (IMINOCO formed by Phillips, AGIP, Hydrocarbon India with NIOC). LAPCO has found an oilfield, called Sassan, where production began in 1968 at a rate of 50,000 barrels per day and rose to over 100,000 barrels per day, while the facilities will permit expansion to 200,000. IMINOCO has

found oil and gas production of oil began from its Rostam field in 1969 and although it failed to reach its intended production of 100 000 barrels per day in 1970 the company's total output was nevertheless some 20 million barrels. Another oilfield has been found by IMINOCO at Rakheh 17 miles north-east of Rostam it will be linked with Rostam for production purposes.

With expansion plans already announced production by NIOC and its various partners is expected to amount to some 10 per cent of total Iranian production in the near future.

The agreements made by the NIOC are governed by the oil law of July 1957. The main features of those made to date are 50/50 ownership and division of development costs with limited concessionary periods and provision for the expenditure of specified sums on exploration. Profits are divided equally but in effect 75 per cent—and in some cases substantially more—goes to Iran since the foreign companies share bears Iranian company taxation at 50 per cent. Difficulties have arisen in the relations of NIOC with foreign companies. Firstly it is provided in the agreements that the NIOC should pay its share of development costs after any field is declared to be commercial i.e. its yield could give a net profit equal to 25 per cent of the posted price. The NIOC cannot pay this in the case of Bahregan Sar now declared commercial and may have to assign its share of the profits instead. Secondly there are difficulties over pricing. It is in the interests of the foreign companies to have the lowest price fixed for oil but this is not the case with NIOC. On February 14th 1971 negotiations between international oil companies and oil producing countries whose interests were represented by Iran led to a five-year agreement under which the prevailing oil price system and tax structures were revised and allowances awarded to the producers in respect of freight rates and world cost price inflation. Additional revenue accruing to Iran as a result of this new arrangement is expected to be substantial.

Despite these developments oil production is still dominated by the Consortium which is responsible for over 90 per cent of all Iran's oil production is concentrated in the south west. The largest field is Gachsaran where production in 1970 averaged some 842 000 barrels per day. The second largest field is Agha Jari with production averaging 819 000 barrels per day. Since 1960 a number of new fields have been brought into production including Ahwaz (1960) and Paranan (1963). Kharg, Karanj and Bibi Hakeme (1964). Marun (1965). Hakme (1964). Binak (1967) and Parsiash (1970). Production by the Consortium in 1970 was some 3.5 million barrels per day—13.3 per cent more than in 1969. Including all companies operating in Iran 1970 production totalled 3.8 million barrels per day 14 per cent more than in 1969. This total was sufficient to make Iran the third largest oil producer in the world after the United States and Russia and first among Middle East producers ahead of Saudi Arabia and Libya.

In December 1966 the Consortium and the government signed an agreement under which the Consortium surrendered one-quarter of its 100 000 square mile concession area. The area may now be granted to other companies or operated by NIOC. The area comprises three separate relinquishments one block west of Hermanshah, a second block including Shiraz and running south west to the coast and the third block at the end of the original concession. In addition the Consortium agreed to let NIOC have 20 million tons of crude oil on favourable terms between 1969 and 1971 to sell to Eastern Europe. To date barter deals have been concluded with Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Romania and Yugoslavia. NIOC is also under contract to supply some of its crude to Spanish

refineries to the Madras refinery (in which it has a 13 per cent holding) and the Sasolburg refinery in South Africa (in which it has a 17 per cent holding). A similar arrangement concluded early in 1970 will bring NIOC crude to refineries in Pakistan.

In 1966 NIOC signed an important contract with l'Entreprise de Recherches et d'Activités Pétrolières (ERAP) the French state oil group ERAP will act as a contractor for NIOC paying for all exploration costs until oil is found it will be entitled to purchase at a cost plus price about 20 per cent of any oil found. ERAP will also lend NIOC funds for development and market initially NIOC crude on a commission basis. The proceeds will be used to buy French goods and services. In 1968 ERAP's subsidiary EII Iran found oil offshore near Surri Island. Continental Oil Co signed a similar contract with NIOC in 1969. Continental will explore a 5 000 square mile area north of Bandar Abbas an area relinquished by the Consortium in 1967. Another part of this area was allocated to a group comprising ERAP, ENI, Hispanoil, Petrofina and the Austrian company OMV.

One large refinery is operated at Abadan by the Consortium. Crude capacity is 412 000 barrels per day but refinery runs averaged only 370 000 barrels per day in 1964 and 1965 but by 1969 they rose to 409 000 barrels per day and in 1970 422 000 barrels per day. The refinery has suffered from the competition of more modern refineries in the consuming countries and from limitations on the size of tankers which can approach the refinery up the Shatt al Arab (25 000 tons maximum). Even so only 60 000 barrels per day is for domestic consumption and the remainder for export. A 4.25 million ton per annum refinery was completed for NIOC at Teheran early in 1968. NIOC is planning a 2 million ton per annum refinery at Shiraz which should be ready by 1972 and a refinery at Tabriz is being considered.

All exported Iranian oil at present goes via the Persian Gulf though plans for a pipeline running through Turkey to the Mediterranean were announced in 1969. Since 1966 Bandar Mashur has been used as a product terminal (previously for crude from Agha Jari) and all crude exported from newly-constructed facilities at Kharg Island. A 42 inch 105 mile pipeline (capacity 1 000 000 barrels per day) brings crude oil from Agha Jari, Pazaran and Karanj to Ganaveh on the coast. A 26/30-inch pipeline brings crude oil from Gachsaran, Bibi Hakimeh to Ganaveh. Another 42 inch pipeline will soon link Marun directly to the terminal. A 26-mile long submarine pipeline joins Ganaveh to the Kharg Island terminal (combined capacity two million barrels per day). The increased consumption of oil within Iran (demand has increased at the rate of about 20 per cent per annum in recent years) has made the question of internal distribution one of increased importance. The 10 inch 600 mile Trans-Iranian line from Abadan to Teheran with a capacity of 44 000 barrels a day was completed in 1961 and a later series of branch lines to Meshed a distance of over 600 miles and to Resht (170 miles). A 470 mile 16/20-inch pipeline initially took black oils from Ahwaz to Teheran but with the completion of NIOC's refinery at Teheran the pipeline now carries crude to the refinery instead.

Iran has also benefited considerably from the increased exploitation of natural gas. Total gas reserves so far discovered are estimated at well over 200 000 billion cubic feet including a recent discovery in the Sarakhs. The Abadan refinery is now largely operated by natural gas brought from the Marun field. In 1955 large reserves of natural gas were discovered at Sarajah (about 25 miles south-east of Alborz) and a 20 inch gas line is being constructed to take it 100 miles to Teheran. This should enable gas to replace fuel oil in the Teheran area and

incidentally to save the NIOC from losses incurred through the obligation to sell oil in Teheran at fixed prices. Iran concluded an important deal with the U.S.S.R. in 1966 under which it supplies natural gas to Russia for 15 years beginning in 1970 at a rate of 6,000 million cubic metres, rising to 10,000 million cubic metres in 1976 and subsequent years (since increased to 20,000 million cubic metres annually). A 750-mile pipeline has been built partly by the Russians and partly by the Iranians; it will also serve Iranian towns adjacent to its route. The Russians have also expressed interest in exploring for and helping to produce Iranian oil.

A number of petrochemical projects have come into operation. NIOC's subsidiary, National Petrochemical Co. of Iran in partnership with the B. F. Goodrich Co. of the U.S. has a \$26 million complex at Abadan which produces plastics, detergents and caustic soda. Gas and liquid feedstocks will come from the nearby refinery. In partnership with Amoco International, a Pan American subsidiary, the National Petrochemical Co., has built a sulphur plant and l.p.g. plant on Kharg Island, which uses sour gas from the Darius/Kharg fields. In a third partnership, with Allied Chemical Corp. of the U.S., the Iranian company has constructed a complex at Bandar Mashur to produce sulphur and ammonia (for urea and fertilizers) from Masjid-i-Sulaiman natural gas.

OTHER MINERALS

The mineral resources of Iran have not been surveyed completely. Lead-zinc is mined at Bafq near Yazd, at Khomein, west of Isfahan and at Ravanj near Qum, with a combined potential of 600 tons of concentrates daily, though current plans for development are limited to Bafq. Chrome from the Elburz mountains and near Bandar Abbas, red oxide from Hormuz in the Persian Gulf and turquoise from Nishapur are all produced for export. Coal and iron ore are produced for domestic consumption, the former from deposits near Teheran and in Eastern Mazandaran (total production was 300,000 tons) and the latter from deposits in the Elburz, in Yazd, Kerman and at Isfahan. Sulphur and salt are produced on the coast of the Gulf, near Bandar Abbas. Deposits of copper ore have been found in Azerbaijan, Kerman and in the Yazd and Anarak areas. About 10,000 tons of copper ore is mined annually in Azerbaijan; it is planned to treble production in the next few years. A very important deposit of copper has been found at Sar Chesmeh near Kerman, where reserves are estimated at some 300 million tons. Early in 1971, investment studies were authorized for a \$350 million exploitation programme which would aim to support a production rate of some 10,000 to 14,000 tons of blister a year by 1974. A small copper deposit has also been discovered at Mazraeh Ahar, northeast of Tabriz; development is scheduled to start in 1973. Prospecting for copper is continuing in several areas, particularly around Kerman. Some authorities are so optimistic about the prospects for copper mining that they claim revenues for copper could equal those from oil by 1980. All mining activities are regulated by the Ministry of Industries and Mines and provision has been made in economic planning for the further development of Iran's mineral resources.

OTHER INDUSTRIES

The output of manufacturing and mining (other than oil) doubled between 1959-60 and 1966-67 representing a compound rate of growth of 10 per cent annually, largely as a result of substantial investment during the Third Plan. The largest cotton-producing area is Isfahan and this is the centre of cotton textile production, followed by Shahi in Mazandaran and Behshahr in Gurgan. Isfahan is also the

centre of woollen production, drawing supplies from the nomad producers of the area. Tabriz, in Azerbaijan, is also a big woollen centre. Jute and silk are also produced in Mazandaran. The famous carpet industry is still entirely a handicraft industry: in 1970, some 1.8 million square metres of carpets, worth some \$60 million, were exported. Food processing includes sugar refining, flour milling, canning, and industrial alcohol. The building industry has also expanded considerably in recent years and further growth is likely to keep up with local needs. Cement production has grown tenfold to around 1,500,000 tons over ten years.

Industry concentrated initially on transforming local or imported raw materials into goods for the home market. These industries can be divided into three groups: textiles, food processing and construction materials. Despite the declared policy of spreading industrial development widely throughout the country by exploiting local sources of raw materials, only recently have new industrial centres been created in the provinces. Of 4,430 factories in Iran in 1960 nearly half were in Teheran. Iranian industrial development is still characterized by small-scale units of production. Only twenty-nine Iranian factories employed more than 500 people in 1960. Nonetheless, industrial development has played a big role in developing Iranian agriculture, forcing up wages by offering alternative employment

Another industrial sector comprises assembly plants for electrical goods, cars and buses. Until recently, parts were imported but nowadays these are also manufactured in Iran. Among other industries are those which manufacture basic chemicals both from local and imported raw materials. Under a \$286 million credit agreement made with the Soviet Union, a steel mill has recently been commissioned in Isfahan: its initial capacity is some 600,000 tons, but plans for its eventual expansion to 1.2 million tons have been proposed. A heavy-equipment plant may be added to the complex. An aluminium plant (capacity 50,000 tons per year) is being built at Arak. Partners in the project are the Iranian and Pakistani governments and Reynolds Metals. A rolling mill (capacity 360,000 tons) built at Ahwaz with American private capital experienced initial troubles and has so failed to deliver pipes for the Soviet pipeline, as originally intended. Tractor, machine tool, diesel engine and paper plants are also planned. Most recent plans include investment in steel sheeting, iron bars, glass and cement.

EXTERNAL TRADE

Iran's principal imports are vehicles, iron and steel (both crude and manufactured), machinery, and electrical goods. Imports of sugar and wheat have declined steadily, except in 1970: in fact wheat is now exported. Her principal exports are oil, raw cotton, fruit and carpets. The export trade is dominated by oil. Provisional trade figures for 1969-70 show Iranian exports, oil included, totalling some \$2,100 million compared with imports in the same period of some \$1,500 million.

There have been a number of important developments in Iran's external communications recently. Under the auspices of CENTO, railway lines are planned, or are under construction, to link the Iranian system to the European system by building a line from Sharafkhaneh in West Iran to Muş in East Turkey and to the South Asian system by building a line from Yazd to Zahedan. The link with Turkey was completed in 1970, and will be followed by the extension to join the Pakistani network. In addition two roads are under construction to link Iran with Pakistan, one from Kerman to Quetta and the second from Bandar Abbas to Karachi via Mekran, to be part of the Asian Highway. The agreement with the

U.S.S.R. in December 1962 to re-open the old land route through Russia for Iran's trade with Europe will also have important consequences, shortening the distance by 3,000 miles. In November 1963 the U.S.S.R. agreed to give a 25 per cent tariff discount on Iranian goods in transit to Europe. This prompted a new transit agreement with Turkey in February 1964, cutting transit rates and times and extending the privileges of both Iranian and Turkish transportation companies on Irano-Turkish routes.

High import duties have been imposed on many consumer goods to protect local industry and save foreign exchange. One result has been a massive growth in smuggling in recent years, since Iran's borders are far too extensive to police effectively.

FOURTH DEVELOPMENT PLAN

The Fourth Plan The fourth plan (March 1968–March 1973) envisages a growth rate of 9 per cent annually which, if achieved, will raise gross national product per head to over \$300 per annum, roughly the level in Turkey and above that of all other Middle East countries except Kuwait, Israel and Lebanon. The main thrust for this growth has come from oil and industry, against the background of political stability. In addition, Iran has benefited from a number of years of excellent harvests and now has adequate reserves of foreign exchange and considerable economic slack. Indeed the economic outlook is sufficiently good that U.S. economic assistance has not been necessary since 1967–68.

Total investment over five years is planned to reach 810 billion rials (approximately \$11 billion) of which 443 billion will be by the government (oil revenues and foreign loans) and 367 billion by private investors. The industrial

sector has been allocated 26 per cent of the total investment and agriculture and irrigation will receive 23.5 per cent. Irrigation and the development of corporate farming are given the highest priority in the fourth plan as a means of raising the productivity of Iran's arable land. Heavy investments are being made for the development of power, water, transport and communications and of the total investment roads, ports and airports will receive about 16.7 per cent. It is feared that import requirements may have been underestimated and that the supply of labour, and particularly skilled labour, may become a problem. In addition, the foreign oil companies claim that the estimates of oil revenues which are based on an annual increase of 20 per cent in oil production, are over-optimistic. The need for extra finance for the development programme led to an exceptionally tough round of bargaining with the oil Consortium in May 1969. The Iranian government produced several arguments designed to show why Iran should be granted a larger than proportionate increase in oil production for the current year, presumably at the expense of the Arab states. The Consortium, conscious of its member companies' vulnerable interests in these states, at first refused to meet the government's demand for \$1,000 million (£417 million) in oil revenues, however, it finally agreed to make an advance against future revenue to cover any shortfall between actual oil revenues and the \$1,000 million target. The actual shortfall was \$90 million. Similar arguments were again put forward by the government in 1970 in support of a claim for \$1,155 million from oil revenues from the Consortium. It is thought that agreement was reached once more on a combination of oil revenues and an advance. A £25 million credit was granted in 1970 by a group of British banks, carrying interest at 5½ per cent to enable Iranian industries to buy British goods.

C.L.R.

STATISTICAL SURVEY*

AREA AND POPULATION

(1969)

TOTAL AREA	POPULATION
627,000 sq. miles	28,386,000

CHIEF TOWNS

POPULATION (1967)

Teheran (capital)	2,719,730	Shiraz	269,278	Rezaieh	110,749
Isfahan	424,045	Ahwaz	206,375	Kerman	85,404
Meshed	409,616	Kermanshah	187,930	Khoramabad	59,578
Tabriz	403,413	Rasht	143,557	Sanandaj	54,578
Abadan	270,726	Hamadan	124,167	Shareh Kord	23,757

FACTORY EMPLOYMENT (1969)

	EMPLOYEES	FACTORIES
Food Manufactures	122,207	21,866
Tobacco	3,933	3
Weaving	182,431	28,220
Wood Manufactures	107,510	48,036
Paper and Board	2,772	281
Printing and Publishing	6,522	1,220
Leather	5,827	1,344
Rubber	8,291	6,061
Chemicals	9,759	685
Non-Metals	38,891	4,472
Petroleum	640	7
Basic Metal Industries	6,415	1,584
Metal Manufactures	58,566	19,387
Cars, Machinery, Radio	16,184	3,853
Transport Equipment	34,311	10,004
Misc. Manufacturing	16,501	5,683
Electric Power	8,059	485
Railways	29,600	—

LIVESTOCK (‘000)

	1967-68	1968-69
Sheep	30,407	31,130
Goats	13,329	13,388
Cows	4,946	4,971
Buffaloes	256	260

Fishing: Persian Gulf 14,000 tons, Caspian Sea 3,250 tons (inc. 2,000 tons of sturgeon and over 200 tons of caviar)—annually.

MINING (‘000 metric tons)

	1964-65	1966-67	1968-69
Iron Ore	1.8	1.8	2.2
Copper Ore	8.8	8.9	14.3
Lead	62.2	64.9	85.5
Zinc	47.7	47.7	36.2
Chromite	98.0	101.0	149.9
Barite	43.0	43.0	88.5
Coal	274.0	248.0	300.0
Ferrous Oxide	7.2	9.1	9.9
Silica	17.5	19.0	29.7

AGRICULTURE PRODUCTION (‘000 metric tons)

	1967-68	1968-69
Wheat	3,853	3,861
Milled Rice	1,083	1,170
Barley	582	962
Sugar Beet	2,830	3,412
Cotton	378	545
Tea	16	20
Tobacco	23	19

Pulses, Sesame, Cotton and Flax are also grown.

OIL CRUDE OIL PRODUCTION (‘000 long tons)

	TOTAL	EXPORT
1965	88,473	68,311
1966	103,563	79,000
1967	120,900	99,500
1968	127,325	105,329
1969	165,694	139,942

*The Iranian year begins in March.

IRAN—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

INDUSTRY

	UNIT	1968-69
Cotton Ginning . . .	metric tons	152,000
Rice Cleaning . . .	"	700 000
Sugar (refined)	"	415 000
Edible Oils (refined)	"	149 000
Non-Alcoholic Beverages	million litres	55 4
Cigarettes	million	11,000
Tobacco	metric tons	3,000
Cotton Piece-Goods	'000 metres	600 000
Ice	"	1,200
Cement	"	2 420
Glassware	"	19 125

FINANCE

1 rial = 100 dinars
 181 rials = £1 sterling, 76 rials = U.S. \$1
 1,000 rials = £5 53 sterling = US \$13 07

BUDGET 1968 (million rials)

REVENUE		EXPENDITURE	
Direct Taxes	2,950	General Services	22,548
Indirect Taxes	35,368	Defence and Security	37,703
Monopolies, Government Undertakings	73,684	Social Services	42,283
Government Service Revenues	5 917	Economic Services	72 976
Loans, Aids	60,143	Debt Repayments	14,356
Profit-making Enterprises	42 852	Profit-making Enterprises	42,852
Commercial Agencies	109,150	Commercial Agencies	109,150
Social Welfare Institutions	6 872	Social Welfare Institutions	6 872
TOTAL	273,189	TOTAL	273,189

1968-69: Total Budget (including Development expenditure) 262,800 million rials.

OIL REVENUES

Total Revenues paid to the state by the Iranian Oil Operating Companies Consortium, in U.S. \$ million* (1966) 381 0,
 (1967) 710 1, (1968) 803 9, (1969) 905 5.

FOURTH DEVELOPMENT PLAN

(March 1968-March 1973)
 (billion rials)

	GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT		GROWTH (per cent)	INVESTMENT
	1967-68	1972-73		
Agriculture	113 6	145 0	27.6	66.1
Mining and Manufacturing	70.5	129 9	84.3	211 8
Petroleum and Gas	112.0	188 7	68.5	85.0
Water and Electricity	5 7	11.4	100.0	100 9
Construction	30 6	58 9	92 5	} 346.6
Other Sectors	205 6	303 3	47.5	
TOTAL	538 0	837 2	55 7	810 4

IRAN—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

GROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT (constant 1959 prices; billion rials)

KIND OF ACTIVITY	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69	1969-70
Agriculture	99	103	111	120	122
Industry and Mining	49	57	66	75	83
Oil	94	109	127	147	166
Construction	20	21	25	26	26
Electricity and Water	6	8	10	12	14
Transport and Communication	26	27	28	29	40
Commerce, Banking and Insurance	41	45	51	58	63
Rent	24	25	27	29	31
Private Services	41	45	49	55	61
Public Services	18	20	21	25	30
Discrepancies	9	1	-3	-12	-7
GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT (factor cost)	427	461	512	564	629
Net Indirect Tax	26	31	35	42	44
Net Factor Income from Abroad	-43	-45	-52	-65	-74
GROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT	410	447	495	541	599

BALANCE OF PAYMENTS (\$U.S. million)

	1968-69			1969-70		
	Credit	Debit	Balance	Credit	Debit	Balance
<i>Goods, Services, and Transfer Payments:</i>						
Merchandise	1,935.5	1,516.3	419.2	2,144.4	1,735.0	409.4
Transport, freight and insurance	15.6	12.9	2.7	14.2	17.4	- 3.2
Travel	42.2	68.7	- 26.5	38.0	70.8	- 32.8
Investment income	8.4	687.5	-679.1	10.4	785.1	-774.7
Government, n.e.s.	35.8	127.5	91.7	53.3	137.4	- 84.1
Other services	63.4	85.5	- 22.1	79.2	133.8	- 54.6
Private transfer payments	5.0	0.5	4.5	1.0	1.0	—
Government transfer payments	6.0	1.0	5.0	5.0	1.0	4.0
TOTAL AND CURRENT BALANCE	2,111.9	2,499.9	-388.0	2,345.5	2,881.5	-536.0
<i>Capital and Monetary Gold:</i>						
Private investment	75.9	13.1	62.8	114.4	12.3	102.1
Central government loans and aid	474.9	103.2	371.7	529.1	136.6	392.5
Private monetary transactions	—	8.3	- 8.3	15.5	—	15.5
Government monetary transactions (with IMF and other central institutions)	103.2	4.8	98.4	134.3	37.0	97.3
TOTAL AND CAPITAL BALANCE	2,765.9	2,629.3	136.6	3,138.8	3,067.4	71.4
Net Errors and Omissions	—	136.6	-136.6	—	71.4	- 71.4

EXTERNAL TRADE IMPORTS AND EXPORTS (million rials)

	1967-68	1968-69	1969-70
Imports	90,451	106,724	115,567
Exports (excluding oil)	13,633	16,268	18,533
Oil Exports	133,455	135,509	149,079

IRAN—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

OIL EXPORTS (000 long tons)

	1966	1967	1968	1969
Crude Oil	79 000	99 500	99 460	139 942
Crude Oil Delivered to Refinery for subsequent Export in Other Forms	13 900	14 200	14 400	16 108

COMMODITIES (million rials)

	1967-68	1968-69	1969-70
Iron and Steel	17 032	18 994	20 689
Motor Vehicles and Parts	8 687	10 171	10 537
Electrical Machinery and Apparatus	6 297	8 263	11 510
Boilers and other Machinery	21 735	24 687	27 163
Chemicals and Pharmaceuticals	7 175	8 682	8 662
Textiles	4 224	5 135	7 552
Wool and Animal Hair	2 758	2 504	985
Animal and Vegetable Fats	2 080	1 997	2 148
Paper Paperboard etc	1 958	2 515	2 788
Rubber and Products	1 644	2 088	2 789
Sugar and Confectionery	981	622	446
Cereals	524	3 405	34

PRINCIPAL EXPORTS (excl Oil)	1967-68	1968-69	1969-70
Raw cotton	2 846	3 217	3 746
Wool	237	200	92
Hides and leather	894	1 027	1 277
Fruit	1 606	2 126	2 786
Gum Tragacanth	261	300	361
Carpets	3 718	4 470	4 486
Mineral ores	527	552	897
Oil bearing seeds	423	415	471

PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES (million rials)

	1967-68		1968-69		1969-70	
	Imports	Exports (excl Oil)	Imports	Exports (excl Oil)	Imports	Exports (excl Oil)
Czechoslovakia	1 020	548	1 035	561	1 258	858
France	4 941	315	6 894	301	6 483	427
German Federal Republic	20 914	2 055	22 383	2 380	23 288	2 690
India	1 718	104	2 018	147	3 167	129
Italy	4 570	251	6 347	289	5 150	421
Japan	6 965	268	10 025	420	12 621	705
U S S R.	2 525	2 249	3 376	3 013	8 785	4 357
United Kingdom	10 596	725	13 623	608	14 243	731
United States	16 144	1 542	17 579	1 692	15 904	1 923

IRAN—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

TRANSPORT

RAILWAYS

		1967-68	1968-69
Passengers	('000)	2,788	3,090
Passenger-kilometres	(millions)	1,161	1,595
Freight tons carried	('000)	3,778	2,257

ROADS

	1968-69
Passenger Cars	257,550
Commercial Vehicles	72,529

COMMUNICATIONS MEDIA

	1968-69
Radio Receivers	2,933,000
Television Receivers	198,000
Telephones	268,980
Books Published (titles)	1,757
Daily Newspapers	22
Total Circulation	200,000

TOURISM

	1968-69	1969-70
Number of Visitors	298,411	241,198
Approximate Money Spent (\$)	42,163,250	36,725,220

SHIPPING

		1967-68	1968-69
Ships entered		1,858	2,561
Freight loaded	('000 m. tons)	7,688	15,820
Freight unloaded	('000 m. tons)	2,330	2,766

CIVIL AVIATION

		1967-68	1968-69
Flight-km.	('000)	7,724	9,928
Passenger-km.	('000)	341,576	478,572
Cargo	('000 ton-km.)	2,120	4,425
Mail	('000 ton-km.)	210	426,719

EDUCATION

(1969-70)

	NUMBER OF SCHOOLS	NUMBER OF PUPILS
Kindergartens	376	20,214
Primary Schools	15,776	2,916,266
High Schools	2,298	897,443
Agricultural High Schools	1	19
Commercial High Schools	27	2,710
Vocational Schools	136	20,606
Teacher's Training Colleges	126	4,118
Universities and Higher Education Institutes	81	67,268

Sources: Ministry of Finance, Teheran; General Department of Trade Statistics, Ministry of Economy, Teheran; Ministry of Education, Teheran; Iranian State Railways, Teheran; National Iranian Oil Co., London.

THE CONSTITUTION

On August 15th 1906 an Imperial Decree was issued to convoke a Constituent Assembly. This Assembly adopted the Constitution of Iran on December 30th of that year.

THE EXECUTIVE POWER

The executive power rests in the Shah. He appoints the Prime Ministers, who must be approved by the *Majlis*. In addition to their individual responsibility for their departments, ministers have a joint responsibility for the affairs of the country.

In 1949 a new amendment to the Constitution was made whereby the Shah was granted the right to dissolve the *Majlis* when it was deemed necessary, provided that a new election was ordered to take place soon afterwards.

THE LEGISLATIVE POWER

According to the Constitutional Law the legislative power comprises the Senate and the National Consultative

Assembly. The latter Assembly consists of 219 members elected for four years: the number of members rises with the growth of the population. The Senate, which was convened for the first time in February 1950, comprises 60 Senators: 30 nominated by the Shah, 15 representing Teheran and 15 representing the provinces. Senators must be Muslims. Their term of office is six years.

PROVINCIAL DIVISIONS

Iran is divided into fourteen provinces (*Ostān*). They are administered by Governors General (*Ostāndar*) who are directly responsible to the central Government. These provinces are sub-divided into counties (*Shahrestān*), municipalities (*Bakhsh*), and rural districts (*Dihistan*).

All towns have a municipality administration, the director of which is chosen by the town council. The nomination must be approved by the Ministry of the Interior.

THE GOVERNMENT

THE HEAD OF STATE

H I M MUHAMMAD REZA PAHLAVI ARYAMEHR SHAHANSHAH OF IRAN
(succeeded to the throne on the abdication of his father September 16th 1941)

THE CABINET

(April 1971)

Prime Minister: AMIR ABBAS HOVEIDA
Minister of Interior: Dr HASSAN ZAHEDI
Minister of Economy: Dr HOOSHANG ANSARI
Minister of Education and Training: Mrs F PARSIA
Minister of Finance: Dr JAMSHID AMUZEGAR
Minister of Culture and Art: MEHRDAD PARLBO
Minister of Foreign Affairs: ARDESHIR ZAHEDI
Minister of Health: Dr MANOUCHEHR SHAHGOLI
Minister of Information: JAVAD MANSOUR
Minister of Agriculture: IRAY VAHIDI
Minister of Justice: MANOUCHEHR PARTOW
Minister of Labour and Social Affairs: Dr MAJID MAJIDI
Minister of Posts, Telegraph and Telephone: Eng FATHOLLAH SOTOODEH
Minister of Roads: Eng HASSAN SHALCHIAN
Minister of War: Gen ASSADOLLAH SANIEI
Minister of Water and Power: Eng MANSOUR ROUHANI
Minister of Agricultural Products: Dr MANOUCHEHR GOUDARZI

Minister of Science, Technology and Higher Education: Dr MAJID RAHNEMA
Minister of Natural Resources: NASSIR GOLESORKHY
Minister of Land Reform and Rural Co-operatives: ABDOL-AZIM VALLAN
Minister of Development and Housing: KUROS AMUZEGAR
Director of Budget Bureau: ALI HEZAREH
Minister of State without Portfolio: Dr MAHMOUD KASRFAN
Minister of State without Portfolio: Dr MOHAMED NASSIRI
Minister of State: H HEDAYATI
Minister of State in Charge of Economics and Development: Eng S ASFIA
Minister of the Imperial Court: ASSADOLLAH ALAM
Assistants to the Prime Minister: Gen NEMATOLLAH NASSIRI, Dr GHASSEM REZAI, YADOLLAH SHAHBAZI, Dr HOSSEIN TADAYYON, NASSIR ASSAR, Gen P KHOSROVANI

DIPLOMATIC REPRESENTATION

REPRESENTATIVES OF IRAN ABROAD

(A) Ambassador; (CA) Chargé d'Affaires.

- Afghanistan:** MAHMOUD FOROUGH, Kabul (A).
Algeria: DJAHANGUIR TAFAZOLI, Algiers (A).
Argentina: ALI FOTOUI, Buenos Aires (A).
Austria: MOHSEN SADRI, Vienna (A).
Belgium: Dr. SEID-MEHDI PIRASTEH, Brussels (A) (also accredited to Luxembourg).
Brazil: Dr. AZTZOULIA BIKLIK, Rio de Janeiro (A).
Canada: MOHSEN MERAT ESFANDIARI, Ottawa (A).
China, Republic of (Taiwan): (see Japan).
Czechoslovakia: HOUSHANG SAFINIA, Prague (CA).
Denmark: MANUCHEHR FARTASH, Copenhagen (A).
Ethiopia: MOHAMMED GHAVAN, Addis Ababa (A).
France: Gen. H. PAKRAVAN, Paris (A) (also accredited to Portugal).
German Federal Republic: MOZAFAR MALEK, Bonn (A).
Greece: AMIREDDIN EFTEKHAR, Athens (CA).
Hungary: MUHAMMAD HOSAIN POUYANI, Budapest (A).
Iceland: (see Sweden).
India: M. R. AMIR TEIMUR, New Delhi (A).
Indonesia: BAYMAN AHANIN, Djakarta (A).
Italy: Dr. DJALAL ABDOH, Rome (A).
Japan: NOUREDDINE KIA, Tokyo (A) (also accredited to Republic of China).
Jordan: MANSOUR GHADAR, Amman (A).
Kuwait: Dr. GHULAM REZA TAJBAKSH, Kuwait (A).
Luxembourg: (see Belgium).
Morocco: MASSOUD FOROUGH, Rabat (A).
Netherlands: ESMAIL RIAHI, The Hague (A).
Norway: AHMAD EGHBAL, Oslo (A).
Pakistan: MASHAYEKH FEREYDANI, Rawalpindi (A).
Poland: FEREYDOUN DIBA, Warsaw (A).
Portugal: (see France).
Romania: SOLTAN HOSSEIN SANANDAJI (A).
Saudi Arabia: MUHAMMAD GHAVAM, Jeddah (A).
Spain: JAMSHID GHARIB, Madrid (A).
Sweden: AKBAR DARAI, Stockholm (A) (also accredited to Iceland).
Switzerland: Dr. HOSSEIN-ALI LOGMANADHAM, Berne (A).
Thailand: Dr. MANOUTCHEHR MARZBAN, Bangkok (A).
Tunisia: MORTEZA GHADIMI, Tunis (A).
Turkey: AMIR SHILATI, Ankara (A).
U.S.S.R.: AHMAD MIRFENDERESKI, Moscow (A).
United Kingdom: AMIR KHOSROW AFSHAR, London (A).
U.S.A.: AMIR ASLAN AFSHAR, Washington (A).
Vatican: KHOSROW HEDAYAT (A).
Yugoslavia: ALI REZA HERAVI, Belgrade (A).
United Nations: MEHDI VAKIL, New York (Perm. Rep.)

EMBASSIES AND LEGATIONS ACCREDITED TO IRAN

(Teheran unless otherwise stated.)

(E) Embassy; (L) Legation.

- Afghanistan:** Pahlavi Rd., Yussefabad, Ebn-Sina Ave., Kucheh Rassai (E); *Ambassador:* Gen. SARDAR ASSADOLLAH SERAJ.
Algeria: Baghdad, Iraq.
Argentina: Pahlavi Rd., Mahmudujeh (E); *Ambassador:* CARLOS ALFRED CASAL (also accredited to Afghanistan).
Australia: Fisherabad Ave., 23 Arak St., P.O.B. 3408 (E); *Ambassador:* JAMES HALL.
Austria: Takhte Jamshid, Forsat Ave. (E); *Ambassador:* GEORGE SEYFFERTITZ.
Belgium: Bu-Ali Sina Ave. Park, Amin-Dowlah 6 (E); *Ambassador:* MARE TAYMANS (also accredited to Kuwait).
Brazil: Pahlavi Rd., Tajrish (E); *Ambassador:* LANDULPO ANTONIO BORGES DA FONSECA.
Bulgaria: Aramehr Ave. (E); *Ambassador:* CHRISTO ZDRAVCHEV.
Canada: Takhte Jamshid Forsat, P.O.B. 1610 (E); *Ambassador:* CHRISTOPHER C. EBERTS (also accredited to Iraq and Kuwait).
Ceylon: Islamabad, Pakistan (E).
China, Republic (Taiwan): Abbas-Abad, Television Rd., 14 Kucheh Dan Metri (E); *Ambassador:* LIU TSING-CHANG.
Czechoslovakia: 61 Kucheh Sarshar (E); *Ambassador:* ZDENEK HRADEC.
Denmark: Copenhagen Ave. 13 (E); *Ambassador:* FREDERIK DE JONQUIERES (also accredited to Afghanistan).
Ethiopia: New Delhi, India (L).
Finland: Ankara, Turkey (E).
France: France Ave. (E); *Ambassador:* FRANÇOIS CHARLES-ROUX.
German Federal Republic: Ferdowsi Avenue (E); *Ambassador:* Dr. GEORG VON LILIENFELD.
Greece: Kheradmand Ave., Kucheh Salm (E); *Ambassador:* GEORGE PAPADOPOULOS.
Hungary: Pahlavi Ave., 3 Nassirzadeh (E); *Ambassador:* JOZSEF VARKONI.
Iceland: Bonn, German Republic (L).
India: N. Saba Ave. (E); *Ambassador:* M. A. RAHMAN.
Indonesia: Bld. Elizabeth II, N. Kakh. (E); *Ambassador:* ZAINOEL ARIFIN OESMAN.
Italy: France Ave. 81 (E); *Ambassador:* GEROLA PIGNATTI MORANO DI CUSTOSA.
Japan: Northern Saba Ave. 53 (E); *Ambassador:* KINSAKA MAEDA.

IRAN—(DIPLOMATIC REPRESENTATION, PARLIAMENT)

Jordan: 25 Shahrivar Ave 143 Abbas Abad Rd (E) Ambassador DAVOUD ABU GHAZALEH (also accredited to Afghanistan)

Korea, Republic: Kakhi Ave, Heshmatoddowleh St (E), Ambassador SUK CHAN LO

Kuwait: Markadeh Ave 338 Sarzaman Ali St (E) Ambassador Shaikh NASSER MUHAMMAD AHMAD AL JABER AL-SABAH

Morocco: Dorahuyeh Yussoufabad Muhammad Reza Shah Ave (E) Ambassador MEHDI ABDOL JAMIL (also accredited to Turkey)

Nepal: Karachi Pakistan

Netherlands: Villa Ave, Nasser St 21 (E), Ambassador HENDRIK JONKER

Norway: Aban Ave 3 (E) Ambassador THORLEIF L PAUS (also accredited to Afghanistan)

Pakistan: 199 Iranshah Ave (E), Ambassador SHAH NAVAZ KHAN

Philippines: Karachi, Pakistan (E)

Poland: 140 Takhte Jamshid Ave (E), Ambassador BRONISLAW MUSTELAK

Portugal: Ankara, Turkey (E)

Romania: Fakhrabad Ave 12 (E), Ambassador PAVEL SILARD (also accredited to Kuwait)

Saudi Arabia: Villa Ave, Nasser St 29 (E), Ambassador Sheikh MUHAMMAD ARAB HASHEM

Spain: Fisherabad Ave Khoshbin St 29 (E), Ambassador JOSE MANUEL DE ALAROA Y GONI

Sweden: Takhte Jamshid Ave Forsat St (E), Ambassador NILS ERIC GUSTOF EKBLAD (also accredited to Afghanistan)

Switzerland: Pasteur Ave (E), Ambassador MAX KOENIG (also accredited to Afghanistan)

Syria: Tajrish, Maqsubak Ave (L), *Chargé d'Affaires* (vacant)

Thailand: Babar Ave 46 Kucheh Mozayani (E) Ambassador Gen BANCHA MINETRAKINETRA

Tunisia: Ankara, Turkey (E)

Turkey: Ferdowsi Ave (E) Ambassador NAMIK YOLGA

United Arab Republic: Ravamos Saltaneh Ave (E), Ambassador MUHAMMAD SAMI ANGAR

United Kingdom: Ferdowsi Ave (E) Ambassador PETER RAMSBOOTHAM

U.S.A.: Takhte Jamshid Ave, Roosevelt Ave (E), Ambassador DOUGLAS MACARTHUR II

U.S.S.R.: Churchill Ave (E), Ambassador V Y EROFEEV

Vatican: France Ave 97 (Apostolic Internunciature) Mgr PAOLINI LIMONGI

Venezuela: Aban Ave (E) Ambassador FREDI AROCHA

Viet-Nam: Ankara Turkey (L)

Yugoslavia: Villa Ave (E) Ambassador LASLO BALAI

Iran also has diplomatic relations with Malaysia

PARLIAMENT

THE SENATE

President: Eng JA'AFAR SHARIF EMAMI

The Senate consists of 60 members 30 of which are appointed by the Shah and 30 are elected (15 from Teheran and 15 from the Provinces) Each year the Shah appoints 15 members for a four year term and 15 members are elected from Teheran and the Provinces for a four year term

NATIONAL CONSULTATIVE ASSEMBLY

(The Majlis)

President: Eng A RIAZI

Elections to the 22nd session of the Majlis were held in August 1967

ELECTIONS AUGUST 1967

	SENATE	MAJLIS
Iran Novin Party	26	180
Mardom Party	11	31
Pan Iranist Party	—	5
Independent	23	1
TOTAL	60	217*

* Two further seats allocated to Bahrain remain vacant

POLITICAL PARTIES

Iran Novin Party (*New Iran Party*): Teheran; governing party since 1960; Sec. ATTAOLLAH KHOSROVANI.

Melliyoun Party (*National Party*): Teheran; f. February 1958; government majority party until 1960, less important since; Sec.-Gen. Dr. AHMAD EMAMI.

Mardom Party (*People's Party*): Teheran; f. 1957; programme includes agrarian reform, limitation of land ownership and labour welfare; Sec.-Gen. Y. ADL.

Pan Iranist Party: Teheran; nationalist; Leader Dr. FAZALLOLLAH SADR.

Tudeh Party (*Party of the Masses*): Communist; *proscribed since 1949*; Leader Dr. REZA RADMANESH.

Free Iran Movement (*in exile*): Box 3, 1 Vanderbilt Ave., New York City 10017, U.S.A.; Chair. HOSSEN HABIBY.

JUDICIAL SYSTEM

Prosecutor-General: Dr. ABDUL HUSSEIN ALIABADI.

Chief Justice of the Supreme Court: EMAD-E-DIN MIRMO-TAHARI.

SUPREME COURT

The jurisdiction of the Supreme Court in Teheran includes disputes about the competence of Government departments in relation to the existing laws, and it also acts as a Court of First Instance when ministers are prosecuted, either for personal offences or in respect of the affairs of their department. It is also the highest court of appeal. In exceptional cases, at the request of the Prosecutor-General, the Supreme Court deals with criminal cases.

PROVINCIAL COURTS

Courts of Appeal and Central Criminal Courts are established in each province.

OTHER COURTS

There are Courts of First Instance in the towns. The Arbitration Council was established in 1966 to examine and rule on all petty offences. The courts of lowest jurisdiction are those of the Justices of the Peace, which are

established in most villages and small towns and deal with small civil cases and petty offences. On June 30th, 1966, the Arbitration Council was added to the judicial organs of the state. This Council is competent to deal with all complaints and petitions filed by businessmen and craftsmen, claims for damages and losses sustained in driving accidents, and domestic disputes, up to a claimed amount of ten thousand Rials in all cases. The Arbitration Council also examines and rules on petty offences (misdemeanour and felony) for which punishment does not exceed two months and/or one thousand two hundred Rials fine. Trials and examinations in such cases are undertaken free of charge.

SPECIAL TRIBUNALS

Special tribunals include Ecclesiastical Courts, which have a limited jurisdiction on matters of marriage and personal status; the Civil Servants' Criminal Court, in Teheran; and Permanent and Temporary Military Courts. Permanent Military Courts exist in all provinces and deal with treasonable offences; Temporary Military Courts are established whenever martial law is declared in a region, and are competent to hear certain cases which are normally within the jurisdiction of the ordinary courts.

RELIGION

MUSLIMS

The great majority of the Iranian people are Shi'i Muslims, and Iran with Iraq and the Yemen are notable as the only countries in the world where Shi'i adherents are in a majority. About five per cent of the population are Sunni Muslims, but there is complete religious toleration. Iran is thus in many ways the centre of the Shi'i faith, and pilgrimage to Iranian shrines is an important activity: Qum and Meshed are in particular regarded as holy cities.

ZOROASTRIANS

There are about 21,000 Zoroastrians, a remnant of a once widespread sect. Their religious leader is MOUBAD. Zoroastrianism was once the State religion of ancient Iran. Many adherents were compelled by Arab persecution to emigrate, and the main centre of their faith is now Bombay.

OTHER COMMUNITIES

Communities of Armenians, and somewhat smaller numbers of Jews, Assyrians, Greek Orthodox, Uniates and Latin Christians are also found, and the Baha'i faith, which originated in Iran, has about 60,000 adherents.

Roman Catholic Archbishop of Urmia, Bishop of Salmas and Metropolitan of Iran: Archbishop's House, Rezaieh; Most Rev. ZAYA DACHTOU.

Anglican Bishop in Iran: Rt. Rev. HASSAN BARNABA DEHQANI-TAFTI, Bishop's House, P.O.B. 12, Isfahan. Diocese founded 1912.

Synod of the Evangelical (Presbyterian) Church in Iran: Assyrian Evangelical Church, Khiaban-i Shapur, Khiaban-i Aramanch, Teheran; Moderator Rev. ADL NAKHOSTEEN.

THE PRESS

The working of the Iranian Press is set out in the 1955 Press Law as modified in 1963. This legislation defines the qualities of education and character required in persons intending to publish newspapers and stipulates that no newspaper may be banned without a court order except for criticism of religion or the monarchy for disclosing military information or for provoking the people to oppose government troops. With the exception of scientific cultural and government publications newspapers with less than 3,000 circulation and magazines with less than 5,000 are illegal, but this point has not been fully implemented as no official circulations bureau exists.

In 1965 the cabinet approved the Reporters' Code of Journalism which required reporters to be licensed by the Ministry of Information, prevented them accepting government service and prohibited the reporting or photography of specified military areas and closed court sittings etc. All communist publications are prohibited in Iran.

Teheran dominates the press scene as almost all daily papers are published there and the bi weekly, weekly and less frequent publications in the provinces generally depend on the major metropolitan dailies as a source of news. In the city are published some 20 daily and 21 weekly newspapers and 27 weekly and 44 monthly magazines. There are at least 85 registered provincial papers.

The total estimated circulation of dailies is 200,000, as all dailies have circulations of less than 6,000 copies with four exceptions: *Ettela'at* (70,000), *Kayhan* (100,000), *Kayhan International* (12,000) and *Peyghame Emrouz* (23,000). Total weekly paper circulations are estimated at 50,000 and weekly magazine circulations at 200,000. Some dozen weekly magazines have circulations of over 10,000 copies including the women's *Ettela'at Banovan* (40,000), *Tehran Mossavar* (35,000), *Roushanfekr* (32,000) and *Sepid va Syah* (30,000), the weekly newspaper *Towfigh* sells 35,000 copies. (These circulation figures supplied by the *Iran Almanac* may be over-estimated.)

Few if any newspapers are financed by sales revenue alone. Most papers' budgets depend heavily on revenues from advertising of which a large portion comes from the government.

With the exception of a small number of political organs and official publications all newspapers are owned by private individuals. The chief party organs are the dailies *Nedaye Iran Novin* (New Iran Party) and *Mehre Iran* (Mardom Party) and the weekly *Khak-o-Khun* (Pan-Iranist Party).

The major dailies have each published other papers and periodicals so forming small publishing groups which are still largely family concerns. The *Ettela'at Group* (Prop. Abbas MASSOUDI) includes *Ettela'at* with two foreign language dailies and two weekly newspapers and four popular weekly magazines, including one for women and two for children. The *Kayhan Group* (Prop. Dr. M. MESBAZADEN) includes *Kayhan* with its English daily, a weekly sports paper, two popular weekly magazines and a medical magazine. The *Echo of Iran Group* (Prop. JAHANGIR BEHROUZ) includes the daily, weekly and monthly *Echo of Iran*, the monthly *Iran Trade* and the annual *Almanac* all in English.

Although the press has made several technical advances in recent years including the use of colour and rotary printing machinery, and major papers now have introduced teletypewriter contact with international news agencies,

the standard both of reporting and news presentation remains low in comparison with that of the West. To help improve this situation two courses of journalism were established in 1965 at Teheran University. One obstacle limiting the press's progress is the illiteracy rate, in urban areas nearly 40 per cent and in rural areas over 75 per cent.

Among the most influential and respected dailies are the *Echo of Iran* which gives summarized news and opinion, and the two wide circulation papers *Kayhan*, with its sister English paper *Kayhan International*, and *Ettela'at*, with its English and French co-publications *Tehran Journal* and *Journal de Tehran Bourse* is the national financial daily. Among the most respected weekly publications are *Khandanisha*, *Tehran Mossavar* and the satirical paper *Towfigh*. Two of the most popular weekly magazines are *Zan E Rus* for women and *Javanan* for youth.

PRINCIPAL DAILIES

- Alik:** Naderi Ave. Teheran f 1931, political and literary Armenian. Prop. Dr. R. STEFANIAN. Circ. 10,000.
- Azhang:** Roosevelt St. Teheran, airmail edition *Azhang Havaei*, Editor KAZEM MASOUDI.
- Bourse:** Kh. Sevom Estand. Ku. Mobarshakat, Teheran, f 1961, financial, Editor Dr. Y. RAHMATI.
- Echo of Iran:** Ave. Shiraz, Kuche Khalkhali No. 4. P.O.B. 2003. Teheran, English, political and economic press review, circ. 6,000, Editor JAHANGIR BEHROUZ.
- Erfan:** Isfahan, f 1924, literary, Editor Mrs. MALEK ERFAAN, circ. 3,000.
- Ettela'at:** Khyyam Ave. Teheran f 1975, evening, political and literary. Editor ABAS MASSOUDI. Circ. 70,000.
- Ettela'ate Hawaai:** Air edition of above. Editor HAKIM MASHOUR. Circ. 5,000.
- Farman:** 69 Manouchehri Ave. Teheran, political. Editor A. SHAHANDEH. Circ. 15,000.
- Iran Presse:** Ave. Kheradmand. Ku. Tahbaz No. 19, Teheran, French. Editor S. FARZANI.
- Kayhan:** Kh. Ferdowsi, Teheran, evening, Farsi, circ. 100,000, Editor Dr. M. MESBAZADEN.
- Kayhan International:** Ferdowsi Ave. Kuche Atabak, Teheran, political, morning, English, circ. 20,000, Prop. Dr. MESBAZADEN.
- Khorasan:** Meshed, f 1948, circ. 15,000, Owner and Editor MUHAMMAD SADEGH TEHRANIAN.
- Koushesh:** Forughi Ave. Teheran, morning, political and scientific, Editor SHOKRULLAH SAFAVI.
- Le Journal de Teheran:** Khyyam Ave. Teheran f 1934, morning, French. Editor AHMAD CHAHIDI. Circ. 8,000.
- Mahde Azadi:** Tabriz, political and social, Prop. ESMAIL PEYMAN.
- Mardo Mobaraz:** Kh. Manouchehri, political and social, Prop. ASSAD RAZMARA.
- Mehre Iran:** Zhalah Ave. Teheran, affiliated to Mardom Party, morning. Editor MOHSEN MOVAGHAR.
- Nedaye Iran-Novin:** Fisherabad Ave. 41, Sepand St. Teheran, affiliated to New Iran Party, Editor M. A. RASHTI.
- Peyghame Emrouz:** Kh. Qavam Saltaneh, Teheran, evening, political and social, Dr. ABDOLRAZUL AZIMI, circ. 23,000.

Poste Teheran: Kh. Shahabad, Teheran; political evening; circ. 8,000; Editor MUHAMMAD ALI MASSOUDI.
Sedaye Mardom: Kh. Hafez, Teheran; political and literary; morning; Editor MUHAMMAD HUSSEIN FARIPOUR.
Tehran Journal: Kayyam Ave., Teheran; f. 1954; morning; English; Editor KEYUMARS BOZOURGMEHR; circ. 5,000.

PRINCIPAL PERIODICALS

Aftabe Shargh: Meshed; weekly; political; Prop. Mrs. NARGESS AMOOZEGAR.
Al-Akha: Khayyam Ave., Teheran; f. 1960; Arabic; weekly; Editor NAZIR FENZA.
Asiaye Javan: Kh. Opera, Teheran; weekly; Editor CYRUS BAHMAN; circ. 4,000.
Bamshad: Pich Shemran, Teheran; weekly; Editor E. POURVALI; circ. 4,000.
Bourse Monthly: Sevom-Esfand Ave., Kuche Bakht 15, Teheran; f. 1963; economic; Editor Dr. Y. RAHMATI.
Daneshkade Pezeshki: Faculty of Medicine, Teheran University; medical magazine; monthly; Editor Dr. M. BEHESHTI.
Donya: Istanbul Ave., Teheran; weekly; Editor A. K. TABATABA'I.
Doyaye Varzesh: Khayyam Ave., Teheran; f. 1970; weekly sport magazine; Editor BIJAN RAFIEI.
Ettela'at Banovan: Kayyam Ave., Teheran; women's weekly magazine; Editor Mrs. PARI ABASALTI; circ. 40,000.
Ettela'at Javanan: Khayyam Ave., Teheran; f. 1958; youth weekly; Editor R. ETTEMADI.
Ettela'at Kodekan: Khayyam Ave., Teheran; f. 1957; teenage weekly; Editor NADER AKHVAN HEYDARI.
Ferdowsi: Ramsar Ave., Teheran; weekly; Editor N. JAHANBANOIE; circ. 8,000.
Film-Va-Honar: Roosevelt Ave., Teheran; weekly; Editor A. RAMAZANI.
Iran Tribune: P.O.B. 11/1244, Teheran, Iran; monthly; socio-political; English.
Iran Trade and Industry: Echo of Iran, P.O.B. 1228, Shiraz Ave., Teheran; f. 1965; monthly economic periodical; Editor HASSAN SHAIDA; circ. 10,000.
Javanan: Ave. Sepah, Teheran; weekly magazine for young people; circ. over 10,000.
Kayhan Bacheha: Kh. Ferdowsi, Teheran; children's weekly; Editor DJAAFER BADI; circ. 60,000.
Kayhan Varzeshi: Kh. Ferdowsi, Teheran; sport weekly; Editor Dr. M. MEZBAZADEH; circ. 40,000.
Khandaniha: Kh. Ferdowsi; f. 1939; weekly; circ. 25,000; Editor A. A. AMIRANI.
Khorassan Banovan: Plasco Bldg., Stanbul Ave., Teheran; weekly; published in Meshed.
Khusheh: Safi Ali Shah Avenue, Teheran; f. 1954; weekly; Editor Dr. AMIR HOUSHANG ASKARI.
Music Iran: 1029 Amiriye Ave., Teheran; f. 1951; monthly; Editor BAHMAN HIRBOD; circ. 7,000.
Navaye-Khorasan: Meshed; political; weekly; Prop. H. MAHBODI.
Nedaye Pezeshkan: Teheran; f. 1942; medical monthly; Editor AHMAD PAKRAVAN.
Omide Iran: Kh. Ferdowsi; weekly; Editor A. SAFIPOUR.
Pars: Shiraz; twice weekly; circ. 3,500; Editor F. SHARGI.
Rahnejat: Darvazeh Dowlat, Isfahan; political and social weekly; Prop. N. RAHNEJAT.
Rowshanfekr: Ramsar Ave., Teheran; f. 1953; political weekly; circ. 32,000; Editor Dr. R. MOSTAFAVI.
Sepahan: Baharestan Square, Teheran; literary; weekly.

Sepid va Siyah: Kh. Ferdowsi; popular monthly; Editor Dr. A. BEHZADI; circ. 30,000.
Setareye Cinema: Lalezar-Now Ave., Teheran; film weekly; Editor P. GALUSTIAN.
Setareye Esfahan: Isfahan; political; weekly; Prop. A. MEHANKHAH.
Sobhe Emroug: Ferdowsi Ave., Teheran; Editor Mrs. AMIDI-NURI.
Sokhan: Hafiz Ave., Zomorrod Passage, Teheran; f. 1943; literary monthly; Editor Dr. P. N. KHANLARI; circ. 5,000.
Sport: P.O.B. 342, Ebne Sina St., Park Aminoddole, Kakhe Markazi Taj; Teheran; sports, weekly.
Taraqqi: Kh. Sevjom Esfand, Teheran; f. 1927; weekly; Editor L. TARRAQGI; circ. 21,000.
Teheran Chamber of Commerce Monthly Journal: Tehc;ar; Farsi; circ. 5,000; also **Weekly Bulletin**, circ. 5,000; both distributed mainly to members.
Tehran Economist: 99 Sevjom Esfand Ave., Teheran; f. 1953; English; weekly; Editor Dr. B. SHARIAT; circ. 11,800.
Tehran Mossavar: Ave. Jaleh, Teheran; popular weekly; Editor ABDULLAH VALA; circ. 35,000.
Towfigh: Istanbul Ave., Teheran; f. 1921; satirical weekly; Editor HASSAN TOWFIGH; circ. 65,000; also **Towfigh Monthly**; f. 1961; humorous; circ. 37,000; Editor HOSSEYN TOWFIGH.
Vezarate Keshavarzi: Teheran; agriculture; monthly.
Zan-E-Ruz (Women Today): Kh. Ferdowsi, Teheran; women's weekly; circ. 120,000; Editor Mrs. F. MESBAZADEH.

NEWS AGENCIES

International Press Agency of Iran: Teheran Ghvansaltaneh Square, P.O.B. 1125, Teheran.
Pars News Agency: General Department of Publications and Broadcasting, Maidan Ark, Teheran; f. 1936; Pres. NASSER SHIRZAD.

FOREIGN BUREAUX

A.F.P.: P.O.B. 1535, Teheran; Correspondent JEAN-CLAUD BRARD.
A.N.S.A.: Ave. Hafez, Kuche Hatef 11, Teheran; Chief GINA CARUSO.
A.P.: 11-13 3rd St. (East), Ave. Anjoman Iran-America, Teheran; Correspondent PARVIZ RAEIN.
Deutsche Press-Agentur: Teheran; Chief BAHMAN SHAHANDAH.
Reuter: P.O.B. 1607, Teheran; Correspondent ALI MEHRAVARI.
Tass: Ave. Maykadeh, Ave. France, Teheran; Correspondents LEON VARTANIAN and ASHRAF AHMADIANOV.
U.P.I.: P.O.B. 529, Teheran; Correspondent YUSEF MAZANDI.

PRESS UNIONS

United Press Front: Teheran; f. 1960; without political affiliation but pro-Constitutional; formed of 20 newspapers; Chair. MOHAMMED-BAGHER HEJAZI; Sec. JAMAL ASHTIANI.
Press Club of Iran: Teheran; f. 1961; Chair. ABBAS MASSOUDI; Sec. Gen. Dr. M. MESDAZADEH.
Press Association of Iran: Teheran; f. 1960; includes about 40 newspapers and journals; Praesidium of 9 leading journalists; Sec. ESMAIL PURVALI.
Writers and Press Reporters Syndicate: Teheran.

PUBLISHERS

All Akbar Elmi: Shahabad Ave, Dir ALI AKBAR ELMI
Amirkabir: Avenue Shahabad, Dir ABDULRAHIM JAFARI
Boroukhimi: Avenue Ferdowsi, Teheran dictionaries
Bungah Tarjomeh va Nashr Ketah: Teheran, affiliated to the Pahlavi foundation
Bungah Safi Ali Shah: Avenue Safi Ali Shah, Teheran
Danesh: 357 Ave Nasser Khosrow, Teheran, f 1931 in India transferred to Iran in 1937, literary and historical (Persian), imports and exports books, Man Dir NOOROUAH IRANPARAST
Ebn-e-Sina: Mokherberodowleh Square Teheran, f 1957, educational, Dir EBRAHIM RAMZANI
Eghbal: Shahabad Avenue Dir DJAVAD EGHBAL
Franklin Book Programs Inc.: 2 Alborz Ave, Shahreza Ave, Teheran f 1952, a non profit organization for International Book Publishing Development main office in New York Dir ALI ASGHAR MOHAJER
Guity Publishing Co.: Avenue Ferdowsi Teheran
Ibn-e-Sina: Shahabad St Teheran

Iran Chap Company: Ave Khayyam, Teheran, f 1966, newspapers books magazines colour printing and engraving Man Dir FARHAD MASSOUDI
Khayyam: Shahabad Avenue, Dir MOHAMMAD ALI TARAGHI
Majlis Press: Avenue Bahrastan, Teheran
Marefat: Lalezar Avenue Dir HASSAN MAREFAT
Nil Publications: Mokherberodowleh Sq Koutcheh Rafahi, Teheran Dir A AZIMI
Pirouz: Shahabad Avenue Dir MIRMOHAMMADI
Sahali Shah: Bahrastan Square Dir MANSOUR MOSH-FEGH
Taban Press: Avenue Nassir Khosrow, Teheran, f 1939 Propr A. MALEKI
Teheran Economist: Sevom Esfand Ave 99 Teheran
Teheran University Press: Avenue Shah Reza
Towhig: Istanbul Ave Teheran publishes Almanac and pocket books distributes humorous and satirical books Dir Dr FARIDEN TOWHIG
Zowar: Shahabad Avenue, Dir AKBAR ZOWAR

RADIO AND TELEVISION

RADIO

Radio Iran: Ministry of Information Meidan Ark, Teheran, f 1940. Home service programmes broadcast in Persian foreign service programmes are broadcast in Urdu, Arabic, Turkish English, Russian, French, Armenian and Assyrian, Gen Man M R. ATEFI publs *Iran Today* (quarterly magazine in English, French, German), *Facts About Iran* (weekly bulletin in English, French, Arabic), *Press Conferences of His Majesty the Shah* *Guides to Historical Sites and Cities*, *Radio Iran Monthly*

There are twelve regional services at Ahwaz Gorgan, Isfahan Kerman, Kermanshah Meshed Rasht, Rezaieh Sanandeh Shiraz Tabriz and Zahedan The most powerful transmitters are at Ahwaz, Kermanshah and Zahedan, these broadcast in Arabic, in Kurdish, and in Baluchi and Urdu respectively

Number of radio receivers (1969) 2 933 000

TELEVISION

National Iranian Television: POB 2559 Pahlavi Ave, Jame Jam St., Teheran, f 1967, state owned network with limited advertising, coverage by eight stations due to be completed during 1969 broadcasts for about 60 hours weekly, Dir Gen Eng R GHORB

Television of Iran: POB 1015, Ave Pahlavi, Teheran, f 1958, a private commercial company with stations in Teheran, Ahwaz (relay station), and Abadan, Pres IRAJ SABERI, Man Dir FARVIS PARTOVI Chief Engineer DAVID LINFORD

Number of television receivers (1969) 198 000

American Forces Radio and Television: Teheran f 1954, recordings and films of American programmes

FINANCE

(cap.=capital; p.u.=paid up; dep.=deposits; m.=million; all figures stated in Rials)

BANKING

CENTRAL BANK

Bank Markazi Iran (*Central Bank of Iran*): Teheran; f. 1960; central note-issuing bank of Iran; cap. 3,600m., dep. 53,500m.; Gov. MEHDI SAMII, Deputy Gov. Dr. CYRUS SAMII.

Bank Assnaf Iran: Baharestan Square, Teheran; f. 1957; cap. p.u. 100m.; Chair. General ALI AKHBAR ZARGHAM; Gen. Man. GHOLAM REZA ZAERIN.

Bank Bazargani Iran (*Commercial Bank of Iran*): Maidan Sepah, Teheran; reps. abroad: 91 Moorgate, London, E.C.2, England and 10 Bleichenbrücke, Kaufmannhaus, Hamburg 36, German Federal Republic; f. 1950; cap. p.u. 250m., dep. 11,268m. (March 1970); 165 brs.; Chair. and Man. Dir. Senator MOSTAFA TADJADOD.

Bank Bimch Bazerganan (*Merchants Insurance Bank*): Ave. Bouzerjomehri, Teheran; f. 1952; cap. 220m.; dep. 784m.; Chair. H. E. A. A. SEPEHR; Gen. Man. ALI MOHAMED SHERAFETIAN.

Bank Bimeh Iran: Teheran; under auspices of Government-sponsored Sherkate Sahami Bimeh Iran (Insurance Company of Iran); cap. p.u. 422.5m.

Banque Etebarate Iran (*Iran Credit Bank*): 50 Ave. Sevom Esfand, Teheran; f. 1958; cap. p.u. 200m., dep. 2,957m. (March 1968); Chair. and Man. Dir. H.E. AHMED CHAFIK.

Bank Etebarat Sanati (*Industrial Credit Bank*): Khiaban Ateshkadeh, Teheran; f. 1956; stock owned by the Plan Organization and two subsidiary companies; cap. p.u. 2,448.4m., dep. 1,613.7m. (1970); Chair. H.E. Eng. AHMAD ZANGENEH; Man. Dir. Dr. ALINAGHI FARMAN-FARMAIAN.

Bank Kar: Ave. Hafez, Teheran; cap. 300m., dep. 1,232m.; Man. ARSEN BARKHORDARIAN.

Bank Kargosha'i Iran (*Pawn Bank*): Moulavi Ave., Teheran; cap. provided by Bank Melli Iran; Principal Officer ESMAIEL TAHERI.

Bank Keshawarzi Iran (*Agricultural Bank of Iran*): Khiaban Park Shahr (North), Teheran; f. 1933; cap. p.u. 9,334.2m.; Government Bank; Pres. H.E. Eng. R. SADAGHIANI.

Bank Melli Iran (*The National Bank of Iran*): Khiaban Ferdowsi, Teheran; brs. abroad in London, Hamburg, New York and Dubai; f. 1928; cap. p.u. 2,000m., dep. 98,000m.; reserves 2,200m. (1970); affiliation Bank Tedjarat Kharedji Iran; 850 brs. throughout Iran; Pres. YOUSSEF KHOSHAKISH.

Bank of Iran and the Middle East: Kucheh Berlin, Ave. Ferdowsi, P.O.B. 1680, Teheran; f. 1959; brs. at Khorramshahr, Abadan and Teheran (10); The British Bank of the Middle East owns 49 per cent of the issued capital; 51 per cent is held by Iranian interests; cap. p.u. 250m., dep. 3,997m.; Chair. Dr. G. H. KHOSHBIN; Gen. Man. M. H. VAKILI; Adviser to the Board K. BRADFORD.

Bank of Teheran: 25 Pahlavi Ave., Teheran; f. 1953; cap. p.u. 250m., dep. 5,242.9m. (March 1970); Pres. MOSTAFA FATEH; Man. Dir. BAHMAN BEHZADI.

Bank Omran (*Development Bank*): Teheran; f. 1952 to provide technical guidance and financial support to farmers of distributed Crown villages; also acts as a

commercial bank; 144 brs.; assets U.S. \$159.5m. (1969); Pres. HOUSHANG RAM.

Bank Pars: Avenue Takht-Jamshid, Teheran; f. 1952; cap. p.u. 250m.; Chair. and Pres. E. NIKPOUR.

Bank Rahni Iran (*The Mortgage Bank of Iran*): Ferdowsi Street, Teheran; f. 1939; Government bank (affiliate of Ministry of Development and Housing) which grants loans for building houses; cap. p.u. 4,380m., total assets 10,964m. (March 1970); Chair. and Man. Dir. Eng. A. BEHNIA.

Bank Refah Kargaran (*Workers' Welfare Bank*): 125 Roosevelt Ave., Teheran; f. 1960; cap. p.u. 1,000m.; Chair. Dr. MEHDI A. ALIABADI.

Bank Russo-Iran: Jonoohe Park Shahr (South), Teheran; cap. 300m., reserves 45m.

Bank Saderat Iran (*The Export Bank of Iran*): Ave. Shah, Teheran; P.O.B. 2751; f. 1951; cap. p.u. 1,500m.; 2,500 brs. in Iran, branches in Dubai, Abu Dhabi, Fujairah, Ras Al Khaimah (Trucial States), Qatar, offices in London, Hamburg, Paris, Beirut, Hong Kong, New York; Man. Dir. Eng. M. A. MOFARAH.

Bank Sepah: Avenue Sepah, Teheran; f. 1925; cap. p.u. 1,500m., dep. 19,870m. (Sept. 1969); 190 brs.; Pres. Gen. F. AGHEVLI; Deputy Pres. DJALIL SASSINI.

Bayerische Vereinsbank: Munich, German Federal Republic; Ave. Audsar 29, P.O.B. 2437, Teheran; Rep. PETER SCHMID-LOSSBERG; Berliner Bank A.G. and Vereinsbank in Hamburg.

Distributors' Co-operative Credit Bank: 37 Ave. Ferdowsi, Teheran.

Foreign Trade Bank of Iran (*Bank Tedjarat Kharedji Iran*): Avenue Saadi, Teheran; f. 1960; jointly owned by Bank Melli Iran, Bank of America, Banca Commerciale Italiana and Deutsche Bank A.G.; cap. 275m., dep. 2,997m., reserves 208m. (March 1970); Man. Dir. ASHOT SAGHATELIAN.

Industrial and Mining Development Bank of Iran (IMDBI): 133 Shiraz St., Teheran, P.O.B. 1801; f. 1959 by private investors from Iran, the United States, the United Kingdom, France, Belgium, Germany, Holland and Italy; aims: to stimulate private industrial development in Iran by making medium- and long-term loans and by investing in share capital; cap. 960m.; total assets 11,591m. (March 1970); Man. Dir. A. GHASSEM KHERADJOU.

International Bank of Iran and Japan: 750 Ave. Saadi, P.O. Box 1837, Teheran; f. 1959; cap. 200m.; Chair. MOSTAFA MESBAH-ZADEH; Gen. Man. EBRAHIM KASHANI.

Iranians' Bank: 351 Takhte Jamshid Ave., Teheran; f. 1960; cap. 250m., dep. 1,341m. (1971); associated with First National City Bank; Chair. and Pres. A. H. EBTEHAJ.

Irano-British Bank: Avenue Saadi, P.O. Box 1584, Teheran; f. 1959; affiliated with the Chartered Bank and the Eastern Bank; cap. p.u. 200m.; Gen. Man. D. K. WROE.

Mercantile Bank of Iran and Holland: Ave. Saadi, P.O.B. 1522, Teheran; f. 1959; affiliated with Algemene Bank Nederland N.V., Amsterdam; cap. p.u. 300m., dep.

IRAN—(FINANCE, OIL)

1387m 6 hrs in Teheran 1 in Ahwaz Chair SOLEY
MAN VAHABZADEH Man Dir AHMAD VAHABZADEH
Resident Dir A. A. DEN HARTOG

Bankers' Association of Iran Teheran Pres Gen. FARA
JOLLAH AGEVLI

STOCK EXCHANGE

Teheran Stock Exchange Teheran f 1968

INSURANCE

Sherkate Sahami Bimeh Iran (*The Insurance Co of Iran*)
Avenue Saadi, Teheran f 1933 Government sponsored
insurance company all types of insurance cap p u
200m Chair and Man Dir Dr FARRANG MEHR

Albort Insurance Co Ltd 5 Amir Kabir Ave Teheran
most classes of insurance except livestock insurance
five hrs Management Habibollah Nahai and Brothers

Omid Insurance Co Ltd Philips Building 315 Ave
Shahreza Teheran f 1960

Pars, Société Anonyme d'Assurances Avenue Saadi
Teheran f 1955 fire marine motor vehicle and
personal accident insurance Gen Man MADJID MALEK
Tech Man YERVANT MAGARIAN

Sherkate Sahami Bimeh Arya (*Arya Insurance Co Ltd*)
213 Sorya Ave Villa Sq Teheran f 1952 re-named
1968 cap 100m. Chair HABIB NAFICY Man. Dir
MUHAMMAD ALI HANDJANI

Sherkate Sahami Bimeh Asia (*Asia Insurance Co Ltd*)
Shiraz St Ave Estandary 37 Teheran f 1960 Man
Dir H MOAVEV

Sherkate Sahami Bimeh Mellî (*The National Insurance Co*)
Avenue Shah Reza and Avenue Villa P O Box 1786
Teheran f 1956 all classes of insurance Chair H E
AHMED CHAFIK Managing Dir EDWARD JOSEPH

Sherkate Sahami Bimeh Omid Ferdowsi Ave Sabt St 3
Teheran f 1960

OIL

National Iranian Oil Company (NIOC), Takhte Jamshid Street, P O Box 1863, Teheran

A state organization controlling all oil operations in Iran

NIOC

The National Iranian Oil Company (NIOC) was in
corporated April 1951 on nationalization of oil industry
to engage in all phases of oil operations auth cap
10 000 million rials in 10 000 shares 50 per cent paid
up all shares held by Iranian Government and are
non transferable Chair of Board and Managing Dir
H E Dr MANOUTCHER EGHBAL Dirs H E A K
BAKHSHIAR Dr R. FALLAH H E Kh HEDAYET and
F NAFICY

In October 1954 an agreement was concluded between
the Iranian Government and NIOC on the one hand and
eight major oil companies (subsequently increased to
seventeen) on the other to operate the southern oilfields
(as defined) on behalf of NIOC These companies are
collectively known as the Consortium for which see below
The agreement is for twenty five years with provision for
three five-year extensions at the option of the Consortium
under specific terms and conditions NIOC is responsible
for non industrial activities in the agreement area It
directly operates the Naft-i-Shah oilfield the Kerman
shah refinery and Teheran refineries is also carries out
exploration and drilling in all parts of the country not
subject to special agreements NIOC is solely responsible
for internal distribution of petroleum products and has
laid over 3 600 km of pipeline throughout Iran The
Petroleum Act of 1957 empowered NIOC to divide Iran
into a number of petroleum districts to invite bids for
their exploitation and to sign agreements NIOC has
signed a series of agreements in 1957 with AGIP Mineraria
(an Italian company) in 1958 with Pan American
Petroleum Corp. in 1963 with six groups listed below for
exploration of offshore areas In all eight of the companies
formed NIOC has 50 per cent participation. In September
1966 agreement was reached with the French state
organization Entreprise des Recherches et d'Activités
Pétrolières (ERAP) to operate as a contractor on behalf
of NIOC in exploration both on and offshore

In December 1966 the Consortium relinquished one-
quarter of the Agreement Area comprising three parcels

totaling 25 069 sq miles one in the north west and two
in the south-east to NIOC The north western parcel is
adjacent to NIOC's Naft-i-Shah oilfield and Kermanshah
refinery the middle parcel runs from the eastern boundary
of the Consortium's Agreement Area to the Persian Gulf
coast and its relinquishment divides the area retained by
the Consortium into two parts the southern parcel covers
an area from the eastern boundary of the Consortium's
Agreement Area to a line some ten miles inland from the
port of Bandar Abbas at the entrance of the Gulf

The company has formed two subsidiaries to represent
it in two associated fields—The National Iranian Petro-
chemical Company and The National Iranian Gas
Company The latter has signed an agreement to supply
the Soviet Union with large quantities of natural gas
beginning in 1970

Société Irano-Italienne des Pétroles (SIRIP) Ave Abbas
Abad 30 P O B 1434 Teheran f 1957 owned jointly
by NIOC and AGIP S p A Man Dir R FARINOW

Iran Pan American Oil Co (IPAC) 315 Takhte Jamshid
Avenue Teheran f 1958 owned jointly by NIOC and
Amoco Iran Oil Co to exploit Persian Gulf offshore
deposits in their agreement area

Iranian Marine International Oil Company (IMINOCCO)
124 Roodsar Ave Teheran f 1965 formed with
Phillips Petroleum Co AGIP (a subsidiary of the
Italian ENI) and Hydrocarbons India Pvt Ltd (a
subsidiary of the Oil and Natural Gas Commission of
India) Chair A FARHI Man Dir GAETANO PERROTTI

Lavan Petroleum Company (LAPCO) Teheran f 1965
formed with Atlantic Richfield Murphy Oil Corpora-
tion Sun Oil Co and Union Oil Co of California who
own 50 per cent interest and the National Iranian Oil
Co who own the remaining 50 per cent

Dashestan Offshore Petroleum Company (DOPCO)
Teheran formed with Shell.

Iranian Offshore Petroleum Company (IROPCCO) P O B
3157 Teheran f 1965, formed with CEPASA, and
Cities Service Co Kerr McGee Corp (withdrawn 1970)

IRAN—(OIL, TRADE AND INDUSTRY)

Atlantic-Richfield Co., Skelly Oil Co., Superior Oil Co., and Sunray D.X. Oil Co.; Chair. E. SALJOOGHI; Man. Dir. ROBERT H. ROBIE.

Persian Gulf Petroleum Company (PEGUPCO): Teheran; f. 1965; formed with Deutsche Erdoel, Preussag, Wintershall, Deutsche Schachtbau und Tiefbohrergesellschaft, Gelsenkirchener Bergwerke, Gewerkschaft Elverath, and Scholven-Chemie.

Elf-Iran: P.O.B. 3220, Teheran; French oil interests. A subsidiary of ERAP Elf.

Continental Oil Co. of Iran: P.O.B. 14/1686, Pahlavi Ave., corner Kashan St., Teheran; signed agreement with NIOC in April 1969 for exploration and development of a 5,000 square mile area in South Iran; Pres. BERNARD B. COLLEY.

ERAP: Teheran; holds a 32 per cent share in a consortium exploring a 10,000 square mile area in Fars province; ENI has a 28 per cent share, Hispanoil 20 per cent, Petrofina 15 per cent and OMV of Austria 5 per cent.

THE CONSORTIUM

Consortium members, with percentage shareholdings: Gulf Oil Corporation (7%), Mobil Corporation (7%), Standard Oil Co. (New Jersey) (7%), Standard Oil Co. of California (7%), Texaco Inc. (7%), The British Petroleum Co. Ltd. (40%), Bataafse Petroleum Maatschappij N.V. (14%), Compagnie Française des Pétroles (6%), the remaining 5 per cent being divided amongst the following six American companies: The American Independent Oil Co., The Atlantic Richfield Co., Signal Oil and Gas Co., Getty Oil Co., The Standard Oil Company (Ohio), and Continental Oil Co. Two operating companies, both incorporated under the laws of the Netherlands, were formed by the Consortium:

Iraanse Aardolie Exploratie en Productie Maatschappij (*Iranian Oil Exploration and Production Co.*): P.O.B. 1065, Khiaban Shah, Kucheh Yaghma, Teheran; solely responsible for exploration and production in a defined area in south Iran; Chair. C. A. E. O'BRIEN.

Iraanse Aardolie Raffinage Maatschappij (*Iranian Oil Refining Co.*): P.O. Box 1065, Khiaban Shah, Kucheh Yaghma, Teheran; solely responsible for the operation of the refinery at Abadan; Chair. C. A. E. O'BRIEN.

While the NIOC owns the fixed assets of the oil industry in south Iran, the Operating Companies have the unrestricted use of them during the period of the agreement. The Operating Companies do not themselves buy or sell oil, their function being solely confined to producing and refining it. Each of the Consortium members is represented in Iran by a Trading Company which purchases crude oil from NIOC and resells it to customers for export, either as crude or as products. The Trading Companies deal individually and independently of one another. The net effect of the financial aspects of the sale of oil by the NIOC to the Trading Companies for export is to bring about an equal sharing between Iran and each Trading Company of the profits arising in Iran from the Trading Companies' operations.

REFINERIES' THROUGHPUT (million barrels)

Year	Abadan	Masjid-i-Sulaiman
1965	137.3	20.7
1966	139.8	22.4
1967	144.7	20.4
1968	150.3	12.5
1969	149.5	10.0

TRADE AND INDUSTRY

CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE

Teheran Chamber of Commerce: 254 Takhte Jamshid, Teheran; supervises the affiliated Chambers in the provinces and major cities; Pres. MOHAMED KOSHROV-SHAHI.

Teheran Chamber of Industries and Mines: Teheran; Pres. Eng. J. SHARIF-EMAMI; Vice-Pres. Eng. ABU-NASR AZOD; Secs. ABDOL-ALI FARMANFARMAIAN, ALI REZAI.

Ahwaz Chamber of Commerce: Ahwaz; Pres. HADJ MOHAMMED HASSAN KOMAILI.

Arak Chamber of Commerce: Arak.

Babol Chamber of Commerce: Babol.

Bandar Abbas Chamber of Commerce: Bandar Abbas.

Bandar Pahlavi Chamber of Commerce: Bandar Pahlavi; Pres. AZIZ DAD-GAR.

Bushire Chamber of Commerce: Bushire; Pres. SHAFI NASSIRI.

Hamadan Chamber of Commerce: Hamadan; Pres. HADJ SAID HASSAN HASSANIN.

Isfahan Chamber of Commerce: Isfahan; Pres. HADJ ZEINOLABEDIN AMIN.

Kashan Chamber of Commerce: Kashan.

Khorramshahr and Abadan Chamber of Commerce: Khorramshahr; Pres. DJALAL MOVAGHAR.

Meshed Chamber of Commerce: Meshed.

Rasht Chamber of Commerce: Rasht; Pres. KARIM NOSSRATIAN.

Rezaieh Chamber of Commerce: Rezaieh.

Shiraz Chamber of Commerce, Industry and Mines: Shiraz; Pres. AZIZ MALJAI; Treasurer and Vice-Pres. GHASSEM MONTAKHAB.

Tabriz Chamber of Commerce: Tabriz; Pres. ALI AKBAR SADAGHIANI.

Yazd Chamber of Commerce: Yazd.

Zahedan Chamber of Commerce: Zahedan; Pres. MOHAMMED RAZAGHZADEH.

R.C.D. Joint Chamber of Commerce: Teheran; f. 1965 with Pakistan and Turkey under auspices of Regional Co-operation for Development.

EMPLOYERS' ASSOCIATION

Association des Employeurs Industriels de l'Iran: Teheran.

LABOUR ORGANIZATIONS

All Trade Unions were dissolved in 1963, and syndicates of workers must be registered with the Government. In March 1963 there were 67 syndicates representing various trades, of which the largest included the *National Iranian Oil Company Workers' Syndicate* with 6,000 members.

CO-OPERATIVES

Central Organization for Rural Co-operatives of Iran (C.O.R.C.): Teheran; Man. Dir. MANOUCHEHR MA'REFAT. Following the implementation of the Land Reform Act, the C.O.R.C. was established by the Government in

IRAN—(TRADE AND INDUSTRY, TRANSPORT)

1963. The aim of the organization is to offer educational technical and credit assistance to rural co-operative societies and their unions. The C.O.R.C. will gradually transfer its stocks to rural co-operative unions and become the National body for Rural Co-operatives. By Dec 1970 8 224 rural co-operatives societies and 117 unions with a combined total membership of 1 549 202 had availed themselves of the C.O.R.C. facilities. The share capital of the societies is 1 85 m rials.

TRANSPORT

RAILWAYS

Iranian State Railway. Head Office Teheran f 1938
Pres Eng FARVIZ AVINI Financial Gen Dir MOHAMMADIAN Administrative Gen Dir H MALEKI

The Iranian railway system includes the following main routes

Trans Iranian Railway runs 1 440 km from Gorgan in the north through Teheran and south to Bandar Shahpur on the Persian Gulf

South Line links Teheran to Khorramshahr via Ghom Arak Dorood Andimeshk and Ahwaz 937 km

North Line links Teheran to Gorgan via Garmsar Firooz Kooch and Sari 499 km.

Teheran Tabriz Line linking with the Azarbaijan Railway (736 km)

Garmsar Meshed Line connects Teheran with Meshed via Semnan Damghan Shahrud and Nishapur 812 km

Ghom-Zahedan Line. When completed, this will be an intercontinental line linking Europe and Turkey through Iran with India. Zahedan is situated 917 km west of the Baluchistan frontier and is the end of the Pakistani broad gauge railway. The section from Ghom to Kashan is open and that from Kashan to Yazd is under construction. A branch line from the Kashan Yazd line is under construction which will run through Isfahan and the Ruz Lendjan where the Iranian Steel Corporation is to be installed.

Ahwaz Bandar Shahpur Line. Connects Bandar Shahpur with the Trans-Iranian railway at Ahwaz (123 km)

Azarbaijan Railway extends from Tabriz to Julfa (146.5 km) meeting the Caucasian railways at the Soviet frontier with a branch line connecting with Sharaf Khanah on Lake Rezayeh also administers shipping on Lake Rezayeh

The total distance covered by railways in Iran was 3 510 km in 1969. The fourth Development Plan aims at completion of the rail link between Iran and Turkey and the laying of 1 150 more kilometres.

ROADS

Ministry of Roads. Ministry of Roads and Communications
Teheran Minister Eng H SHALCHIAN

There are about 40 000 km of roads of which some 10 000 km had asphalt or paved surfaces by 1970. The Asian (CENTO) Highway now provides a good surface running from Teheran across Turkey to join up with the European road system.

TRADE FAIR

Trade Fair and Exhibition Organization. P.O.B. 22 Tajrish
Teheran principal events in 1971 are an exhibition of housing and building materials in April and a special national exhibition. The Progress of the Iranian Provinces. October 7th to November 1st 1971 to celebrate the 2 500th anniversary of the founding of the Persian Empire by Cyrus the Great.
Dir Gen M SHEEDPAR publ *Exhibition News*

MOTORISTS ORGANIZATIONS

Iran Automobile Association. Teheran Pres G H ENTARAJ

Touring and Automobile Club of Iran. 37 Varzesh Ave Teheran

INLAND WATERWAYS

Principal waterways

Lake Rezayeh (Lake Urmia) 50 miles west of Tabriz in North West Iran and River Kharun flowing south through the outfields into the River Shatt al Arab thence to the head of the Persian Gulf near Abadan

Lake Rezayeh. From Sharafrshaneh to Golmankhaneh there is a twice weekly service of tugs and barges for transport of passengers and goods

River Kharun. Regular cargo service is operated by the Mesopotamia-Iran Corp. Ltd. Iranian firms also operate daily motor boat services for passengers and goods

SHIPPING

Persian Gulf. Principal ports are Khorramshahr Bushire Bandar Mashur Bandar Abbas Bandar Shahpur. Oil exports from the Abadan refinery are now handled by the new Mahshahr installations (opened December 1967) and Kharg Island terminal in the Persian Gulf. Bushire is being developed to supplement the facilities at Khorramshahr while the capacity of Bandar Abbas will reach 0.9 million tons with the construction of new deep-water jetties

Caspian Sea. Principal port Bandar Pahlavi

Arya National Shipping Lines. 2 Pahlavi Ave Khorramshahr 13 vessels liner services between the Persian Gulf and Europe

CIVIL AVIATION

Iran National Airlines Corporation. 44 Villa Ave Teheran f 1962 replaces Iranian Airways Co. serves Iran to the Middle East and Europe. Karachi Kabul and Bombay. Chair Gen M KHATAMI Nan Dir Lt Gen Ali M KHADEMI. fleet of four Boeing 727 two Boeing 707 six DC-6 three DC-3 on order three Boeing 737

Teheran is also served by the following foreign lines: Aeroflot Air France Air India Alia (Jordan) Alitalia, Ariana Afghan Airlines BOAC CSA (Czechoslovakia) El Al Iraqi Airways JAL KLM Kuwait Airways, Lufthansa MEA PAA PIA Qantas Sabena SAS Swissair Syrian Arab

TOURISM

Iran National Tourist Organization (INTO): Vesale Shirazi Avenue 107, Teheran; f. 1963; Dir. Dr. GHASSEM REZAI. Types of publication: *Monthly Statistics Bulletin*, brochures, tourist guide books, road maps, posters.

CULTURAL AFFAIRS

The history of Iran has been one of successive waves of invaders, the first important one being the Aryans, who gave Iran her two names: Iran meaning "Land of the Aryans" and Persia, the name of one of the Aryan tribes. Cyrus, leader of the Parsa tribe, gave the idea of empire to the country and made himself king from the Mediterranean to the Indus in the sixth century B.C. He founded the Achaemenian dynasty in Iran, a later monarch of which, Darius, began building the ceremonial city of Persepolis in 521 B.C. There is practically nothing remaining of the original national Achaemenian basis of art, for with the extension of the empire new crafts were introduced and by the time of the building of Persepolis a fully-developed style had evolved. Another important era was the Sassanian (third to seventh centuries A.D.) when art flourished, particularly work in silver and bronze and silk textiles. During the tenth and eleventh centuries the province of Shiraz was a centre for Islamic art, teaching and science, and rivalled Baghdad in its culture and scholastic studies. Sassanian design and workmanship in silk was used extensively by the Byzantines until they discovered the process of its manufacture, but even then the influence of Persian design was very marked.

Many of the great works of art and architecture in Iran were destroyed by the many invaders, especially the Mongols, who overran most of the country in the early thirteenth century; only the most remote cities escaped their ravaging. Gradually, however, the Mongols adopted Persian customs and tastes and by the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries the country was noted for its artistic achievements: Khatam—miniature mosaic, made with ivory, ebony, wood and glass on a wooden base—intricate metalwork, calligraphy, illuminated manuscripts and books and bookbindings; Persian craftsmen were in demand in foreign capitals and their influence can be seen in many places in Western Europe. Persian art is characterized from the Sassanian period by the love of ornamentation and decorative detail, usually on a simple basis; this can be seen in the metalwork and textiles and later in buildings, such as the facades of mosques, where tilework predominated in the execution of intricate designs. One of the most complex examples of fifteenth-century architecture is the Congregational Mosque at Isfahan, which epitomizes the art and architecture of the Seljuq dynasty during which a definite style was established throughout the country.

The country again flourished under the Safavid Dynasty in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries and there are many beautiful mosques dating from this period, particularly at Isfahan. To the present day, Persian handicrafts are widely renowned—carpets, famous for five centuries, miniature paintings, embroidery and textiles, as well as those mentioned earlier. Carpets have been woven in Iran since earliest times, with records of famous examples from the Sassanian period. The earliest surviving examples date from the sixteenth century and carpet-weaving reached its greatest perfection during the Safavid period and did not decline under subsequent dynasties when many

other forms of art were overinfluenced by European trends. Miniature painting was also popular during the Safavid era and has since wavered in popularity and absorbed foreign influences before regaining its essentially Persian character. In modern times there has been a revival of interest in traditional forms in metalwork, inlay and textiles and this has been stimulated by the Ministry of Culture and Arts; styles in architecture, painting and pottery, however, have tended to be more international in feeling.

While the main attraction to tourists visiting Iran will probably be the great diversity of art and architecture, the country also provides a wide variety of scenery and climate (which in turn give rise to different types of game hunting) and also mineral-water resorts and spas.

CULTURAL ORGANIZATIONS

Ministry of Culture and Arts: Kh. Kamal-ol-Molk, Teheran; f. 1964 to replace the Fine Arts Administration; depts. of Music, Cinematography, Arts Education (Dramatic Arts, Music, Decorative Arts, Plastic Arts, National Arts), Archaeology, and Ethnography, Museums and Historical Monument Preservation, Artistic Creation, Libraries, Academy, Cultural Relations, Arts Exhibitions, Superior Council of Culture and Arts; supervises nine orchestras, one of which is international; Minister of Culture and Arts MEHRDAD PAHLBOD.

Teheran Symphonic Orchestra: Kh. Kamal-ol-Molk, Teheran; 75 mems.; Leader HESHMAT SANJARI.

Fine Arts Theatre Group: c/o Ministry of Culture, Teheran; produces weekly programmes for television.

Music Council of Radio Iran: Maidan Ark, Teheran; supervises three radio orchestras, specializing in Iranian instrumental music, light music, and western jazz; Dir. MOSHIR HOMAYUN SHAHRDAR.

Shiraz-Persepolis Festival of Arts: Shiraz; f. 1967; plays, films and music representing both Eastern and Western culture; held for a short fortnight at end of Aug. and beginning of Sept.; partly staged in the ruins at Persepolis; Pres. Dr. MEMDI BOUSHEHRI; publs. various books and brochures in Persian on music and drama, festival brochure annually.

ATOMIC ENERGY

National Iranian Atomic Energy Commission: Ministry of Economy, Teheran; co-ordinates nuclear research, and is undertaking construction of a small research reactor; Sec. Eng. A. SETRAFI.

Teheran University Nuclear Centre: P.O.B. 2989, Teheran; f. 1958; research in nuclear physics, electronics, nuclear chemistry, radiobiology and health physics; training and advice on nuclear science and the peaceful applications of atomic energy; a 5-MW pool-type research reactor on the new campus of Teheran University was completed in November 1967; a 3-MeV Van de Graaff-type accelerator will begin to operate in 1969; Acting Dir. Dr. H. ROUHANINEJAD.

EDUCATION

The ten years before 1939 saw a great expansion in education in Iran. In 1934 the University of Teheran was established and 25 Normal Schools were opened to train annually 750 elementary teachers of both sexes as the first step in bringing education to the people.

In 1941 Reza Shah Pahlavi abdicated and the succession of his son initiated a more democratic régime which has been reflected in educational matters. Cultural relations were established with many countries including the Allied Powers the University was freed from politics and scholarships for study abroad which had been suspended were resumed after the war. Education is now entirely free at elementary schools and to a great extent at secondary level. Many of the public secondary schools charge small tuition fees to provide funds for the better equipment of schools, repairing of school buildings and financial aid to needy students. Under a new scheme the majority of students in public universities have to pay the equivalent of \$130 per annum (two semesters). Tuition fees at private universities are higher. Top students are either awarded scholarships or are exempted from paying fees. In addition to the increasing number of working-class children who are receiving elementary education almost all the middle class send their children to school. Many of the children of wealthy people go to schools and colleges in Europe or America.

Aware of the need to overhaul and modernise Iran's outmoded educational system the Government has laid down a twenty-five-year period of improvement at the end of which the standard of education should be on the same level as that of other fully developed countries. Iran's latest two five-year development plans (1962-67 and 1968-73) have devoted particular attention to this goal. Though the basic system will remain unchanged it is planned to extend primary education which is six years at present to eight years, develop a good system of secondary vocational schools, increase the number and quality of teachers and launch a major adult literacy programme. The new system of education which is gradually being implemented is divided into three stages: the first of which covers five years and is compulsory and free for all school-age children in cities and rural areas. The second stage, lasting three years, will be declared compulsory when the first stage has been fully implemented. The third stage will consist of two types of secondary education: academic schools for talented and qualified students and technical and vocational schools offering a range of courses in different fields of industry, agriculture, commerce, etc.

Since the establishment of the Education Corps programmes in 1962 about 39,000 corpsmen have been sent to villages throughout the country. Working as teachers and village leaders they have brought many new ideas to backward communities and have raised the rural literacy rate by 5 per cent. However, illiteracy is still a major problem extending to some seven million adults, mostly in rural areas.

Primary Schools. In 1943 the Government passed a law providing for the general establishment over a period of six years of compulsory and free education for both sexes. This has not yet been fully implemented in rural areas owing to the shortage of schools and teachers. There are now 2,500,000 primary school students of whom 370,000 were studying in schools run by Education corpsmen. At present about 90 per cent of school-age children in the cities and 43 per cent in rural areas are studying in

primary schools. The existing schools are capable of accommodating 68 per cent of the elementary age group but since some places are occupied by older students the actual percentage is lower (58 per cent). The elementary schools are mostly State schools and often co-educational but there are also private schools which receive grants in aid. The basic curriculum is standard for all types of school and consists of six years' general education with the addition of practical subjects suited to the environment. At the age of twelve pupils sit for a Government examination which entitles them to enter a secondary school.

Secondary Schools. Secondary education is not compulsory but most of the schools are free or charge only small fees. In 1964 there were 369,000 pupils receiving secondary education. By 1968 enrolment had risen to 598,000. However, it has been found that the secondary educational system in its present form has not been producing the sort of young person the country needs. Secondary education henceforth will be regarded as a preparation for economic and social life and not primarily as a preparation for university studies. Its development will be taken at a slower rate by introducing a system of entrance examinations, a system of tuition fees (with scholarships for deserving students) and an examination at the end of the first cycle of secondary education. The introduction of educational television in Teheran in 1966-67 formed an important step towards the improvement of quality in secondary education.

Technical Education. In the academic year of 1967-68 there were 30 technical schools (enrolment 5,979), 17 agricultural schools (2,507), 16 commercial schools (4,439) and 50 trade schools with 5,912 students. Those who wish to enter the first three types of school must have finished three years of the secondary school. The pupils of technical schools who wish to undertake the job of teaching in trade schools must receive one year of training in teaching besides the three-year regular duration of the school. All students in the senior secondary schools must learn a marketable skill by working either in the school workshop or a technical school for four periods a week (400 hours in three years).

On the higher education level there is the Polytechnic Institute of Teheran which offers four-year courses in 8 different fields to the graduates of the mathematics course of secondary schools or the graduates of technical schools with certain academic achievements. The Institute of Technology, one of the 8 departments, is exclusively a teacher training centre for technical and trade schools. Another institute is the Higher Institute of Business Education which offers a regular four-year course. The Polytechnic Institute has been equipped with the aid of the United Nations Special Fund.

Foreign Schools. Many schools at all levels were started by foreign missions during the nineteenth century. American, British, French and German missions predominated. With the exception of two French schools the remaining schools have been run by the Ministry of Education since 1940.

Minorities. A number of minorities is officially recognised in Iran. There are the Assyrians and Armenians, both Christian sects, the Zoroastrians who preserve the ancient Parsee religion and the Jews who are found scattered through the bigger towns. These minorities all run their own schools but before the war were compelled to adhere strictly to the official curriculum. Now greater

freedom is allowed. The Armenians teach in their own language, and the Jews place particular emphasis on the teaching of foreign languages.

Tribal and Fundamental Teaching: Some tribes in Iran are nomadic, and so itinerant schools were founded in 1955. Seven Primary School Teachers' Training Colleges have been established in different provinces, to train the staff for these itinerant schools. In the academic year 1966-67 there were 725 itinerant classes where 22,634 students were receiving instruction. Fundamental education has been rapidly expanded owing to the establishment of the extension corps programme. Under the new scheme two types of agricultural agencies are helping Iranian farmers to increase their productivity. One type consists of permanent government officials who are selected from among agricultural secondary school graduates and have undergone an intensive one-year course in agriculture. The other comprises extension corpsmen. They are either agricultural faculty or agricultural secondary school graduates who work in villages for about 14 months. This is considered as part of their military service.

Teachers' Training. Prospective elementary teachers can take the three-year training course after either three or five years' secondary education. To teach in a secondary school the student must take a university degree simultaneously with his pedagogic training at the University Institute of Education. In 1967-68 there were 64 Teachers' Training Schools where 5,692 primary school teachers were enrolled and there were 1,431 students in the 5 Teacher Training Colleges.

Higher Education. The tradition of University education in Iran goes back some eight hundred years. However, in the middle of the nineteenth century this was remodelled on the French system. A number of university colleges were established in Teheran, and functioned independently until 1934, when they were united to form the University of Teheran. There are also university colleges at Isfahan, Meshed and Shiraz (medicine), and Tabriz. The Honar-Saraye Ali provides advanced studies in engineering. In 1955-56 agricultural colleges were opened at Shiraz, Ahwaz and Tabriz and colleges of literature at Meshed and Shiraz. The University of Ahwaz (Gondishapour University) was opened in 1957. Recent steps towards the expansion of higher education include the founding of a private university, Arya Mehr Industrial University, and new colleges of dentistry and pedagogy in Teheran and some provincial universities. The total number of university students in 1966-67 was about 36,742. As a result of a law passed in 1928, many students receive scholarships to study abroad, either in Europe or America. There were about 20,507 Iranian students overseas in 1966-67. One problem resulting from this has been the tendency for Iranians qualifying abroad to take employment there, particularly in the U.S.A. and Western Europe, since salaries and working conditions are often superior to those offered in Iran. The government is making a concerted attempt to counter this "brain drain", and in 1968 abolished military service for qualified Iranians returning home.

Adult Education/Literacy Corps. A start was made in adult education in 1907, but it was not until 1936 that a serious effort was made to combat illiteracy. Evening classes and part-time day schools were set up, especially in rural areas. By 1965-66 there were 142,000 adult students in the evening classes of education corpsmen. In addition the armed forces, in co-operation with the Ministry of Education, are giving their personnel instruction at an average rate of 80,000 men a year. At present 57 per cent of the people in urban areas and 21 per cent in rural areas are literate—i.e. 35 per cent of the total population over ten years old.

Since 1962 selected national servicemen have been trained, at the rate of 3,500 per annum, as teachers to be sent out to villages and nomadic groups all over the country. Education Corpsmen have assisted villagers not only with basic teaching in literacy but with self-improvement schemes such as school-building, road and well construction and provision of medical facilities.

LEARNED SOCIETIES AND RESEARCH INSTITUTES

(See also under Universities)

American Institute of Iranian Studies: P.O.B. 11-1885, Teheran; f. 1967; to promote knowledge and understanding of Iran through research; information centre; Pres. M. ZONIS; publ. *Tehran Center Newsletter* (quarterly).

Ancient Iran Cultural Society: Teheran; f. 1961; Pres. Dr. FARHANG MEHR, Mrs. F. YAGANEHI.

Archaeological and Folkloric Services of Iran: Avenue Ghavam ol Saltane, Teheran; f. 1914 as Antiquities Office, refounded 1962; excavations, archaeological and cultural research, lectures, temporary exhibitions; archaeology library of 9,000 vols., small folklore library; Gen. Dir. of archaeology ABDOL ALI POURMAND; Gen. Dir. of folklore SEYFOLAH KAM BAKHS; publs. *Archaeology and Art of Iran*, occasional publs.

Association of Ophthalmists: Faculty of Medicine, University of Teheran; Pres. Prof. M. GH. SHAMS.

Association of Paediatricians: 34 Place Kakh, Teheran; f. 1952; 120 mems.; Pres. Prof. M. GHARIB.

British Council, The: 58 Ave. Ferdowsi, P.O.B. 1589, Teheran; Rep. J. G. BRUTON, O.B.E.; also at Isfahan, Meshed, Shiraz and Tabriz; libraries of 5,000 vols. (Isfahan), 6,000 vols. (Meshed), 5,200 vols. (Shiraz), 5,400 vols. (Tabriz); library at Teheran (see Libraries).

British Institute of Persian Studies: 238 Avenue Takhte Jamshid, P.O. Box 2617, Teheran; f. 1961; cultural institute, with special emphasis on history and archaeology; library 4,000 vols.; 318 mems.; Pres. Sir M. E. L. MALLOWAN, C.B.E.; Hon. Sec. J. E. F. GUERITZ; Dir. in Iran DAVID STRONACH, M.A., F.S.A.; publs. *Iran, Journal of the British Institute of Persian Studies*.

Economic Research Institute: Shahreza Ave., Teheran; f. 1960; works in co-operation with the University of Teheran and gives post-graduate courses.

Goethe Institut: P.O.B. 1895, Teheran; f. 1960; library of 8,000 vols.; cultural programme; German language classes; Dir. Dr. W. STACHE.

Institut Français de Téhéran: 58 Ave. Shahpour Ali Réza, P.O.B. 1570, Teheran; Dir. ANDRÉ MICHEL.

Institut Pasteur: Teheran; f. 1921; research in biology, biochemistry, medicine and zoology; Dir. M. NAMVARI.

Institute of Hydro-Sciences and Water Resources Technology (IHT): 64 Ghadessi Street, North, Boulevard Elizabeth, Teheran; f. 1966; Dir. Dr. M. MOZAYENY.

Institute of Public Health Research: Graduate School of Public Health, University of Teheran, P.O.B. 1310, Teheran; f. 1952; Dir. Ch. M. H. MOFIDI, M.D., M.P.H.

International Scientific Research Institute: P.O.B. 377, Teheran; f. 1955; Dir. MOUSSA HEKMAT, K.T.K.C.G., M.D., F.R.S.M.; publs. *World Science Review* (quarterly, in Persian, Arabic, English), *Papers*.

Iran America Society: Television Ave., Abbassabad, Teheran; f. 1925 as Iran America Cultural Society, reconstituted 1951; cultural centre: traditional and

IRAN—(LEARNED SOCIETIES AND RESEARCH INSTITUTES LIBRARIES)

- experimental theatre concerts art exhibitions films lectures library (1000 vols) Academic Centre English language classes lectures films Student Centre educational and recreational activities for university students library (9000 vols) Hon Pres The Prime Minister The American Ambassador Chair Dr HASSAN ALAVI Exec Dir MISS LOIS ROTH
- Iran Arab Friendship Association** Teheran f 1965 branch in Riyadh Saudi Arabia Sec-Gen Senator ALAMEH VAHIDI
- Iranian Academy, The (Farhangistan)** c/o The Ministry of Education Teheran f 1935 Pres The Minister of Education
- Iranian Documentation Center** P.O.B. 11387 Teheran f 1968 to provide a technical information service and to establish a national science and social science library part of the Institute for Research and Planning in Science and Education Dir ALI SIVAI
- Iranian Petroleum Institute** Teheran scientific and educational organization Pres MAHMOUD POOZESH
- Iranian Society of Microbiology** 32 Churchill Ave Teheran f 1940 85 mems Gen Sec A HABIBI M.D.
- Irano-Soviet Cultural Society** Vassal Shirazi Ave Teheran f 1941 promotes Russ language and culture and arranges exchange visits for cultural groups to and from USSR Dir Gen AMANOLLAH JAHANBANI publ *Payam Novin*
- Istituto Italiano di Cultura** Ave Hafez Kuche Hatel 11 Teheran Dir Prof FERNANDO CARUSO
- Medical Nomenclature Society of Iran** University College of Medicine and Pharmacy Isfahan
- National Association for Cultural Relations** 182 Haghghogh Ave Teheran f 1966 to create facilities in the field of cultural and artistic relations and exchanges Pres Dr Z SAFA
- National Cartographic Centre** P.O.B. 1844 Mahradbad Teheran Dir G BASSERI
- Office Culturel d'Autriche** Teheran P.O.B. 876 Ave General Zahedi 4 rue Fardis f 1959 library monthly programme Dir Prof Dr HELMUT SLARY
- Organization of the History of Iranian Culture** Faculty of Arts University of Tabriz Pres Dr A. R. KHAYYAM FUR.
- P.E.N. Club of Iran** Teheran Founder and Gen Sec Z RAHMAMA
- Philosophy and Humanities Society of Iran** Faculty of Arts University of Teheran Pres Prof A. A. SIASSI
- Plant Pests and Diseases Research Institute** P.O.B. 3178 Teheran f 1961 research on pests and diseases of agricultural crops mainly their diagnosis and control library of 1832 vols Dir Dr E. ESPANDIARI publs *Entomologie et Phytopathologie Appliquée Iranienne Journal of Plant Pathology*
- Royal Cultural Society of Iran** Teheran Pres. SHODAEDDIN SHAFA.
- Society of Iranian Clinicians** Faculty of Medicine University of Teheran Pres Prof Y. ABLE
- State Pharmaceutical Institute** Teheran
- State Nazi Institute** P.O.B. 656 Teheran f 1930 epizootological and ecological studies of animal diseases and human and animal biology preparation of all

veterinary vaccines some human vaccines and therapeutic sera scientific staff of 55 library of 5000 vols and 150 periodicals Gen Dir Prof M. KAVEN publ *Archives of the Razi Institute* (annually in English and French)

Syndicate of Pharmacists Avenue Hafez Teheran Pres Dr H. NEZAMI

LIBRARIES

- Abraham Lincoln Library (U.S. Information Service)** Ave Saba Teheran f 1949 11000 vols Dir EMMET K. KINNER
- Alborz College Library** Shahreza Ave Teheran Dir H. HUSSEIN ZADEH
- Library of the Archaeological Museum** Teheran f 1936 10000 vols. Dir Mme N. NAFICY Librarian E. ZIAEE
- Astaneh Razavy Library** Meshed Iran from c. 15th century 40112 vols Dir ABDOLALY OCTAI
- Library of the Audio-Visual Organisation of the Fine Arts** Ave Kamal ol Molk Teheran f 1958 1300 vols Dir SIMIN NAJOOHI
- Library of the Bank Markazi Iran (Central Bank of Iran)** Teheran 31500 vols Librarian FOROUGH GOWHARIAN
- British Council Library** 38 Avenue Ferdowsi P.O.B. 1589 Teheran 22000 vols Librarian Miss S. BELL
- Farhang Library** Isfahan f 1943 7607 vols Dir AHMAD JABERY KERMANY
- Fars National Library** Ave Pahlavi Shiraz 12013 vols Dir ALI ARBER BASSIRY
- Bibliothèque de l'Institut Français de Téhéran** 53 Ave Chahpour Ali Réza Teheran 24800 vols
- Imperial Library** Teheran special collection of precious MSS Dir Dr MEHDI BAYANI
- Library of the Faculty of Law (Univ. of Teheran)** Ave Shahreza Teheran 17000 vols Dir M. SABA.
- Library of the Faculty of Arts and Humanities (Univ. of Teheran)** Shahreza Ave Teheran f 1932 90000 vols numerous MSS Dir Mrs N. MOHAGHEGH
- Library of the Faculty of Sciences (Univ. of Teheran)** Shahreza Ave Teheran 19776 vols Dir Dr MANOUCHERR VESSEL.
- Malek Library** Ave Boozarjomehri Bazar-e Beinsolhara mem Teheran 22600 vols Dir AHMAD SOHEILY
- Municipal Library** Isfahan 29000 vols
- National Library** Ghavamossaltané St Teheran f 1935 80000 vols rare Persian and Arabic MSS international book exchange service Dir YABYA ZOKA publ *National Bibliography*
- Pahlavi Library** Teheran f 1956 450000 MSS in original or photocopy Dir SHAJAEDDIN SHAFA
- Pahlavi University Library** Shiraz f 1946 103000 vols Dir Dr M. VESSAL.
- Parliament Library** Ketabkhaneh Majles Showraie Meli Teheran f 1924 55000 vols Dir Dr TAGHI TAFAZZOLI
- Senate Library (Ketabkhaneh Majles Sena)** Teheran f 1950 30000 vols legal reference material Iranology Islamology Dir KAYKAVOOS JAHANDARI
- Tabriz Public Library (Ketabkhaneh Melis Tabriz)** Ave Pahlavi Tabriz 12816 vols Dir MAJID FARHANG
- Tarbiat Library** Ave Atesh Nesham Tabriz 12000 vols Dir ABOLHASSAN SAIDY

Technical Library of the Ministry of Education: Kh. Ekbatan, Teheran; 12,000 vols.

University College of Arts Library: Isfahan; 82,194 vols., mostly Persian and Arabic, some European languages; Persian MSS. and incunabula.

University of Meshed Library: Meshed; 20,000 vols.

University of Tabriz Library: Tabriz; f. 1945; 45,000 vols.

MUSEUMS

All Saviour's Cathedral Museum: Julfa, Isfahan; f. 1905; under the supervision of the Diocesan Council of the Armenians in Iran and India; Dir. The Diocesan Bishop.

Archaeological Museum: Teheran; f. 1936; antiquities from Palaeolithic era to 19th century A.D.; Dir. Mr. ALI HAKEMI.

Chehel Sotun Museum: Isfahan; Dir. KARIM NIKZAD.

Muzeye Mardomchenassi (Ethnographical Museum): Teheran; f. 1938; Dir. Y. ZOKA.

Golestan Museum: Golestan; f. 1894; Dir. H. GH. BASSIRI.

Meshed Museum: Meshed; f. 1945; under the supervision of the Sanctuary of Meshed.

Pars Museum: Shiraz; f. 1938; exhibits include manuscripts, earthenware, ancient coins; Dir. MOHAMMED HOSSEIN ESTAKHR; Curator HASRAT ZADEH SORUDE.

Qum Museum: Qum; f. 1936; under the supervision of the Archaeological Service; Dir. M. FATEMI.

UNIVERSITIES

ARYA MEHR UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY

P.O.B. 3406, EISENHOWER BOULEVARD,
TEHERAN

Telephone: 962000

A private university founded in 1966 with the aim of becoming the principal institution in Iran for the training of engineers and scientists. There are Departments of Mechanical, Electrical, Chemical, Metallurgical and Industrial Engineering, and Physics, Chemistry and Mathematics.

Number of full-time teachers: 162.

Number of students: 1,500.

UNIVERSITY OF ISFAHAN ISFAHAN

The University is at present an association of four University Colleges:

University College of Medicine:

Dean: G. MOTAMEDI, M.D.

Vice-Dean: M. SARAM, M.D.

Number of books in library: 12,000.

Number of academic members: 85.

Number of students: 619 men, 54 women, total 673.

University College of Letters and Human Sciences: Shah Zadeh Ebrahim Ave., Isfahan; Tel.: 2120, 2188, 2189; f. 1958.

President: Prof. A. FAROUGHY, M.S., D.LIT., LL.D.

Number of books in library: 82,194.

Number of teachers: 53.

Number of students: 767 men, 395 women, total 1,162.

Publications: *Revue de la Faculté des Lettres, Prospectus, Calendar.*

There are 9 Departments: Persian Literature, English, Arabic Language, French, Armenian, History, Geography, Psychology and Education, Philosophy.

University College of Science: Shah Zadeh Ebrahim Ave., Isfahan; Tel.: 2120, 2188, 2189; f. 1964.

President: Prof. A. FAROUGHY, M.S., D.LIT., LL.D.

Number of books in library: 8,145.

Number of teachers: 36.

Number of students: 313 men, 49 women, total 362.

Publications: *Prospectus, Calendar.*

There are 5 Departments: Physics, Chemistry, Biology, Mathematics, Geology.

Isfahan High Teacher's College: Shah Zadeh Ebrahim Ave., Isfahan; Tel.: 2120, 2188, 2189; f. 1965.

President: Prof. A. FAROUGHY, M.S., D.LIT., LL.D.

Number of books in library: 3,187.

Number of teachers: 16.

Number of students: 127 men, 26 women, total 153.

Publications: *Prospectus, Calendar.*

JUNDI SHAPUR UNIVERSITY

AHWAZ, KHOUZESTAN PROVINCE

Telephone: 6184

Founded 1955

The University comprises the Medical College, the Agricultural College; Second language of instruction: Persian; State control.

Chancellor: D. KAMEZI, M.D.

Vice-Chancellor: R. BEHIN, D.V.M., SC.D.

Registrar: R. TAJDARI.

Librarian: T. SALONY.

Number of teachers: 132.

Number of students: 1,099.

DEANS

School of Agriculture: Dr. F. DARVISH.

School of Medicine: Dr. D. KAZEMI.

School of Nursing: Dr. F. AMELI.

Teachers' Training College: Dr. R. BEHIN.

UNIVERSITY OF MESHED

KYABAN DÂNECHGÂHĖ, MESHED

Telephone: 4781

Founded 1947

Languages of instruction: Persian and English; State control.

Chancellor: ABDOLLAH FARYAR, PH.D.

Vice-Chancellor: MANSOUR NIAZI, PH.D.,

Registrar: MAHMUD RANYAR.

Number of teachers: 269.

Number of students: 2,653 men, 710 women, total 3,363.

Publications: *Journal of Meshed Medical School, Journal of Meshed Faculty of Letters and Humanities.*

DEANS:

Faculty of Theology: M. RANYAR, D.POL.SC.

Faculty of Dentistry: E. SONDOOZI, D.D.S.

IRAN—(UNIVERSITIES COLLEGES)

Faculty of Science M. A. MIRZAI PH D
Educational Training Centre A. SALAJEGHER PH D
Institute of Medical Technology A. OSKOOLIAN M D

NATIONAL UNIVERSITY OF IRAN ERWIN TEHRAN

Founded 1960

Chancellor Dr A. A. BINA
Deputy Chancellor A. P. YEKTA
Director-General A. ROOSTAYAN
Registrar Miss MALIHEH EIMAN
Librarian Mrs HAIDER GHALEBEGUI
 Number of students nearly 3 000
 Library of 11 000 volumes

DEANS

School of Banking Finance and Economics Dr M. H. FARROKH PARS
School of Architecture Dr M. JAHANARA
School of Medicine Prof. POOYAN
School of Foreign Languages Dr ALI AKBAR BINA
School of Sciences Dr A. KIANPOOR
School of Dentistry Dr H. NAVVAB

PAHLAVI UNIVERSITY (University of Shiraz) SHIRAZ

Telephone Shiraz 2111

Telegraphic Address Shiraz Daneshgah

Founded 1945

Languages of instruction Persian and English. Controlled by Board of Trustees. Academic year September to June (two semesters)

Chancellor Dr H. NAHAVANDI
Vice-Chancellor Dr A. GHAYAMI
Registrar M. BAZARGANI
Librarian Dr M. VESSAL

Number of teachers 200

Number of students 3 222

Publication *Kherad va Kushesh*

DEANS

Faculty of Medicine Dr A. FARPOUR
Faculty of Arts and Science Dr T. FAKUHI
Faculty of Engineering Dr A. AIDUV
Faculty of Agriculture Dr M. MAKARECHIAN

ATTACHED INSTITUTES

Asian Institute
 Geotechnic Institute of Iran

UNIVERSITY OF TABRIZ TABRIZ

Telephone 2517 2520

Founded 1946

Languages of instruction Persian and English. State control. Academic year September to June

Chancellor MANUCHEHR TASLIMI
Vice-Chancellors KAYVAN NADJMAHADI ALIAKBAR HASANALIZADE

Registrar H. DANAI
Librarian J. SHABAHANG
 Number of teachers 287
 Number of students 3 441
 The library has 70 000 volumes

DEANS

Faculty of Arts M. MORTAZAWI
Faculty of Medicine M. AMIRKABIRYAN
Faculty of Agriculture G. FUTUHI
Faculty of Science M. BAHRAMI
Faculty of Engineering M. MUSHIRI
Faculty of Pharmacology J. AFGAHI
Teachers Training College A. TABATABAI

UNIVERSITY OF TEHRAN

(State University)

AVENUE SHAHREZA TEHRAN

Telephone 40021 5

Founded 1934

Chancellor A. N. ALIKANI
Vice Rector for Academic Affairs and Research Dr C. MOFIDI
Vice Rector for Business and Financial Affairs A. ZIAI
Vice Rector for Student Affairs Dr C. MOFIDI (Acting)
General Secretary Dr H. FAYAZ
Registrar Dr M. R. BATANI
Director Department of Publications and Cultural Relations I. AFSHAR

Number of teachers 320

Number of students 17 243

DEANS

Faculty of Letters and Humanities Dr H. NASRE
Faculty of Agriculture Dr A. DAVACHI
Faculty of Dentistry Dr E. YAZDI
Faculty of Fine Arts A. MIRFENDERESKY
Faculty of Law M. GANDJI
Faculty of Medicine Dr N. MOJDEHI
Faculty of Pharmacy Dr A. ZARGARI
Faculty of Science K. DJENABE
Faculty of Engineering A. BADAERCHAN
Faculty of Theology M. MOHAMMADI
Faculty of Veterinary Medicine Dr A. RAFIE
Faculty of Forestry A. ASLI
Faculty of Public Health Dr M. A. FAGHIEH
Faculty of Business Administration Dr F. AKBARI
Faculty of Education Dr A. M. KARDAN

ATTACHED INSTITUTE

Tadj Pahlavi Cancer Institute P.O.B. 1154 Teheran Dir Dr A. HANIBI

Teheran University Nuclear Centre P.O.B. 2989 Teheran f 1958 research in various nuclear sciences and training and advice on peaceful applications of atomic energy. Acting Dir H. ROUHANI NEJAD

COLLEGES

Abadan Institute of Technology Abadan f 1938 re-organized 1956 and 1962 undergraduate courses B.Sc. degrees in Petroleum Technology Petroleum Engineering Chemical Engineering Gas Engineering Business Administration and Accounting postgraduate courses

IRAN—(COLLEGES)

in Petroleum Technology and Business Administration and Accounting; library of 12,000 vols.; Pres. K. KORMI, PH.D.; Vice-Pres. R. BABAYNN; 35 teachers.

Art College: Ahwaz.

Collège des Beaux Arts: Teheran; fine arts, music, drama, dancing.

Ecole Supérieure des Postes, Télégraphes et Téléphones: Centre d'Emission Pahlévi, Teheran; f. 1939; Dir.-Gen. MOHAMED HOVEYDA.

Forestry and Range School: Gorgan; f. 1957 to provide trained staff for the scientific management and development of forests, fisheries and ranges; Dir. R. HOGHOOGHI; 36 teachers, 340 students.

Military Academy: Teheran; Departments of Military History, Military Science and Tactics, International Relations and Treaties, General Engineering Science, Physics and Electronics, Military Armaments, Nuclear Warfare.

Teheran Polytechnic: Teheran; has five Institutes giving four-year courses in Civil, Mechanical, Petro-Chemical, Electrical, Electronic and Textile Engineering. Dir. Dr. MOHAMMAD J. JADBABAIE, PH.D.

Number of students: 900 men, 14 women.

School of Mapping and Surveying: P.O.B. 1844, Mahrabad, Teheran; f. 1965; a department of the National Cartographic Centre for training surveyors; Dir. E. FALAKCHAH. I.

Trade School: Shiraz; 39 trades are taught.

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Iraq

PHYSICAL AND SOCIAL GEOGRAPHY

Iraq is bounded on the north by Turkey, on the east by Iran, on the south by Kuwait and the Persian Gulf, on the south west by Saudi Arabia and Jordan, and on the north west by Syria. The actual frontier lines present one or two unusual features. In the first place, there exists between Iraq, Kuwait and Saudi Arabia a neutral zone, rhomboidal in shape, which is devised to facilitate the migrations of pastoral nomads who cover great distances each year in search of pasture for their animals and who move regularly between several countries. Hence the stabilization or closing of a frontier could be for them a matter of life and death. Secondly, the frontier with Iran in its extreme southern portion below Basra follows the course of the Shatt al Arab channel, but instead of running mid-way down the river course as is more usual, the frontier lies at the left (east) bank, placing the whole of the river within Iraq. Thirdly, the inclusion of the northern province of Mosul within Iraq was agreed only in 1926. Because of its oil deposits, this territory was in dispute between Turkey, Syria and Iraq. Again the presence of large numbers of migratory nomads journeying each season between Iran, Turkey, Syria and Iraq was a further complicating factor.

The old name of Iraq (Mesopotamia)—land between the rivers—indicates the main physical aspect of the country—the presence of the two river valleys of the Tigris and Euphrates, which merge in their lower courses. On the eastern side of this double valley the Zagros Mountains of Persia appear as an abrupt wall overhanging the riverine lowlands, particularly in the south below Baghdad. North of the latitude of Baghdad the rise to the mountains is more gradual, with several intervening hill ranges, such as the Jebel Hamrin. These ranges are fairly low and narrow at first, with separating lowlands, but towards the main Zagros topography becomes more imposing and summits over 10,000 ft in height occur. This region, lying north and east of Baghdad, is the ancient land of Assyria, and nowadays the higher hill ranges lying in the extreme east are called Iraqi Kurdistan, since many Kurdish tribes inhabit them.

On the western side of the river valley the land rises gradually to form the plateau which continues into Syria, Jordan and Saudi Arabia, and its maximum height in Iraq is about 3,000 ft. In places it is possible to trace a cliff formation where a more resistant bed of rock stands out prominently, and from this the name of the country is said to be derived (Arabic *Iraq* = cliff). There is no sharp geographical break between Iraq and its western neighbours, comparable with that between Iraq and Iran; the frontier lines are artificial.

It remains to describe the valley region itself and the two rivers. The Tigris is 150 miles in length (185 km.) rises in Turkey and is joined by numerous and often large tributaries both in Turkey and Iraq. The Euphrates is 460 miles in length (235 km.) also rises in Turkey and flows first through Syria and then Iraq, joining the Tigris in its lower course at Qurna, to form the stream known as the Shatt al Arab, which is 115 miles (185 km.) in length. Unlike the Tigris, the Euphrates receives no tributaries during its passage of Iraq. Above the region of Baghdad both rivers flow in well-defined channels, with retaining valley walls. Below Baghdad however the vestiges of a

retaining valley disappear and the rivers meander over a vast open plain with only a slight drop in level—in places merely 8 or 10 feet in 100 miles. Here the rivers are raised on great levees or banks of silt and mud (which they themselves have laid down) and now lie several feet above the level of the surrounding plain. One remarkable feature is the change in relative level of the two river beds—water can be led from one to the other according to the actual district and this possibility utilised by irrigation engineers for many centuries still remains the basic principle of present day development. At the same time the courses of both rivers can suddenly alter. A flood may breach the wall of the levee and the water then pours out on to the lower lying plain, inundating many square miles of territory. Ultimately the river finds a new course and builds a fresh levee. Old river channels, fully or partially abandoned by the river, are thus a feature of the Mesopotamian lowland associated with wide areas of swamp lakes and sand bars. The Tigris, though narrower than the Euphrates, is swifter and carries far more water.

As the sources of both rivers lie in the mountains of Turkey, the current is very fast and upstream navigation is difficult in the middle and upper reaches. In spring following the melting of snows in Asia Minor, both rivers begin to rise, reaching a maximum in April (Tigris) and May (Euphrates). The spring is a very anxious time, since floods of 12 to 20 feet occur and 32 feet is known—this in a region where the land may fall only 10 feet or less in level over 50 miles. Immense areas are regularly inundated, levees often collapse, and villages and roads, where these exist, must be built on high embankments. The Tigris is particularly liable to sudden flooding and can rise at the rate of one foot per hour. Contrasts with the Nile of Egypt will be noted. The latter river is confined in a steep-sided valley over most of its length and floods do not spread far away from the river. In lower Iraq, on the other hand, wide expanses are inundated every year, e.g. in early 1954 when a flood of 30 ft. occurred and many thousands were rendered homeless.

The summers are overwhelmingly hot, with shade temperatures of over 110°F and many inhabitants retire during the heat of the day to underground rooms. Winters may be surprisingly cold, frost though very rare at Basra, can be severe in the north. Sudden hot spells during winter are another feature in the centre and south of Iraq. Rainfall is scanty over all of the country, except for the north east (Assyria) where 15 to 25 inches occur—enough to grow crops without irrigation. Elsewhere farming is entirely dependent upon irrigation from river water. The great extent of standing water in many parts of Iraq leads to an unduly high air humidity, which explains the notorious reputation of the Mesopotamian summer.

The unusual physical conditions outlined present a number of obstacles to human activity. The flood waters are rather less manageable than in Egypt, and there is less of the regular deposition of thick, rich silt that is such a feature of the Nile. The effects of this are strikingly visible in the relatively small extent of land actually cultivated—at most only one sixth of the potentially cultivable territory and 3 per cent of the total area of the country. The population of about 8 million is about a quarter of that of Egypt. Because of the easy availability of agricul-

tural land, wasteful, "extensive" farming methods are often followed, giving a low yield. On the whole, Iraq is underpopulated, and could support larger numbers of inhabitants.

A feature of the last few years has been the use of oil royalties (now over £200 million per annum) for national development schemes, particularly in irrigation. New barrages are in construction along the main rivers and their tributaries, the most important recent works being the Wadi Tharthar Scheme, the Dokan Dam, and the Derbendi Khan Dam; besides providing irrigation water this scheme allows the drawing off of flood waters and has effectively reduced any further risk of disastrous flooding. With the completion of Phase I of the Wadi Tharthar scheme, the liability to flooding has been greatly diminished. This has meant great changes, especially in the Baghdad region. Buildings and roads need no longer always be placed on embankments.

The unusual physical conditions have greatly restricted movement and the development of communications of all kinds. In the upper reaches of the rivers boat journeys can only be made downstream, whilst nearer the sea the rivers are wider and slower but often very shallow. Roads are difficult to maintain because of the floods, and the railways have two differing gauges—standard and metre; the latter is however in process of replacement and with decreased risk of flooding, standard gauge has been laid between Baghdad and Basra via Kut. The effect has been to leave in isolation many communities that have differing ways of life and even differing languages and religious beliefs. Numerous minority groups are hence a feature of Iraq.

In the marshes of the extreme south there are communities of Arabs who spend most of their lives in boats and rafts. Other important minorities live in, or close to, the hill country of the north: the Kurds, who number over one million and migrate extensively into Syria, Turkey, and Iran; the Yazidis of the Jebel Sinjar; the Assyrian Christians (the name refers to their geographical location, and has no historical connection); and various communities of Uniate and Orthodox Christians. As well, there were important groups of Jews—more than in most other Muslim countries—though since the establishment of the State of Israel much emigration has taken place. It should also be noted that whilst the majority of the Muslims follow Shi'a rites, the wealthier Muslims are of Sunni adherence.

Ethnically, the position is very complicated. The northern and eastern hill districts contain many racial elements—Turki, Persian, and proto-Nordic, with Armenoid strains predominating. The pastoral nomads of western Iraq are, as might be expected, of fairly unmixed Mediterranean ancestry, like the nomads of Syria, Jordan, and Saudi Arabia; but the population of the riverine districts of Iraq shows a mixture of Armenoid and Mediterranean elements. North of the Baghdad district the Armenoid strain is dominant, but to the south, it is less important, though still present.

Arabic is the official and most widely used language. Kurdish and dialects of Turkish are current in the north, whilst variants of Persian are spoken by tribesmen in the east. An estimate, probably over-generous to the Arabic speakers, puts the relative numbers at: Arabic, 79 per cent, Kurdish, 16 per cent, Persian, 3 per cent, and Turkish, 2 per cent of the total population.

HISTORY

Iraq was one of the earliest centres of civilisation. Before 3000 B.C., the Sumerians, a people of problematical origin, had established in the alluvial areas of the south a complex society based on irrigation and agriculture. In about 2500 B.C., one of the small Sumerian city states, Lagash, forced into transient union with itself four of its rivals and even extended its rule over parts of Elam (S.W. Persia). Not long afterwards, Lugalzaggisi, the lord of Umma, conquered the whole of the delta region. His empire fell when the Akkadians, a Semitic race settled to the immediate north of Sumer, in the area around Babylon, rose in revolt and founded a state which reached to the Mediterranean. Akkadian rule soon collapsed under the assault of the Elamites and of "Manda" tribesmen from the northern mountains. After some two or three centuries of chaos, a new empire was created in southern Iraq. In the time of the great king Hammurabi it attained a high degree of splendour, only to crumble in its turn before the advance of invaders from the north and east, amongst them the Kassites, who subdued Sumer and Akkad in about 1600 B.C. Henceforward, for a thousand years, southern Iraq was to play a subordinate role.

In the north, new powers were emerging, first of all, Mitanni, perhaps the earliest state to use iron on a large scale for military purposes. The Mitannians seem to have occupied or, at least, often invaded northern Iraq during the fifteenth and fourteenth centuries B.C. At last their rule disintegrated under constant pressure from the

Hittites of Asia Minor, whose influence, in the years following the reign of their great king Shubbiluliuma (c. 1390–1350 B.C.), was advanced almost to the Persian Gulf. Meanwhile, on the higher reaches of the Tigris, the war-like Assyrians, who hastened the decline of Mitanni and the Hittite empire, embarked from time to time on a career of conquest destined to be of brief duration, as under Adad-nirari I (c. 1300 B.C.) and Tiglath-pileser I (c. 1200 B.C.), broke the power of Urartu, a great highland kingdom in the region of Lake Van (ninth-eighth centuries B.C.) and created the most terrible military machine that the world had yet known. In the reign of Ashur-nasir-pal II (883–859 B.C.) Assyrian ambition burst forth to form an empire which, during the years of its splendour (883–626 B.C.), embraced Urartu and other Armenian territories, Babylonia, Syria, Egypt and large areas of Persia. An army of unprecedented efficiency, mass-deportations on a vast scale, relentless cruelty, a régime of rigid and despotic centralisation—these features of Assyrian rule evoked the bitter enmity of the subject peoples, who, when the empire weakened as a result of incessant warfare and of Scythian invasion from the north, rose in combined revolt and sacked Nineveh in 612 B.C. Iraq now became the centre of a neo-Babylonian state which, under Nebuchadnezzar (604–562 B.C.), included much of the Fertile Crescent, but was soon to fall before the Persians, who seized Babylon in 539–538 B.C. Thereafter, Iraq was a mere province of the vast Achaemenid empire, which extended from Asia Minor

to the Punjab in north-west India and from southern Russia to Egypt. Alexander the Great brought Persian rule to an end in a series of brilliant campaigns (334–327 B.C.). After his death in 323 B.C., one of his generals, Seleucus, controlled most of the Asiatic lands which the conqueror had dominated. The Seleucids maintained their hold on Iraq for more than a hundred years and then in the course of prolonged warfare, lost it to the Parthians, who during the third and second centuries B.C. founded a powerful state in Persia. Under the Parthians Iraq was a frontier province over against the might of Rome. To the north and west of Mesopotamia a line of strong fortresses, e.g. Carrhae (Harran), Edessa (modern Urfa), Diyarbakir, Dara Nisibin, marked the ground where the rival armies fought. At Carrhae, in 54 B.C., the Parthian horsemen severely defeated the Romans but from the time of Augustus until the reign of the Emperor Trajan there was no major war between the two states. Between A.D. 113 and 117, Trajan conquered much of Iraq yet his successor, Hadrian, felt that it would be too expensive to defend the new territories and so abandoned them. Rome resumed the offensive under Marcus Aurelius (162–166), Septimius Severus (193–199) and Caracalla (216–218), her rule being now extended from the middle Euphrates to the Khabor river. The Parthian domination came to an end in 224 owing to internal revolt in Persia. The emergence of the Sassanid régime now began. In 260, Sapor I crushed the Romans in battle near Edessa and captured the Emperor Valerian. The endless frontier hostilities flared out once more into violent war under Diocletian, Constantius and Julian (third-fourth centuries), the Romans being forced back behind the line of the Euphrates. The conflict then died down for more than a hundred years and was not resumed on a large scale until the Sassanid state recovered much of its old vigour under Kobad I (483–531) and Khusrav Anushirvan (531–579). The prolonged warfare of the sixth-seventh centuries came to an end with the brilliant campaigns of the Byzantine Emperor Heraclius in Armenia and Iraq (622–628). Byzantium and Persia were by now exhausted and in the meantime a formidable danger had arisen in the far south.

MEDIEVAL PERIOD

The prophet Muhammad (d. 632) had created at Mecca and Medina a religious and political organisation that aroused powerful forces long latent in Arabia. The Arab nomads of the great desert, united within the community of Islam, were forbidden to pursue their ancient tribal feuds. The restless energy thus concentrated in the Muslim state found an outlet in war outside Arabia. By 634 the Arab warriors had begun the conquest of Iraq. The battle of Qadisiya in 637 led to the fall of the Persian capital, Ctesiphon, in June of that year. A further battle at Jalula marked the end of Sassanid power in Iraq although resistance continued in the north until the Arabs took Mosul in 641. Kufa and Basra became the two great garrison cities on which Muslim rule in Iraq was to be based for the next hundred years.

The murder of the Caliph 'Uthman in 656 brought about a civil war between his successor, Ali, and Mu'awiya a kinsman of 'Uthman, who had long been governor of Syria. After an indecisive battle at Siffin in 657 the two rivals had recourse to arbitration, as a result of which at Adhruh in January 659 both men were deposed from their respective positions a judgment which deprived Ali of his real status as Caliph and Mu'awiya of a pretension to that office which as yet he had not ventured openly to avow. The outcome of the conflict remained uncertain during the next two years, until at length the murder of Ali at Kufa in January 661 left the way clear for Mu'awiya to become Caliph. The war revealed that effective power within the

new empire was passing from Mecca and Medina to the great garrison cities where the main Arab armies were stationed. Ali had been obliged to go from the Hijaz to Iraq, his chief support coming from Kufa. Mu'awiya relied for his success on the strength of Syria. The real issue had been whether Iraq or Syria should be the metropolitan province of the empire. With the emergence of Mu'awiya as Caliph in 661, the question was decided, for almost a hundred years, in favour of Syria. During the period of the Umayyad dynasty (661–750) Iraq became the centre of the movement known as the Shi'atu 'Ali, i.e. "the party of 'Ali". Born amongst the Arabs themselves, it assumed at first the form of a "legitimist" opposition to Umayyad rule, asserting that the Caliphate should of right belong to the descendants of 'Ali, the son in law of the Prophet. As a purely Arab and political faction, resting to a large degree on the bitter dislike of Iraq for the hegemony of Syria, it was to meet with failure, for the armies of Kufa and Basra could not overcome the military pre-eminence of the Syrians. At Karbala in October 680, Husain, the son of 'Ali, fell in battle against the Umayyad forces in Iraq. This event, by giving to the Shi'a an illustrious martyr, inaugurated a new and rapid growth of the party, not on the political level but as a religious sect.

UMAYYAD RULE

The Umayyad state was based on the fundamental assumption that a vast subject population, non-Muslim and non-Arab, would continue indefinitely to yield tribute to a dominant Arab and Muslim warrior aristocracy, the revenues derived from the conquered territories and from the *jizya*, i.e. the poll tax imposed on those who did not belong to the faith of the Prophet, being shared out amongst the members of that aristocracy. Whether from a genuine acceptance of the new religion or from motives of self-interest, e.g. to escape the poll tax and to secure the financial, economic and social privileges of the Arab Muslims, the subject peoples began to adopt Islam. The revenues of the state fell and the decline could not be made good through the acquisition of rich new lands, for the age of rapid conquest was over. Since Muhammad had declared all Muslims to be equal, the new converts or Mawali, demanded that the Arabs concede to them a due participation in the rewards of empire. When it became clear that the Arab aristocracy meant to defend its pensions, privileges and other exclusive rights—the available resources of the state were insufficient to meet the claims of the ever-increasing numbers of Mawali—a crisis of the first magnitude threatened the Umayyad régime. The Mawali now gave their allegiance to the Shi'a, transforming the movement into a means for the expression of their social and economic grievances against the established order and, at the same time, remoulding it as a religious sect which embraced ideas not of Muslim origin but derived from their previous Christian, Jewish and Zoroastrian traditions. This radical change in the Shi'a was already visible in the years 635–687, when a serious revolt occurred at Kufa in the name of Muhammad ibn al-Hanafiya, a son of 'Ali by a wife other than Fatima, the daughter of the Prophet. The Umayyad Caliph 'Umar II (717–720) introduced a series of financial reforms designed to conciliate the Mawali, a policy which met with only a transient success, for the ultimate effect of his measures was to increase the expenditure and lower the revenue of the state. Disillusionment grew apace amongst the non-Arab Muslims. An efficient propaganda machine, known under the name of the Hashimiyas, made its appearance in Iraq, its task being to disseminate extreme Shi'a ideas. In 716 control of this organisation fell into the hands of Muhammad ibn 'Ali ibn al-Abbas descended from an uncle of the Prophet. Its chief centre of activity was in the great frontier province of

Khurasan, in north-east Persia, where Arab colonies from Basra and Kufa had settled in about 670. Abu Muslim, a Persian Mawla of Iraq, was sent to Khurasan as confidential agent of the Hashimiya in 743 and there raised the standard of revolt against the Umayyads. Syria, long since weakened by fierce tribal feuds amongst the Arabs, could not withstand the storm. In 750 Umayyad rule came to an end and was replaced by that of the 'Abbasid dynasty, while Iraq at last achieved her ambition of becoming the dominant province of the empire.

'ABBASID RULE

The 'Abbasid caliphs had now an immediate and urgent task to perform. It was impossible for them to govern as the representatives of the more advanced elements in the Shi'a, when most of their Muslim subjects were of the Sunni or orthodox faith. The second 'Abbasid, al-Mansur (754-775), the real founder of the new régime, therefore abandoned the extremists who had done so much to bring his house to power. He also built a new garrison city in Iraq for his main army, the hard core of which consisted largely of regiments from Khurasan. This capital of the 'Abbasid empire, Baghdad, soon developed into a great emporium of trade and a political centre of vast importance. An autocratic caliph, claiming divine authority for his power, which rested on regular armed forces and was exercised through a paid bureaucracy; a cosmopolitan ruling class of officials and landowners, of merchants and bankers; the 'Ulama, i.e. the hierarchy of religious scholars, jurists, teachers and dignitaries—these were the main characteristics of the 'Abbasid Caliphate, which for a time brought to Iraq and, indeed, to the Islamic state as a whole a splendid prosperity derived from a flourishing agriculture and industry and from the lucrative transit trade between India and the Mediterranean.

It was in regard to political unity that the 'Abbasid empire proved most vulnerable. The relative cohesion which the Muslim state had enjoyed owing to the dominance of the Arab warrior aristocracy did not survive the revolution of 750. The new dynasty sought to use the Muslim faith itself as a means of binding together the varied ethnic and social elements of the population, but the attempt was soon shown to be a failure. After the death of Harun ar-Rashid (789-809), whose reign marked the apogee of 'Abbasid power, civil war broke out between his sons Amin and Ma'mun, the former depending largely on the support of Iraq, the latter on the strength of Persia and, above all, on the troops of Khurasan. The conflict was, in one sense, a battle between Persia and Iraq for pre-eminence within the empire. Ma'mun conquered Baghdad in 813, but for a time considered the idea of making Marv in Khurasan his capital, a project which he abandoned only when he realised that it would lead to repeated revolt in Iraq. In August 819 he returned to Baghdad.

Persia, disappointed in its hopes, now began to break away from the caliphs of Baghdad. Local dynasties made their appearance in the east, the Tahirids in 820, the Saffarids in 867, the Samanids in c. 892. A similar process occurred in the west, Spain after 756, Morocco after 788, Tunisia after 800 being virtually independent of Baghdad. In 868 the dynasty of the Tulunids arose in Egypt. The more extreme elements of the Shi'a were also active, especially in Persia and the neighbouring regions, inspiring repeated insurrections against the 'Abbasid régime, as in 755, 767, 776-789 and 816-837. Southern Iraq suffered heavily in the revolt of the Negro slaves known as Zanj (869-883), Basra being sacked in 871. The Qarmatians, a religious movement of communistic and revolutionary tendencies, founded a strong régime of their own in the province of Bahrain (now called al-Hasa) and for most of the tenth century carried out frequent raids into Iraq.

Meanwhile, at Baghdad, since the reigns of al-Mu'tasim (833-842) and al-Wathiq (842-847), power had fallen gradually into the hands of the army commanders and the imperial guards, who by this time consisted, to an ever greater degree, of Turkish Mamluks and were able to appoint and depose the caliphs at their will. Iraq fell at length under the domination of Daylamite mountain dwellers from the region south of the Caspian Sea, Shi'i in religion and led by a family of *condottiere* chieftains, the Buwaihids, who, after subduing most of western Persia, occupied Baghdad in 945. Buwaihid rule—a period of the deepest degradation for the Caliphate, since the Commander of the Faithful was now a mere puppet obedient to the orders of a Shi'i—lasted until 1055. It then collapsed before the assault of Turks from the steppe lands beyond the Oxus, who, under the guidance of the Seljuqs, a family also of *condottiere* origin, overran Persia and then seized Baghdad. The Seljuq Turks were Sunni Muslims and their success was not unwelcome amongst the orthodox, who regarded it as a liberation from the yoke of the Shi'i Buwaihids. Yet the Caliph, although treated with deference, was still only in name the head of the state, all effective power being concentrated in the hands of the Seljuq Sultan. After the death of Malik Shah in 1092, dynastic dissension and revolt amongst the Turkish tribesmen brought about a rapid decline of the new régime and the rise of succession states ruled by princes or by officers of the Seljuq house. In Iraq a series of nine Seljuq sultans ruled from 1118-94, almost all of them fated to die a violent death in conflict with rival claimants or with their Atabegs, i.e. amirs, who were the most powerful figures in the land. Some of these Atabegs established independent principalities of their own, e.g. the Zangid dynasty at Mosul, which played an important role in arousing the Muslims to defend Islam against the Christian Crusaders in Syria. The last Seljuq Sultan of Iraq, Tughril (1177-94), was defeated in battle with the Turkish ruler of Khwarizm (the region of Khiva, south of the Aral Sea). The victor, Takash (1172-1200), and his successor, 'Ala'ad-Din Muhammad (1200-20), sought to extend their rule over Iraq, but, before this ambition could be realised, the Mongols destroyed the power of the Khwarizm shahs.

By 1220 the great conqueror Jenghiz Khan had overrun all Transoxania and was threatening to invade Persia. His death in 1227 led to a long pause in the Mongol advance. In 1253 Hülakü, a grandson of Jenghiz Khan, moved westward in force, captured Baghdad in 1258 and thus made an end of the 'Abbasid Caliphate. The devastation wrought by the Mongols in Iraq was severe. There now occurred a breakdown of civil government. Grave damage had been done to the irrigation system, and Bedouin tribes encroached more and more on the settled areas. Subordinated henceforth to the Mongol Khan of Persia, Iraq became a mere frontier province bereft of all its former wealth and splendour. On the death of the Mongol Khan Abu Sa'id in 1336, Iraq, after a brief period of confusion, passed into the hands of a new dynasty, the Jala'irids, who ruled over the land until the early years of the fifteenth century. During this period Baghdad suffered another dire blow, when in 1401 Timur Beg sacked it with merciless severity. The Jala'irid régime did not long outlast the death of Timur in 1405. To the north of Iraq, around Lake Van, a powerful Turcoman confederation, known as the Black Sheep (Kara Koyunlu) was rising into prominence. The Turcomans defeated the last Jala'irid, Ahmed, and created a new state which, under Jihan Shah (1444-67), extended from Tabriz to the Shatt al-'Arab. The power of the Kara Koyunlu soon collapsed in war with a rival Turcoman confederation, that of the Ak Koyunlu (White Sheep), who, led by their famous chieftain, Uzun Hasan (1423?-78), crushed Jihan Shah and took over the territories which he had ruled. Dynastic quarrels brought about a rapid dis-

integration of the White Sheep ascendancy. In the years 1499-1508 the Safavid Isma'il (whose ancestors were hereditary masters of a powerful religious order notable for its advanced Shi'i teaching and, from their main centre at Ardabil near the Caspian Sea, had fashioned their numerous adherents amongst the Turcoman tribes of Asia Minor into a formidable military movement) destroyed the now crumbling Ak Koyunlu régime, made himself Shah of Persia and also conquered Iraq. To the Ottoman Sultan, the dissemination of Shi'i beliefs among the tribes of Anatolia was a menace which had to be eliminated for it threatened to undermine his own control in that region, the Ottomans being Sunni i.e. orthodox Muslims. Selim I made war on Shah Isma'il in 1514 and so began a protracted conflict between the Ottomans and the Safavids which was to last, with long intervals of precarious peace, until 1639. Sultan Süleyman, in the course of his first campaign against Persia, conquered Baghdad in 1534-35.

OTTOMAN IRAQ

The Ottomans were to find Iraq a most difficult and expensive province to administer. Religious animosities proved to be a constant source of trouble. Northern Iraq and Kurdistan followed largely the Sunni faith. Baghdad itself was divided in its allegiance between Sunni and Shi'i Islam. Southern Iraq was a region under strong Shi'i influence. The task of restraining nomad tribes from raiding the settled lands was an endless and wearisome business. Moreover, the tribes of the delta marshlands and of the mountainous areas close to the frontier with Persia were ever liable to rise in revolt against the administration. From time to time Iraq was the scene of warfare between the Ottomans and the Safavids, e.g., in the years 1578-90, and indeed came once more under Persian control, when Shah Abbas (1578-1629) seized Baghdad in 1623 and retained it in the face of a determined Ottoman counter-offensive in 1625/26. After a second attempt at reconquest in 1629/30 had failed, the Ottomans at last recovered Baghdad in 1638 and in the next year made peace with the Safavids.

As the Ottoman state fell into decline, the Sultan at Istanbul became less able to dominate the course of events in so distant a province as Iraq. From about 1623 until 1668 Basra and the Delta marshlands were in the hands of local chieftains independent of the Ottoman administration at Baghdad, a state of affairs which recurred in the period 1694-1701. The appointment of Hasan Pasha to command at Baghdad in 1704 marked a new phase in the history of Ottoman Iraq. The pashalik was to pass from himself to his son, then to the husbands of his granddaughters, and thereafter to a series of Mamluk governors raised and trained in the household of his immediate successors. From 1704 to 1831 the Sultan failed to enforce at Baghdad an appointment of his own choice. Hasan Pasha died in 1723, just at the moment when the Ottomans had become involved in a new war against Persia. His son, Ahmed Pasha, occupied Kermanshah, which Hasan himself had seized in the first stage of the conflict, and then overran Hamadan and Luristan, but these lands were lost once more to Persia when Nadir Shah, in the years after 1729 invaded Iraq. Baghdad itself withstood a siege in 1733 and Mosul underwent the same experience in 1743. The war brought much suffering to Iraq, the province falling as a result of frequent revolt amongst the restless tribesmen and the devastation caused by repeated campaigns, into a state of anarchy. None the less, Ahmed Pasha remained throughout this period in firm control of Baghdad and Basra and also exercised a strong influence over the affairs of Mosul and Kirkuk. He lived to see peace made with Persia in 1746 on terms which restored the general position to what it had been before the war. A few

months later, in 1747, he died, leaving no son to succeed him. The palace household which his father had created and which he himself had further developed contained Mamluks recruited for the most part from Georgia, converted to Islam and trained in their youth for subsequent service in the administration of Iraq. After a brief interval of confusion, in which the Porte tried to impose its own nominee but soon had to admit failure, Süleyman Agha, one of the Mamluks whom Hasan Pasha had bought and educated, became the governor of Baghdad and Basra, an office which he held with great success for twelve years until his death in 1762. Yet another Mamluk, 'Umr Agha, ruled Iraq from 1762 to 1775. Internal strife and a frontier war which led to a Persian occupation of Basra marked the period immediately following his death. At length, in 1780, the most famous of the Mamluk pashas, Süleyman the Great, assumed the government of Baghdad and Basra. Much of his time was spent in curbing the Kurdish chieftains in the north and the Arab tribes, above all the powerful Muntafiq confederation in the south of Iraq. From about 1790 he had to face the enmity of the formidable Wahhabi state recently founded in central Arabia. The raids of the Wahhabi tribesmen into Iraq intensified until in 1801 the great Shi'i sanctuary of Karbala was taken and sacked. The death of Süleyman in the next year threw Iraq into even greater confusion. There were further Wahhabi *raids*, e.g. against Najaf in 1803 and Basra in 1804, and constant trouble with the tribes along the Persian border. It was only in 1817 that the last of the Mamluk pashas, Da'ud, secured control of the province and restored some semblance of order by repeated punitive campaigns against the Kurds and the nomads of the desert lands. Meanwhile, reforms were being introduced at Istanbul which foreshadowed the end of the Mamluk régime in Iraq. Selim III (1789-1807) and Mahmud II (1808-39) sought to refashion the administration and the military forces of the empire on European lines. The moment when the Ottoman Sultan would attempt to end the Mamluk system and regain direct government of Iraq was now at hand. Mahmud II sent 'Ali Ridha Pasha to perform this task in 1831. A severe outbreak of plague crippled the resistance of the Mamluks. Da'ud Pasha was deposed, the Mamluk regiments were at once exterminated. A new phase in the history of Iraq was about to begin.

WESTERN INFLUENCE

Although some of the European nations had long been in contact with Iraq through their commercial interests in the Persian Gulf, western influences were slow to penetrate into the province. By 1800 there was a British Resident at Basra and two years later a British Consulate at Baghdad. France also maintained agents in these cities. French and Italian religious orders had settlements in the land. It was not, however, until after 1831 that signs of more rapid European penetration became visible, such as steam boats on the rivers of Iraq in 1836, telegraph lines from 1861 and a number of proposals for railways, none of which was to materialise for a long time to come. The Ottoman government did much in the period between 1831 and 1850 to impose direct control over Kurdistan and the mountainous areas close to the Persian border, but the introduction of reforms was not, in fact, begun until in 1869 Midhat Pasha arrived at Baghdad. Much of his work, performed in the brief space of three years, proved to be superficial and ill-considered, yet he was able to set Iraq on a course from which there could be no retreat in the future. A newspaper, military factories, a hospital, an almshouse, schools, a tramway, conscription for the army, municipal and administrative councils, comparative security on the main routes and a reasoned policy of settling tribesmen on the land—these achievements, however imperfect, bear solid

witness to the vigour of his rule. After his departure in 1872, reform and European influence continued to advance, although slowly. Postal services were much developed, a railway from Baghdad to Samarra was completed in 1914 (part of the projected *Baghdadbahn*, which betokened the rapid growth of German interest in the Ottoman Empire) and the important Hindiya Barrage on the Euphrates was rebuilt between 1910 and 1913. The measures of reform and improvement introduced between 1831 and 1914 must indeed be judged as belated and inadequate—the Iraq of 1900 differed little from that of 1500—yet a process of fundamental change had begun, which no régime, however inept, could reverse.

In November 1914 Britain and the Ottoman Empire were at war. British troops occupied the Shatt al-'Arab region and, under the pressure of war needs, transformed Basra into an efficient and well-equipped port. A premature advance on Baghdad in 1915 ended in the retreat of the British forces to Kut, their prolonged defence of that town and, when all attempts to relieve it had failed, the capitulation to the Ottomans in April 1916. A new offensive launched from Basra in the autumn of that year brought about the capture of Baghdad in March 1917. Kirkuk was taken in 1918, but, before the Allies could seize Mosul, the Ottoman government sought and obtained an armistice in October. For two years, until the winter of 1920, the Commander-in-Chief of the British Forces, acting through a civil commissioner, continued to be responsible for the administration of Iraq from Basra to Mosul, all the apparatus of a modern system of rule being created at Baghdad—e.g., departments of Land, Posts and Telegraphs, Agriculture, Irrigation, Police, Customs, Finance, etc. The new régime was Christian, foreign and strange, resented by reason of its very efficiency, feared and distrusted no less by those whose loyalties were Muslim and Ottoman than by important elements who desired self-determination for Iraq. The last phase of Ottoman domination in Iraq, especially during the years after the Young Turk Revolution in 1908, had witnessed a marked growth of Arab nationalist sentiment. Local circles in Iraq now made contact with the Ottoman Decentralisation Party at Cairo, founded in 1912, and with the Young Arab Society, which moved from Paris to Beirut in 1913. Basra, in particular, became a centre of Arab aspirations and took the lead in demanding from Istanbul a measure of autonomy for Iraq. A secret organisation, al-'Ahd (the Covenant) included a number of Iraqi officers serving in the Ottoman armies. The prospect of independence which the Allies held out to the Arabs in the course of the war strengthened and extended the nationalist movement. In April 1920 Britain received from the conference at San Remo a mandate for Iraq. This news was soon followed by a serious insurrection amongst the tribesmen of the south. The revolt, caused partly by instinctive dislike of foreign rule but also by vigorous nationalist propaganda, was not wholly suppressed until early in the next year. In October 1920 military rule was formally terminated in Iraq. An Arab Council of State, advised by British officials and responsible for the administration now came into being and in March 1921 the Amir Faisal ibn Husain agreed to rule as King at Baghdad. His ceremonial accession took place on August 23rd, 1921.

The Najdi (Saudi Arabian) frontier with Iraq was defined in the Treaty of Mohammara in May 1922. Saudi concern over loss of traditional grazing rights resulted in further talks between Ibn Saud and the U.K. Civil Commissioner in Iraq, and a Neutral Zone of 7,000 sq. km. was established adjacent to the western tip of the Kuwait frontier. No military or permanent buildings were to be erected in the zone and the nomads of both countries were to have unimpeded access to its pastures and wells. A

further agreement concerning the administration of this zone was signed between Iraq and Saudi Arabia in May 1938.

MODERN IRAQ

Despite the opposition of the more extreme nationalists, an Anglo-Iraqi Treaty was signed on October 10th, 1922. It embodied the provisions of the mandate, safeguarded the judicial rights of foreigners and guaranteed the special interests of Britain in Iraq. Subsidiary agreements were to be made covering military co-operation, the status of British officials and also matters of justice and finance. An Electoral Law, published in May 1922, prepared the way for the choice of a constituent assembly, which met in March 1924 and, in the face of strong opposition by the nationalists, ratified the treaty with Britain. It accepted, too, an Organic Law declaring Iraq to be a sovereign state with a constitutional hereditary monarchy and a representative system of government. In 1925 the League of Nations recommended that the *vilayet* of Mosul, to which the Turks had laid claim, be incorporated into the new kingdom, a decision finally implemented in the treaty of July 1926 between the interested parties, Britain, Turkey and Iraq. By this year a fully constituted Parliament was in session at Baghdad and all the ministries, as well as most of the larger departments of the administration, were in effective Iraqi control. Moreover, the state now possessed a competent judicial organisation, a small army of about 7,500 men and a police force well equipped to deal with the refractory desert tribesmen. In 1930 a new treaty was signed with Britain, which established between the two countries a close alliance for a period of 25 years. The agreement provided for full consultation in foreign affairs and mutual aid in time of war. Iraq undertook to grant free passage for British troops and all other needful facilities, recognizing the importance to Britain of its "essential communications" in the region. British forces were also to hold two air bases at Shu'ayba and Habbaniya. On October 3rd, 1932 Iraq entered the League of Nations as an independent power, the mandate being now terminated.

The difficulties which confronted the kingdom in the period after 1932 required much time and effort for their solution: e.g. the animosities between the Sunni Muslims and the powerful Shi'i tribes on the Euphrates, which tended to divide and embitter political life; the problem of relations with the Kurds, some of whom desired a state of their own, and with other minorities like the Assyrians; the complicated task of reform in land tenure and of improvement in agriculture, irrigation, flood control, public services and communications. As yet the government itself consisted of little more than a façade of democratic forms concealing a world of faction and intrigue. The realities of the political scene were a xenophobe press often ill-informed and irresponsible, "parties" better described as cliques gathered around prominent personalities, a small ruling class of tribal sheikhs, landowners and the intelligentsia—lawyers, students, journalists, doctors, ex-officers—frequently torn by sharp rivalries. It is not surprising, therefore, that the first years of full independence showed a rather halting progress towards efficient rule. The dangerous nature of the tensions inside Iraq was revealed in the Assyrian massacre of 1933 carried out by troops of the Iraq army. Political intrigue from Baghdad had much to do with the outbreak of tribal revolt along the Euphrates in 1935/36. The army crushed the insurrection without much trouble and then, under the leadership of General Bakr Sidqi and in alliance with disappointed politicians and reformist elements, brought about a *coup d'état* in October 1936. The new régime failed to fulfil its assurances of reform, its policies alienated the tribal chieftains and gave rise to serious tensions even within the armed forces,

IRAQ—(HISTORY)

tensions which led to the assassination of Bakr Sidqi in August 1937

Of vast importance for Iraq was the rapid development of the oil industry during these years. Concessions were granted in 1925, 1932 and 1936 to the Iraq, Mosul and Basra Petroleum Companies. Oil had been discovered in the Kirkuk area in 1927 and by the end of 1934 the Iraq Petroleum Company was exporting crude oil through two 12 inch pipelines, one leading to Tripoli and the other to Haifa. Exploitation of the Mosul and Basra fields did not begin on a commercial scale until after World War II.

In 1937 Iraq joined Turkey, Persia and Afghanistan in the Saadabad Pact which arranged for consultation in all disputes that might affect the common interests of the four states. A treaty signed with Persia in July 1937 and ratified in the following year provided for the specific acceptance of the boundary between the two countries as it had been defined in 1914. Relations with Britain deteriorated in the period after 1937, mainly because of the growth of anti Zionist feeling and of resentment at British policy in Palestine. German influence increased very much at this time in Iraq especially amongst those political and military circles associated with the army group later to be known as the Golden Square. Iraq severed her diplomatic connections with Germany at the beginning of World War II, but in 1941 the army commanders carried out a new *coup d'état*, establishing, under the nominal leadership of Rashid 'Alai-Gaylani, a régime which announced its non belligerent intentions. A disagreement over the passage of British troops through Iraq left no doubt of the pro-German sympathies of the Gaylani government and led to hostilities that ended with the occupation of Basra and Baghdad in May 1941. Thereafter Iraq co-operated effectively with the Allied war effort and became an important base from which aid was sent northward through Persia to Russia. In 1943 Iraq declared war on the Axis powers and in 1945 signed the Charter of the United Nations.

Iraq, during the years after World War II, was to experience much internal tension and unrest. Negotiations with Britain led to the signing at Portsmouth in January 1948 of a new Anglo-Iraqi agreement designed to replace that of 1930 and incorporating substantial concessions, amongst them the British evacuation of the airbases at Shu'ayba and Habbaniya and the creation of a joint board for the co-ordination of all matters relating to mutual defence. The animosities arising from the situation in Palestine called forth riots at Baghdad directed against the new agreement with Britain which were sufficiently disturbing to oblige the Iraqi Government to repudiate the Portsmouth settlement.

ARAB-ISRAEL WAR 1948

With anti-Jewish and anti Western feeling so intense it was inevitable that troops should be sent from Iraq to the Arab-Israeli war which began on May 15th, 1948. The Iraqi troops shared in the hostilities for a period of just over two months, their participation terminating in a truce operative from July 18th. Their final withdrawal from Palestine did not commence, however, until April 1949. Subsequently, there was a considerable emigration of Jews from Iraq to Israel, especially in the years 1952-53.

The expense of the war against Israel, bad harvests the general indigence of the people—all contributed to bring about serious tensions resulting in rioting at Baghdad in November 1952 and the imposition of martial law until October 1953. None the less there were some favourable prospects for the future—notably a large expansion of the oil industry. Pipe lines were built to Tripoli in 1949

and to Baniyas in Syria in 1952, the oil fields of Mosul and Basra were producing much crude petroleum by 1951-52. A National Development Board was created in 1950 and became later, in 1953, a national ministry. An agreement of February 1952 gave to the Iraq Government 50 per cent of the oil companies' profits before deductions for foreign taxes. Abundant resources were thus available for development projects of national benefit (cf. the flood control and irrigation works opened in April 1956 on the Tigris at Samarra and on the Euphrates at Ramadi).

THE BAGHDAD PACT

Iraq, in the field of foreign relations, was confronted during these years with a choice between the Western powers eager to establish in the Middle East an organized pattern of defence, and the Soviet Union, entering at this time into a diplomatic propaganda and economic drive to increase her influence in the Arab lands. Baghdad, in February 1955, made with Ankara an alliance for mutual co-operation and defence. Britain acceded to this pact in the following April, agreeing also to end the Anglo-Iraqi agreement of 1930 and to surrender her air bases at Shu'ayba and Habbaniya. With the adherence of Pakistan in September and of Iran in October 1955 the so-called Baghdad Pact was completed, a defensive cordon now existed along the southern fringe of the Soviet Union. It was resolved, in November 1955, to form a permanent Council of the Baghdad Pact and, in April 1956, to create an organization which would counter Communist penetration and activities in the Middle East. The U.S.A. also declared its wish to enter into close political, military, economic and technical liaison with the Council of the Baghdad Pact and its subordinate committees.

CONSEQUENCES OF THE SUEZ CRISIS

The outbreak of hostilities between Israel and Egypt on October 29th, 1956 and the armed intervention of British and French forces against Egypt (October 31st-November 6th) led to a delicate situation in Iraq where strong elements were still opposed to all connections with the Western Powers. Iraq indeed, broke off diplomatic relations with France on November 9th and announced that, for the immediate future at least, it could give no assurance of taking part in further sessions of the Council of the Baghdad Pact, if delegates from Britain were present.

The attitude of the Baghdad government during the Suez crisis had provoked unrest in Iraq. Disturbances at Najaf and Mosul resulted in some loss of life. Student demonstrations against the Anglo-French intervention in Egypt and the Israeli campaign in Sinai led the Iraqi government to close colleges and schools. Martial law, imposed on October 31st, 1956, was not raised until May 27th, 1957.

The tensions born of the Suez crisis persisted for some time to come. President Eisenhower, concerned over the flow of Soviet arms to Syria and Egypt, sought from Congress permission to use the armed forces of the United States to defend nations exposed to danger from countries under the influence of international communism. He also requested authorization to disburse 200 million dollars in economic and military aid to the Middle East states prepared to co-operate with the West. This programme received the formal approval of the Congress and Senate of the United States in March 1957. On March 16th the U.S.A. pledged some \$12,500,000 of the funds available under the "Eisenhower Doctrine" to the Muslim members of the Baghdad Pact and also made it known that it would participate actively in the work of the military committee of the Pact.

RELATIONS WITH SYRIA AND JORDAN

At the time of the Suez crisis there had been sharp tension between Iraq and Syria. Pumping-stations located inside Syria and belonging to the Iraq Petroleum Company were sabotaged in November 1956 with the result that Iraq suffered a large financial loss through the interruption in the flow of oil to the Mediterranean coast. Not until March 1957 did Syria allow the Iraq Petroleum Company to begin the repair of the pipelines.

Since the Suez crisis of 1956 troops of Iraq and Syria had been stationed in Jordan as a precaution against an Israeli advance to the east. Iraq, in December 1956, announced that her troops would be withdrawn; the Syrian forces, however, still remained in Jordan. The fear that Syria might intervene in favour of the elements in Jordan opposed to King Hussein brought about further recriminations between Baghdad and Damascus. The danger of an acute crisis receded in April 1957, when the U.S.A. declared that the independence of Jordan was a matter of vital concern and underlined this statement by sending its Sixth Fleet to the eastern Mediterranean.

THE ARAB FEDERATION, 1958

The creation of the United Arab Republic embracing Egypt and Syria induced Iraq and Jordan to join together in the so-called Arab Federation on February 14th, 1958. The articles of federation allowed King Faisal of Iraq and King Hussein of Jordan to retain their sovereign power over their respective territories, but envisaged the unification of their armed forces, foreign policies, diplomatic corps, educational systems and customs administration. Members chosen in equal numbers from the Parliaments of Iraq and Jordan would unite to form a Federal Legislature. The federal constitution was proclaimed in Baghdad and Amman on March 19th, 1958. At the beginning of August 1958 and as a result of events which had occurred meanwhile in Iraq (see below) King Hussein of Jordan made an official announcement, declaring that the Arab Federation was at an end.

OVERTHROW OF THE MONARCHY

King Faisal II, together with the Crown Prince of Iraq and General Nuri as-Sa'id, lost their lives in the course of a *coup d'état* begun on July 14th, 1958, by units of the Iraqi Army stationed near Baghdad. Iraq was now to become a Republic. Power was placed in the hands of a council of sovereignty exercising presidential authority and of a cabinet led by Brigadier 'Abd al-Karim Kassem, with the rank of Prime Minister. By the first week in August the new regime in Iraq had received international recognition from most states, whether of the East or of the West.

A struggle for power was now to develop between the two main architects of the July *coup d'état*—Brigadier (later General) Kassem, the Prime Minister, and Colonel Aref, the Deputy Premier and Minister of the Interior. Colonel Aref was associated with the influential Baath Party and had shown himself to be a supporter of union between Iraq and the United Arab Republic. Now, in September 1958, he was dismissed from his offices and, in November, was tried on a charge of plotting against the interests of Iraq. As reconstituted in February 1959 the new regime might be described as hostile to the United Arab Republic and inclined to favour a form of independent nationalism with left-wing tendencies.

On March 8th, 1959, Colonel Shawwaf, commanding the Iraqi forces at Mosul, banned a gathering of communist "peace-partisans". Violent conflict followed in the streets of Mosul between the Communists and the Arab national-

ists. A rebel "government" was now established at Mosul which called for the support of the nationalist elements. On March 9th, however, the Iraqi Air Force bombed Mosul and the revolt was suppressed almost immediately.

General Kassem announced the withdrawal of Iraq from the Baghdad Pact on March 24th, 1959. Since the revolution of July 1958 Iraq's adherence to the Pact had been little more than nominal. One result of this withdrawal was the termination of the special agreement existing between Britain and Iraq since 1955 under the first article of the Baghdad Pact. On March 31st it was made known that the Royal Air Force contingent at Habbaniyah would be recalled.

PROBLEMS OF THE KASSEM REGIME

Earlier in 1959 the Communist elements in Iraq had been refused representation in the government. The Communists operated through a number of professional organizations and also through the so-called People's Resistance Force. Communist elements had infiltrated into the armed forces of Iraq and into the civil service. General Kassem now began to introduce measures which would limit Communist influence inside the government and administration of the country. In July 1959 fighting occurred at Kirkuk between the Kurds (supported by the People's Resistance Force) and the Turcomans, with considerable loss of life. General Kassem, accusing the Communists of being responsible for this outbreak, now disbanded and disbanded the People's Resistance Force. How strong the internal tensions had become in Iraq was underlined when, on October 7th, 1959, an attempt was made on the life of General Kassem.

There was friction, too, in the field of external relations. In December 1959 Iraq claimed the return to herself of certain waterways outside the Iranian ports of Abadan, Khorramshahr and Khorzabad on the Shatt al-Arab. Iranian sovereignty over these waterways had been recognized by Iraq in a treaty of July 1937. Iran now rejected the Iraqi demand for their return.

General Kassem, in June 1961, laid claim to Kuwait on the ground that Kuwait, in former times, had been included in the Ottoman province of Basra. Reports of Iraqi troop movements in the region of Basra induced the Shaikh of Kuwait to appeal for armed assistance from Great Britain. At the beginning of July 1961 the Security Council of the United Nations met to consider a complaint from Kuwait to the effect that Iraq was threatening her independence and territorial integrity.

REBELLION OF THE KURDS

Much more important for the government at Baghdad was the fact that, in March 1961, a considerable section of the Kurdish population in northern Iraq rose in rebellion under Mustafa Barzani, the President of the Democratic Party of Kurdistan—a party established in 1958 after the return of Barzani from an exile occasioned by an earlier unsuccessful revolt in 1946. The refusal of the central regime at Baghdad to grant the reiterated Kurdish demands for an autonomous status had contributed greatly to bring about the new insurrection. Mustafa Barzani in March 1961, proclaimed an independent Kurdish state. By September 1961 the rebels controlled some 250 miles of mountainous territory along the Iraqi-Turkish and Iraqi-Persian frontiers, from Zakho in the west to Sulaimaniya in the east. The Kurds were able to consolidate their hold over much of northern Iraq during the course of 1962. Military operations tended, in these years, to follow a regular pattern—a spring and summer offensive by the government forces, with the ground then won being lost

again to the Kurds in the autumn and winter. The Kurds used guerilla tactics with much success to isolate and deprive of supplies the government garrisons in the north. By December 1963 Kurdish forces had advanced south towards the Khanaqin area and the main road linking Iraq with Iran. The government troops found themselves in a conf. confined to the larger towns such as Kirkup, Sulamanyia and Khanaqin. Negotiations for peace began near Sulamanyia in January 1964 and led to a cease fire on February 10th. The national claims of the Kurds were to be recognized in a new provisional constitution for Iraq. Moreover, a general amnesty would be granted by the Iraqi Government. The Kurdish tribesmen, however, refused to lay aside their arms until their political demands had been given practical effect. Despite the negotiation of this settlement it was soon to become clear that no final solution of the Kurdish problem was as yet in sight.

FALL OF KASSEM

A military coup carried out in Baghdad on February 8th, 1963 overthrew the regime of General Kassem, the General himself being captured and shot. The coup arose out of an alliance between nationalist army officers and the Baath Party. Colonel Aref was now raised to the office of President and a new cabinet created under Brigadier Ahmed Bakr. The Baath Party, founded in 1941 (in Syria) and dedicated to the ideas of Arab unity, socialism and freedom drew its main support from the military elements, the intellectuals and the middle classes. It was, however, divided in Iraq into a pro-Egyptian wing advocating union with the United Arab Republic and a more independent wing disinclined to accept authoritarian control from Egypt. The coup of February 1963 was followed by the arrest of pro-Kassem and of Communist elements, by mass trials and a number of executions, by confiscations of property and by a purge of the officer corps and of the civil service.

A number of efforts were made, during the years 1963-65, to further the cause of Arab unification. An agreement signed at Cairo on April 17th, 1963, envisaged a federation of Egypt, Syria and Iraq. On September 2nd a communiqué stated that Syria and Iraq would create new committees to hasten defence co-operation between the two states. A Supreme Defence Council for the forces of Syria and Iraq was in fact established on October 8th with General Ammash (Defence Minister of Iraq) as Commander-in-Chief. On May 26th, 1964, Iraq signed with the U.A.R. an agreement establishing a Joint Presidency Council, with a secretariat at Cairo. Later in the same year, on October 16th, President Aref of Iraq and President Nasser of the U.A.R. made it known that a unified political command would be created between their two states. A further announcement of December 20th, 1964 revealed that such a unified command had in fact been brought into being. The subsequent course of events in 1965 was to demonstrate that these measures to advance the cause of Arab unification had little prospect of achieving much immediate practical effect.

MANOEUVRES OF THE BAATH PARTY

These same years saw in Iraq itself a conflict for control between the extremist and the more moderate Baath elements. At the end of September 1963 the extremists dominated the Baath Regional Council in Iraq. An international Baath Conference held at Damascus in October 1963 strengthened the position of the extremists through its support of a federal union between Syria and Iraq and its approval of more radical and social and economic policies. A further Baathist conference at Baghdad in November 1963 enabled the moderates to elect a new Baath Regional

Council in Iraq with their own adherents in control. At this juncture the extremists attempted a *coup d'état*, in the course of which air force elements attacked the Presidential Palace and the Ministry of Defence.

On November 18th 1963, President Aref assumed full powers in Iraq, with the support of the armed forces, and a new Revolutionary Command was established at Baghdad. Sporadic fighting occurred (November 18th-20th) between the government troops and the pro Baathist National Guard. A main factor in the sudden fall of the Baathists was the attitude of the professional officer class. Officers with Communist, Kassemite or pro Nasser sympathies, or with no strong political views or of Kurdish origin had all been removed from important commands and offices. The privileged position of the National Guard caused further resentment in the army. The long drawn operations against the Kurds, the known dissensions within the Baathist ranks in Iraq and the intervention of Baath politicians from abroad in Iraqi affairs also contributed to discredit the extreme elements amongst the Baathists. On November 20th, 1963, a new Cabinet was formed at Baghdad, consisting of officers, moderate Baathists, independents and non party experts.

THE ARAB SOCIALIST UNION

On July 14th, 1964, President Aref announced that all political parties would be merged in a new organization known as the "Iraqi Arab Socialist Union". At the same time it was revealed that all banks and insurance companies, together with thirty-two important industrial concerns, would undergo nationalization. The firms now nationalized included steel, cement and tobacco concerns, flour mills, food industries, building material firms and tanneries.

In July 1965 a number of pro-Nasser ministers handed in their resignations. At the beginning of September 1965 a new administration came into being with Brigadier Aref Abd al-Razzaq as Prime Minister. The Brigadier, reputed to be pro Nasser in his sympathies, attempted to seize full power in Iraq, but his attempted *coup d'état* failed and on September 16th, he himself together with some of his supporters, found refuge in Cairo. On April 13th, 1966, President Abd al-Salam Aref of Iraq was killed in a helicopter crash. His brother, Major General Abd al-Rahman Aref succeeded him as President with the approval of the Cabinet and of the National Defence Council. In late June 1966 Brigadier Aref Abd al-Razzaq, who had staged the unsuccessful *coup d'état* of September 1965 led a second abortive coup, which was foiled by the prompt action of President Aref.

KURDISH NATIONALISM

The war against the Kurds, halted only for a short while by the cease-fire of February 1964, dragged out its inconclusive course during 1964-66. Some of the fighting in December 1965 occurred close to the Iraq-Iran border, leading to a number of frontier violations which gave rise to sharp tension between the two states during the first half of 1966. In June of 1966 Dr. Abd al-Rahman al-Bazzaz, Prime Minister of Iraq since September 1965, formulated new proposals for a settlement of the conflict with the Kurds. Kurdish nationalism and language would receive legal recognition, the administration was to be decentralized, allowing the Kurds to run educational, health and municipal affairs in their own districts, the Kurds would have proportional representation in Parliament and in the Cabinet and the various state services, the Kurdish armed forces (some 15,000 strong) were to be dissolved. Mustafa Barzani, the Kurdish leader, declared himself to be well disposed towards these proposals.

During the second half of 1966 there was a marked improvement in the relations between Iraq and Iran. Incidents on the common frontier of the two states died down with the lull in the fighting between Iraqi troops and the Kurdish insurgents. President Aref of Iraq made an official state visit to Teheran in March 1967. A communiqué of March 19th declared that the two countries had agreed to continue negotiations for a joint oil exploration in the Naft Khaneh and Naft-i Shah border regions. Details of agreements on other issues, e.g., navigation rights and the collection of tolls in the Shatt al- Arab, demarcation of the Gulf continental shelf (important for the control of potential oil resources) and the status of Iranian nationals in Iraq, would be worked out by a joint committee. A cultural and trade agreement was also to be concluded between the two states.

The troubles in Kurdistan had been in a state of quiescence since the rapprochement achieved between Mustafa Barzani and the then Prime Minister of Iraq, Dr. 'Abd al-Rahman al-Bazzaz, in June 1966. Some progress was made thereafter, though only in a limited degree, towards the implementation of the June entente—e.g., the Cabinet which President Aref formed in May 1967, with himself as Prime Minister, contained members representing the interests of various elements in the political life of Iraq, including the Kurds. President Aref, on his return to Baghdad, in November 1967, after a visit to the North, re-affirmed his intentions to make available to the Kurds appointments of ministerial rank, to help with the rehabilitation of the war-affected areas in Kurdistan and to work towards effective co-operation with the Kurds in the government of Iraq. During the first half of 1968 there were, however, reports of dissension amongst the Kurds themselves, with open violence between the adherents of Mustafa Barzani, the elements supporting Jalal Talabani, and the "Knights of Saladin", a Kurdish force which the Baghdad government had recruited some years before in its efforts to bring the Kurds to order.

OIL DISPUTES

The winter of 1966–67 witnessed a dispute between Syria and the Iraq Petroleum Company—a dispute which was to have a serious effect on the oil revenues accruing to Iraq. The government at Damascus claimed that it had not been receiving from the I.P.C. the full amount of revenue due to it under an agreement reached in 1955. To compensate for the alleged loss of revenue, levied on oil carried across Syria from the I.P.C. fields in northern Iraq to ports on the Mediterranean coast, the Damascus government demanded large back payments, increased the transit charges, and envisaged also the imposition of a surcharge. The Iraqi government was also considering a request to the I.P.C. that oil production in Iraq be raised 10 per cent. It was embroiled, moreover, in a long argument with the I.P.C. over concession areas confiscated from the company five years earlier, but as yet unsettled by the national oil organization created to take them over. On December 8th, 1966, Syria impounded the property of the Iraq Petroleum Company within its territories. The assets impounded embraced some 300 miles of pipeline, several pumping stations and the terminal installations at Baniyas on the coast of Syria. On December 12th–13th Iraqi oil ceased to flow across Syria to Baniyas and to Tripoli. Iraq was thus confronted with a potential loss of revenue amounting to about £8 million per month. Several delegations from Baghdad went to Damascus in order to urge that a settlement be found for the dispute. Not until the beginning of March 1967, however, was a new agreement signed between the I.P.C. and the Syrian Government. It was announced early in May 1967 that the I.P.C. had also

reached agreement in principle with the Iraqi Government on the royalties payable for the first quarter of 1967, when the pipeline across Syria was out of use.

When the Arab-Israeli war broke out in June 1967, Iraq severed diplomatic relations with the U.S.A. and with Britain after Arab charges that the two states had aided Israel in the war. She also banned the export of oil to Britain and the U.S.A. Substantial Iraqi army forces moved into Jordan, and remained there until January 1971, when all but two brigades were withdrawn into Iraq.

Problems connected with the production and export of oil constituted a major preoccupation of the Baghdad government during the period which followed the Arab-Israeli war. At the end of June supplies of Iraqi oil began to be moved once more from the pipeline terminals on the eastern shore of the Mediterranean—e.g., to the Turkish Republic, though not to Britain and the United States which remained under the embargo decreed at the time of the war. In August Iraq, Syria and the Lebanon resolved to allow the export of Iraqi oil to most of the countries of Europe, the United Kingdom being still subject, however, to the embargo.

Relations with the West improved slightly during the autumn and winter of 1967. The remaining oil embargoes were gradually removed, and in December General Sabri led a military delegation to Paris. This was followed by President Aref's official visit to France in February 1968, and in April France agreed to supply Iraq with 54 Mirage aircraft over the period 1969–73. In May diplomatic relations with the United Kingdom were resumed.

THE 1968 COUP AND ITS AFTERMATH

Throughout the first half of 1968 the regime conspicuously lacked popular support, being commonly thought to be both corrupt and inefficient, and the sudden bloodless *coup d'état* of July 17th did not surprise many observers. General Ahmed Hassan al-Bakr, a former Prime Minister, became President; the deposed President Aref went into exile and his Prime Minister, Taher Yahya, was imprisoned on corruption charges. The new government, though still composed of Baath Party members, was expected to follow a moderate line within the Arab context, and the coup elicited a hostile reaction from Cairo and Damascus. Two ministers were influential Kurds, which was also thought to be a significant development.

Nothing came of this, however, for on July 30th the entire cabinet was dismissed by the President, who accused it of "reactionary tendencies". He then appointed himself Prime Minister and Commander-in-Chief and chose a new cabinet in which Generals Hardan Takriti and Saleh Ammash (formerly Interior Minister) were seen as the other major figures.

During the second half of 1968 the internal political situation deteriorated steadily. By November there were frequent reports of a purge directed against opponents of the new regime, and freedom of verbal political comment seemed to have disappeared. Numerous Western teachers and professional people were expelled. A former Foreign Minister, Dr. Nasser al Hani, was found murdered, and a distinguished former Prime Minister, Dr. al Bazzaz, and other members of former governments were arrested as "counter-revolutionary leaders"; most were later given long jail sentences.

In January 1969 a special revolutionary court passed death sentences on fourteen men accused of espionage for Israel and of seeking to overthrow the regime. Their execution and the subsequent much publicized display of their corpses in Baghdad and Basra aroused world-wide

comment Particular attention was drawn to the fact that nine of the executed men were Jewish and to the various restrictions imposed on the Jewish community. The regime denied all accusations of anti-Semitism and it was noted that all eight of a further group of Iraqis convicted and executed on similar charges in February were Muslims. Some commentators saw the hangings as mainly intended as a warning for the regime's opponents. By the end of 1969 over fifty executions had taken place.

Nevertheless it remained clear that the life for the Jewish minority in Iraq had become steadily more difficult since the rise of Zionism and the establishment of the State of Israel. The community numbered some 250,000 in 1939, widely spread throughout Iraq both geographically and occupationally. Thirty years later estimates put its size at a mere 2,500 people, virtually confined to a ghetto in Baghdad. Large-scale emigration, mainly to Israel, took place in the early 1950s.

In January 1970 a group of army and police officers attempted to overthrow the regime, but their plans were discovered and about twenty alleged conspirators were promptly executed, whilst numerous others were imprisoned. Iranian complicity in the plot was widely reported. Baghdad claimed that the US and other imperialist powers were also involved.

SETTLEMENT WITH THE KURDS

Open hostilities with the Kurds broke out in October 1968 for the first time since the June 1966 ceasefire and continued on an extensive scale throughout the winter. Early in March the rebels shelled the Iraq Petroleum Company's installations at Kirkuk, inflicting considerable damage. Iraqi army and air force attempts to enforce the writ of the Baghdad government had little success; the regime claimed that the rebels received aid from Iran and Israel. In March 1970 a fifteen-article peace settlement was announced by the Revolutionary Council and the Kurdish leaders.

The agreement was generally accepted by the Kurdish community and fighting ceased immediately. The war had been very expensive for Iraq in terms of both lives and money and it had seriously delayed the national development programme. It had also absorbed a large part of Iraq's army, which consequently became available for service on Israel's eastern front—joining the Iraqi force already stationed in Jordan—or for defensive duties on the Iranian frontier.

The actual terms of the peace agreement are taking time to be made effective. Although Mustafa Barzani, the Kurds' leader, has a great degree of autonomy in the north-east and retains his 15,000 troops as an official Iraqi frontier force, the legal status of Kurdistan still has to be settled. A census should have been held to determine which parts of northern Iraq have a predominantly Kurdish population and which areas therefore qualify for the promised autonomy. But early in October 1970 the Council of Command of the Revolution postponed until sometime in 1971 the census fixed for later in the month. The Kurds have claimed that this is to allow Arabs to emigrate into the rich oil-bearing area of Kirkuk. The government on its side has pointed to the thousands of Kurds who have returned from Iran.

Similarly, while there are five Kurdish ministers in the Iraqi cabinet, the Kurdish nominee for Vice-President was rejected by the government in September 1971 and as long as they have no seat on the Council of Command of the Revolution, the Kurds see little point in putting forward a fresh candidate. Kurd unity was boosted in February 1971 by the decision of the Kurdish Revolu-

tionary Party to merge with the Kurdish Democratic Party of Mustafa Barzani.

However, although a final settlement of the Kurdish problems has yet to be reached, the period of peace since March 1970 has introduced an element of stability into life in Iraq, which has been lacking since 1963 and has allowed a number of reforms to be initiated. A new provisional constitution was announced in July 1971. It embodied many of the points agreed to in the March 1970 agreement with the Kurds. The Council of Command of the Revolution, headed by the President, remained the supreme authority, although a National Assembly was also provided for. In October 1970 the state of emergency in operation almost continuously since July 1958 was lifted. Many political detainees, including former ministers, were released. Censorship of mail was abolished at the end of the year, having lasted for over thirteen years and a month later the censorship of foreign correspondents' cables was brought to an end after a similar period.

At the same time, however, the government has maintained its ruthless attitude towards possible new opponents. Salah Omar Ali, Minister of Information and Culture and member of the C.C.R. was dismissed in July 1970. Vice-President Hardan al-Takriti in October. Both dismissals arose from internal policy differences and only limits of the wranglings inside the Baath Party at the time reached the outside world. Reactionaries and communists alike were the victims of press campaigns or purges. The reported drive against communists in southern Iraq in January 1971 prompted adverse press comment in the Soviet Union, especially when two detained members of the Iraqi Communist Party died in a Baghdad prison.

Relations between the government and the I.P.C. continued to be strained, as the former habitually imposes restrictions upon and sanctions demonstrations against the Western oil interests to show its disapproval of the Western countries' foreign policies. In June 1971 it was reported that the Iraqi Government was seeking a 20 per cent participation in the capital of the I.P.C.

FOREIGN AFFAIRS

The more radical section of the Arab world initially greeted the July coup with disfavour and the new regime was at pains to prove itself as militant an exponent of Arab nationalism as its predecessor. The regime gradually became an accepted member of the nationalist group, but there was some Arab criticism of its policies, notably the public hangings and their effect on world opinion. In March 1969 a joint Eastern Command was established comprising Jordan, Syria and Iraq. This was made possible by changes in the Syrian leadership in the spring of 1969. The Damascus régime previously had very poor relations with Iraq.

Like Algeria on the opposite flank of the Arab world, Iraq has taken a hard line on the Palestinian problem. All peace proposals—American, Egyptian and Jordanian—have been rejected. In theory, total support is given to the Palestine liberation movements. However, despite a threat to the Jordanian Government at the beginning of September 1970 to intervene in Jordan on behalf of the Palestinian guerrillas, the Iraqi forces stationed there left them to fight the Jordanian army on their own. In January 1971 most of Iraq's 20,000 troops were withdrawn from Jordan and Syria. In March it was reported in Cairo that Iraq's monthly contribution to the Palestine Liberation Army had stopped. Iraq's attitude to Middle East peace proposals opened up a rift with Egypt even before Nasser's death and her contempt for the proposed U.A.R.-Libya-Syria federation, as well as for any negotiated settlement with Israel, kept her well isolated from Egypt and almost

all the other Arab states. In July 1971, however, there were signs that Iraq wished to reduce her isolation. She offered to co-operate again with the U.A.R. and other Arab states if they abandoned attempts to negotiate with Israel. But Iraq's support for the short-lived revolutionary take-over in the Sudan at the end of July seems likely to leave her without friends among other Arab States.

Relations with Iran continued to be poor. Iraq frequently accused the Teheran government of assisting the Kurdish rebellion, partly because the Kurds are racially akin to the Persians. Baghdad responded by mass expulsions of Persians resident in Iraq. In April 1969 the Shatt al-Arab waterway again caused a minor confrontation. Iraq has benefited by a 1937 treaty (engineered by the British Government which then effectively controlled Iraq but not Iran) which gave it control of the waterway, but that month Iran tried to force a re-negotiation of the treaty by illegally sending through vessels flying the Iranian flag. Being unwilling (or politically unable) to yield any of its sovereignty and unable to challenge Iran militarily, Iraq was obliged to accept this situation. Iraq in May 1971 proposed referring the border dispute to the International Court of Justice, but Iran wants a bilateral treaty defining a new frontier and rejected the suggestion.

Minor border clashes between the two sides' forces occur sporadically.

The Shah's government was generally thought to have been a party to the attempted coup in January 1970, some of whose leaders were apparently in exile in Teheran. Diplomatic relations were finally broken off following this incident. In December 1970 it was the turn of the Iranians to accuse Iraq of sponsoring an attempt to stage a coup in Teheran. Not surprisingly, the two countries are also divided on policy towards the Gulf states.

The friendship with the Soviet Union remains a major factor in Iraq's foreign policy, particularly since the U.S.S.R. now supplies the bulk of Iraq's military equipment. Partly as an extension of this friendship and partly as a gesture of disapproval of the German Federal Republic's relationship with Israel, Iraq recognized the German Democratic Republic (East Germany) at ambassador level in May 1969, apparently becoming the first non-Communist country to do so. Relations with the Western world, and the U.S.A. in particular, remained poor—several of the people arrested or expelled in late 1968 were accused of spying for America.

V.J.P.

ECONOMIC SURVEY

Iraq is traditionally an agricultural country, but its economic development has been largely attributable to its oil industry, which accounts for four-fifths of the country's foreign exchange receipts, two-thirds of government revenue and one fifth of gross domestic product. Accordingly, Iraq's chief opportunity for development consists in the large revenues accruing from the operations of the oil companies in her territory. Agreements signed in 1952 provide for receipt by the state of half the companies' profits from their operations in Iraq. These revenues were stagnant in 1960, 1961 and 1962 at £94-95 million, but after 1963 they grew to reach £126 million in 1964 and £138 million in 1966. In 1968 they totalled £203 million, including £17 million representing a Mediterranean premium on loadings in the Mediterranean (covering June-December 1967 and the whole of 1968). Iraq is also an under-populated country which, according both to historical evidence and to present estimates of possible expansion, could support a population twice the size of her present nine million. She has millions of acres of cultivable land that could be irrigated from the generous (though in the past dangerously undisciplined) waters of the Tigris and Euphrates.

These great advantages have indeed certain limitations placed upon them by the nature of the country and the degree of social evolution attained by its people. Salination of the soil and the spreading of malaria as a result of big irrigation projects are dangers that have to be guarded against. The two great rivers, the Tigris and Euphrates, which must be the basis of the country's entire system of irrigation, are, in the words of Lord Salter "temperamental and difficult to control". In addition, the country, with the exception of its northern area, is extremely flat and only a little above sea level. This makes drainage and irrigation difficult and explains why most of the land at present consists largely of either desert or swamps. On the human side there may be a shortage of labour, and, particularly at the present moment, of the skilled labour that will be required to accomplish and operate the vast and up-to-date schemes of agricultural and industrial development that are contemplated or actually in process of execution.

The total population was estimated at 9.05 million in mid-1969, mostly living in the alluvial plain of the Tigris and Euphrates or the foothills of the north-east. Between 1958 and 1968 the population increased by 3.4 per cent annually. The working population was estimated at 3 million in 1970. Though many women work in agriculture, women are not generally employed elsewhere and at the present time cannot be regarded as making a substantial contribution to the non-agricultural labour force. Some idea of the employment situation may be formed from the table in the Statistical Survey.

Nevertheless, Iraq's economic potential remains great. Alone of the oil-producing countries of the Middle East, she has enough land and water to enable her to spend her oil revenues in a long-term productive manner. Although the major part of oil is at present committed to barter trading arrangements, rising production may make it possible to sell a small surplus on the international market provided the western oil companies consortium does not take preventive action. The current dispute over prices and production is proving difficult to resolve but some form of settlement will be important if Iraq does seek to find outlets for its oil in the open market. Given political stability and continuing government investment, prospects for maintaining a steady expansion under the current development plan seem favourable—particularly since it has been possible to reduce expenditure on defence to a third under the 1970-71 budget compared with two-fifths last year.

In the last five years the country's gross domestic product has risen from I.D. 826 million in 1964 to I.D. 1,039 million in 1969, equivalent to average annual growth of 4.7 per cent in the five-year period. In 1969, per capita G.D.P. amounted to 92 dinars.

AGRICULTURE

Agriculture is the main source of employment and, next to oil, the most important sector. The country's latest development plan (1970-74) gives high priority to agriculture; the aim is to produce an agricultural surplus for

export by reducing dependence on weather conditions and solving the salinity problems which affect irrigated land. Iraq has a total area including territorial waters and counting half the neutral zone, of 438 446 square kilometres. Of this the North Desert, South Desert and Al-Jazira Desert comprise about 200,000 square kilometres so that the total area of the fourteen Lawas (administrative units) of urban and agricultural land into which the country is divided is 238 000 square kilometres or 95 000 000 dunums. At present about 23 million dunums of this total are utilised for agricultural purposes.

Lord Salter, in his Report to the Iraqi Government, compiled in 1955, divides the land into six areas according to widely differing soil conditions and vegetation. (a) the Alpine region in the high mountains (b) the forests on the mountain slopes, (c) the grasslands of the northern plateaux, (d) the great deserts in the west and south west and the Jazira desert between the rivers (e) the alluvial plains of central Iraq composed of silt deposited by the two great rivers, and (f) the marshlands of the extreme south subject to regular annual flooding.

The land tenure system is extremely complex. After a chaotic growth for over a thousand years, and the failure to effect any redistribution in accordance with the Ottoman Land Law of 1857, a law was finally passed in 1932 clarifying land as follows: (1) privately owned, by traditional or feudal title (2) public land mainly desert, (3) waqfs, or religious endowments, and (4) Miri (government) land, of which there were three types, (a) Tapu—permanent tenure amounting to ownership which had already been registered, (b) Lazma—when the occupier had been settled and cultivating the land for 15 years or more, (c) Miri Serf Land—government-owned land with previously no established tenancy.

In accordance with these classifications, some 94 000,000 dunums had been registered by 1965.*

The general system of cultivation is fallow farming and crop rotations are rare. At the time of the completion of the census (1953) 44 per cent of the land holdings were fallow. As compared with a cultivated area during the year of 10 108 118 dunums there were 11,178,594 dunums lying fallow, 2,577,077 dunums of uncultivable land, 512,651 under fruit trees and vines, 923 465 of pasture and 207 230 of woodlands.

The most common type of farm operation is by share tenancy, the farmer tending to the landowner a share of his crop—usually 50 per cent in return for pump irrigation water and other facilities. Other forms of operation are (1) plantation farming, when the landowner or tenant of a rented farm employs paid labour; and (2) individual peasant proprietorships, when the farmer owns or rents his land and works it himself with his family.

The farm worker is concerned primarily with subsistence and grows crops and keeps animals to provide for himself and his family. Cash crops are grown by plantation farmers and peasant proprietors. The largest and most commonly grown crops are barley and wheat. Together with lentils, vetch and linseed they constitute the main winter crops.

Normally Iraq produces an exportable surplus of barley, though in years of low rainfall barley exports are not possible. Summer crops are much smaller but in recent years have all shown healthy increase in size. The summer crops include tobacco, rice and sesame. Among fruit trees the date palm is by far the commonest and the best. Year by year Iraq alternates with the U.A.R. as the world's largest date producing country. The date crop amounted to 460,000 tons in 1962-63 but fell to 280 000 tons in 1965-66 and only reached 380 000 tons in 1966-67. There was a further fall in 1967-68 to 330 000 tons. Two thirds of the crop is exported and dates are, after oil, the biggest export earner. Cotton is also grown on a small scale in central Iraq.

Government land is being distributed among small peasants in accordance with a number of laws passed in recent years and aiming at the creation of communities of small landholders with an improved standard of living and practising agriculture by modern methods.

The principal provisions of these laws are the following: (1) that persons to whom holdings are given should not already own other lands and should undertake to live on the holdings and develop and cultivate them themselves in accordance with a plan drawn up by experts, (2) that the distribution of holdings should be according to the following scale: plots of not more than 20 mesharas or dunums in mountainous lands, plots of not more than 100 mesharas in lands watered by natural flow from rivers, plots of not more than 400 mesharas in rain lands, and plots of not more than 500 mesharas in lands that have to be irrigated by pumping, (3) that guidance and technical assistance, as well as agricultural loans, should be extended to the cultivators and that they should be encouraged to form co-operative societies.

In October 1958, the Government announced a new land reform project, to be spread over five years. It provided for the break-up of large estates, and the distribution of the land to small peasants and landless labourers. When the reform is complete, the largest holding on flow irrigated land will be 1,000 dunums (about 600 acres), on land watered by rainfall, 2,000 dunums. The estates broken up will be allotted to farmers in holdings of a maximum of 60 or 120 dunums, according to the type of land. The formation of agricultural co-operatives is planned to help the new owners with capital machinery and technical advice. Special boards will assess the compensation to be paid to the present owners of the redistributed land. Political changes in 1963 hampered redistribution and the law had therefore to be extended. By the end of 1965 redistributed land amounted to 2,280 000 dunums, benefiting 46 000 peasant farmers, but considerable areas of land remained, awaiting distribution.

RIVER CONTROL AND IRRIGATION

River control policy in Iraq has three main objects: the provision of water for irrigation, the prevention of devastating floods and the creation of hydro-electric power. It is southern and central Iraq that are affected in all three cases, since northern Iraq is rain fed and for the most part the terrain is unsuitable for large scale irrigation from the stored water of major dams. Minor local reservoirs and tube wells are enough to supplement the rain in the north.

At present the main systems providing flow irrigation are the following:

- | | |
|--|-----------|
| (1) Euphrates | dunums |
| (a) Hindiya Barrage System the Hilla canal with its branches serve while the Husamiyah, Beni Hassan, etc. serve. | 2,235 000 |
| (b) Left Bank Euphrates Canals serve | 560 000 |
| | 840 000 |

* As follows

	dunums
Private land	1,236 236
Public land	7 259 701
Waqfs	887,504
Miri Tapu	13 167,301
Miri Lazma	12 166 937
Miri Serf	59 590 436
TOTAL	94 398 115

(2) Diyala River	<i>dunums</i>
The Diyala Weir System serves.	1,350,000
(3) Lesser Zab River	
Hawija System serves	180,000
(4) Tigris	
Kut Barrage System serves	1,700,000

Pumps are used extensively along both the Euphrates and the Tigris. In 1967-68 the total number of pumps in use was 11,600 with a combined horsepower of 328,680. Pumps are mainly privately owned, but are controlled by a licensing system. On the Tigris 3,551,000 dunums are watered by pumps; on the Euphrates 992,000 dunums.

The present policy of river control for flood prevention and storage is based on the execution of four major projects:

- (1) The barrage at Samarra, designed to divert water from the Tigris to the Wadi Tharthar depression, was completed in the spring of 1956. (Tharthar is a vast natural depression 68 kilometres south-west of Samarra. Its live storage could be 30 milliard cubic metres.)
- (2) The Dokan Dam, completed in 1959, on the Lesser Zab river. Its storage capacity is 6,300 million cubic metres.
- (3) The Derbendi Khan Dam, completed in November 1961, stores 3,250 million cubic metres of water.
- (4) The Habbaniyah Reservoir, with subsidiary works and improvements, (the Ramadi Barrage) completed during 1956.

Between them these four dams and barrages should provide ample security against flood dangers. It may be mentioned here that the highest estimated flow on the Tigris was 9,060 cumecs, while on the Euphrates it was 5,200 cumecs (cubic metres per second).

Under the Provisional Economic Plan 1959-63 and the Detailed Economic Plan 1961/2-1966/7 a number of further irrigation schemes have been proposed. The Eski-Mosul scheme was approved in 1963.

Altogether the full utilisation of the waters of the Tigris and the Euphrates by means of the dams and reservoirs now completed, or under construction (or consideration) will add some 9,000,000 dunums to the 13,000,000 already under cultivation in the valleys of the two rivers—in other words it will very nearly double the area of cultivated land in Iraq. In 1969 the U.S.S.R. agreed to provide considerable financial assistance towards the execution of these various projects.

OIL

The oil industry in Iraq stands on a basis different from that of all other industries, for as already mentioned it is the country's principal source of wealth and provides the capital for all State and municipal industries. The largest and ablest concerns are the Iraq Petroleum Company (IPC) and its associated companies, the Basra Petroleum Company and the Mosul Petroleum Company. The main oil field is at Kirkuk, where there is a refinery; another small refinery is operated near Khanaqin by the Khanaqin Oil Company, which acts as government agent in the internal distribution of oil products. An oil refinery with an initial capacity of 1.35 million tons was built in 1955 near Baghdad by the Government Oil Refineries Administration. Its capacity was later raised to 3.7 million tons. The Government operates a lubricating oil plant, opened in 1957, on the same site. Altogether Iraq has five refineries in operation. A 3.5 million ton per year refinery is planned at Abu Fulus near Basra as well as a 1.2 million ton per year refinery at Mosul.

Under the oil agreement of 1952 Iraq receives half of the oil companies' profit, and the companies have guaranteed a

minimum annual output of 30 million tons as from January 1st, 1956. As a result of a revised calculation in 1955 of the prices on which the profit-sharing is based, Iraq received over £70 million in 1956 on a production of 31 million tons.

In December 1961, after negotiations for another revision of the concession agreements had broken down, the Government passed Law No. 80 under which the companies' area of operations was restricted to their producing oilfields, equivalent to about 0.5 per cent of their previous area and the remainder of their concessions withdrawn. Negotiations over the revision of the concession agreement resulted in a draft agreement, concluded in 1965, but never ratified. It was reported that the agreement provided for the oil companies to retain their present producing areas and as much acreage again.

However, by Law No. 97 of 1967, the government's oil policy changed direction. Under this law the Iraq National Oil Company (INOC), a state oil company formed in 1964, was given exclusive rights over all areas except those left to IPC in Law 80. INOC is to be allowed to operate jointly in association with foreign companies, if it wishes, as long as no concession is awarded. Accordingly, a contract was signed between INOC and l'Entreprise de Recherches et d'Activités Pétrolières (ERAP), a French state company. The French company will act as contractor in four areas where oil has not been proven. INOC will contribute financially only if oil is found. All oil will belong to INOC, while ERAP will be permitted to buy a share at a privileged price. ERAP began drilling in 1968 near Basra and its first well was reported to have found oil, but further drilling is necessary to assess the size of the discovery. A second discovery at Buzurgan on the Iranian border has been declared commercial.

Despite negotiations with several foreign companies, INOC finally announced early in 1968 that it would develop the rich field of North Rumaila by itself. This field, discovered by IPC but expropriated under Law 80, is thought to be capable of 20 million tons upwards per year. The Alrafidain Bank agreed to extend a loan of I.D. 6 million to INOC, to finance the first stage of the exploitation of the field. In 1969 INOC called for offers from selected foreign firms to develop the oilfield and provide facilities for exporting 5 million tons annually from FAO. Finally, in July 1969 an important agreement was signed between the U.S.S.R. and Iraq under which Soviet technical and economic aid, worth £28 million, will be given to INOC to develop North Rumaila and other proven oilfields. Exports from FAO are due to start in 1972 but capacity and tanker access are limited so that another outlet is required if production is to be raised from the initial rate of 5 million tons per year. Tentative plans have been announced for the construction of a 1,250 km. 48-inch diameter pipeline to a Mediterranean port; the pipeline would have an annual capacity of 50 million tons and cost an estimated \$420 million. In its search for markets, INOC has negotiated sales agreements on a barter basis with several Communist bloc countries, and with Italy, Spain and Ceylon.

At Iraq's instigation the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) was set up in 1960 to find ways of combating reductions in oil prices. The Iraqi Government rejected an offer from the oil companies on the assessment of royalties which other OPEC member countries accepted. Iraq is thus turning down additional payments which could amount to \$20 to \$30 million per year.

Total production rose from 22 million tons in 1957 to 47.3 million tons in 1960. Production in 1961 and 1962 remained static at 49 million tons, although in other

Middle East countries it rose. However in 1963 it soared to 56.5 million tons and reached 67.7 million tons in 1966.

In 1967 however production dropped to 59.5 million tons because of two interruptions during the year. For three months up to March production from the northern fields was halted when the pipeline to Banyas was closed during a dispute between IPC and the Syrian government over the latter's claim for an increase in pipeline dues. The company finally agreed to double past transit and loading rates. Production was again interrupted after the outbreak of war between Israel and the Arabs. All production was halted for one month before exports were resumed to most countries. Output rose to 73 million tons in 1968 when total payments to the government by the Iraq Basra and Mosul Petroleum Companies amounted to £203.3 million. Output increased by only 1 million tons in 1969 to 74 million tons largely because the pipelines to the Mediterranean were operating at full capacity and because the closure of the Suez Canal discourages exports by tanker to Western Europe.

In 1970 output rose by a further 1 million tons to 75 million tons. Oil revenues are currently running at £200 million per annum compared with £138 million in 1966. This figure is likely to continue to rise particularly in view of an agreement reached with the Iraq Petroleum Company in the autumn of 1970 which provided for higher prices and increased output. The agreement also went some way towards solving a number of complex disputes between the IPC and Iraq which have prevailed since the early 1960s but there are further problems over royalties and over Iraq's claim to ownership of the North Rumaila oil field which was discovered by IPC but expropriated before any development could take place. Production from the Rumaila field which is being worked by the Iraq National Oil Company should come on stream early in 1972 with an initial flow of 5 million tons a year rising later to 18 million tons per annum. The new field will mark an important step in Iraq's economic development and earnings are to be directed largely to debt servicing which is expected to total 44 million dinars during the 1970-74 plan.

About one-third of Iraq's oil is exported by tankers from Basra and two-thirds is pumped through the pipelines into the Mediterranean at Tripoli in Lebanon and Banyas in Syria. During 1966 a total of 62.8 million tons was pumped through the 30-inch line to Banyas and the two lines one of 12 inches and the other of 16 inches to Tripoli. A third pipeline runs to Haifa in Israel but all flow of oil through this line was stopped by the Iraqi Government during the Arab-Israeli war in 1948 and the line has been idle ever since though Iraq has pressed the IPC to divert the Haifa line to the Lebanon. A 200 mile 16-18 inch pipeline from the Kirkuk field to Baghdad was completed in 1966. It carries natural gas and liquid petroleum gas for use in Baghdad's power stations and industries.

A state-owned sulphur recovery plant came into operation at Kirkuk in 1968. It produces 120 000 tons per year of sulphur from associated gas from the Kirkuk field by product gases are sent by pipeline to Baghdad.

INDUSTRY

Iraq has not the same impelling reasons for rapid and large scale industrialisation as countries with a surplus and increasing population that is too large to be supported by agriculture. The policy of the Government and the Ministry of Planning aims therefore at an industrial development that will not be so accelerated as to outrun seriously the available surplus of skilled labour required. It also prescribes that the industries to be encouraged

should be carefully selected as based upon domestic resources and assured of a domestic market. Under the Detailed Economic Plan industrial plants will be allocated ID 98.95 million excluding the atomic centre and the Basra gas pipeline.

The present situation is that apart from oil (which stands in a category by itself) Iraq has few industries of any size. In greater Baghdad the larger enterprises are electricity and water supply brick and cement manufacture. In addition there is a large number of smaller unit industries concerned with food and drink processing (date packing, breweries etc.) cigarette-making spinning and weaving, chemicals furniture shoe making jewellery and various metal manufacturers. The industrial census of 1954 showed only 294 industrial units employing more than twenty persons each nearly half of these being in Baghdad. In 1964, 1 197 establishments employed 10 or more persons of which more than half were in the Baghdad area. The total employment in manufacturing was 80 000 persons of which nearly 10 000 were employed by 96 water and power plants.

Factories built in recent years by the State include a bitumen plant at Qaiyarah south of Mosul which produces 60 000 tons of asphalt per year and employs 250 workers, a £3 million textile factory at Mosul equipped with 644 looms employing 1 200 workers and producing 25 million square yards per year of calico from locally grown cotton and two cement factories each with a daily output of 350 tons. Total cement output is some 1 million tons which more than covers Iraqi demand. A sugar factory with an annual production of 35 000 tons is in production at Mosul and further expansion is planned. Two further plants at Kerbela and Sulaimaniyah are under construction. A fertilizer factor is being built at Basra with an initial annual output of 120 000 tons of ammonium sulphate as well as uric and sulphuric acid. To be completed in 1970 it will use sulphur from the Kirkuk plant and natural gas from the Rumaila field. Other projects include a paper board factory at Basra. A rayon plant at Hindiyah opened in 1968 and another is planned. Shoe and cigarette factories serve the domestic market. Special attention is being paid to the private sector in the four year plan (1970-74) and to the development of the northern part of Iraq. Projects under construction include plants for fruit drying and processing dairy products and a cement works.

Eleven factories are being built under an Economic and Technical Co-operation agreement signed with the U.S.S.R. in March 1959 including a steel mill and an electrical equipment factory at Baghdad, a drug factory at Samarra and an agricultural machinery plant at Musayib. These projects are in various stages of development. The steel mill project is being revised and a cannery at Karbala and textile and clothing factories have been completed but the others are still under construction. A large share of industrial development is expected to take place in co-operation with Eastern bloc countries and several agreements have been signed. Recent agreements include a ID 4 million loan from Bulgaria to pay for complete industrial plants and technical aid in research for minerals, which will be repaid in crude oil shipments and a ID 0.6 million loan from Hungary over two thirds of which is also repayable in oil. The U.S.S.R. is to receive oil to the value of ID 50 million in return for services in connection with industrial projects and on a similar contract Czechoslovakia is to build an oil refinery at Basra. In addition the U.S.S.R. has provided a ID 80 million loan to finance Russian built projects including an oil refinery and pipeline two hydro-electric power stations a phosphate mine and a fertilizer plant while the contracts each valued at ID 7 million have been signed under which the

U.S.S.R. will provide agricultural and road-building equipment.

In July 1964, all plants and firms in which the Government has more than a 25 per cent participation were grouped together into the General Industrial Organisation. With this nationalization of all the big firms, development of heavy industry will in future be carried out by the Government, which now controls most of manufacturing industry and mining. The industrial development law of 1961 offers various tax exemptions to new industries, subject to 90 per cent of the employees and 60 per cent of the capital being Iraqi (in some cases extended to other Arab countries). In the years 1953-65 consumption of electricity rose substantially from 343 to 1,200 million kWh.

Three new electric power projects reached the operating stage in 1959 and 1960. Under the Northern Project, a power station, with an initial capacity of 60,000 kW., was constructed on the Lesser Zab, near Kirkuk. Eventually, its capacity will be raised to 150,000 kW., when it will supply Mosul, Kirkuk, Arbil and Sulaimaniyah. Under the Central Project, Baghdad was equipped with a new power station, costing £8 million, of 80,000 kW. capacity; it is now being extended to a capacity of 200,000 kW. A station built at Basra, under the Southern Project, has an initial capacity of 45,000 kW. and an ultimate capacity of 150,000 kW. A hydro-electric plant, with an initial capacity of 75,000 kW., based on the Samarra barrage, is due to be completed in 1971; other hydro-electric stations are planned at Dokan and Derbendi. Since February 1963 power projects have received greater interest than before. A new 15,000 kW. unit is to be added to the Basra power station (the construction of a gas pipeline from the Rumaila field to Basra was finished in 1962). Also, an additional thermal power station is being constructed at Baghdad with a capacity of 120,000 kW.

A geological and geophysical survey has revealed deposits of iron ore, chromite, copper, lead and zinc in the north, where test drilling is now being carried out. In addition, important deposits of limestone, gypsum, salt, dolomite, phosphates and sulphur were discovered. In 1969 the government formed the Iraq National Minerals Company. Its first task is to develop the main sulphur deposit, discovered at Mishraq in North Central Iraq. The contract was awarded to the state-run Polish firm, Centrozap. Initial production rate in 1971 will be 250,000-350,000 tons annually, rising to a minimum of 1 million tons at a later stage. Polish help will also be given to develop Iraqi phosphate deposits in return for phosphate fertilizers and crude oil deliveries to Poland.

There are the beginnings of a small market in stocks and shares, mainly through the banks, and the Rafidain Bank has been particularly active in this field. In 1960, there were 62 joint stock companies with a paid-up capital of I.D. 21.9 million, and 415 limited liability companies with a paid-up capital of I.D. 17.0 million.

There is also the Industrial Bank, established in 1940 to develop and assist industry. The board is appointed by the Council of Ministers. The authorised capital was increased to £10,000,000 in 1958, and it can lend against the security of immovable property. The Bank is a share-holder in several large plants and in the private Light Industries Company which is establishing plants for the manufacture or assembly of kerosene heaters, cookers, radio sets, animal fodder, bicycles and electric wire.

COMMUNICATIONS

The Public Works Department is responsible for the control and maintenance of public roads in Iraq, but major road and bridge construction are the responsibility of the

Ministry of Planning. A number of major roads and bridges have been recently built. Others are now under construction, some being nearly completed. Among the principal roads recently completed are: (1) the Basra-Amarah-Kut-Baghdad road; (2) the Deltawa-Kirkuk road; (3) the Baghdad-Shargat-Mosul road. In March 1957 the Baghdad-Fallujah and the Baghdad-Mahmoudiyan highways were formally opened. The former is 57 km. long and was built at a cost of £842,000. The latter is part of the Baghdad-Hillah highway whose total length is 95 km. and on which £1,800,000 has been spent. Other roads completed at that time were the Tasloujah-Dokan road in Sulaimaniyah (50 km.) and the Hillah-Mahawell road (26 km.). The reconstruction of roads from Baghdad to Kirkuk, to Mosul via Samarra, to Basra via Kut has been completed; work is in hand on the road from Baghdad to Basra via Hillah.

Eight major bridges have been completed in recent years, including the Queen Aliyah and Aïmma bridges at Baghdad. Other notable bridges under construction are the Qamat Ali bridge at Basra, one over the Tigris at Kut and another over the Euphrates at Falluja; a further three bridges are under construction in Baghdad. A new port is being constructed at Umm Qasr and an Iraqi merchant fleet has been formed. The international airports at Basra and Baghdad are to be supplemented by a third at Mosul which is under construction. A new airport is being constructed at Baghdad.

The Railway Administration is a semi-autonomous body operating under a Director-General who is responsible to a government-appointed board. Freight traffic on a total route length of 1,900 kms. was 1,131 million ton-km. and passenger traffic 366 million passenger-km. in 1967-68. In 1970 Iraq agreed to connect its railway network to that of Syria. This will provide a direct rail link from the Arabian Gulf to the Mediterranean and through Turkey to Europe. Eventually, the government hopes to expand the railway system to provide links with Kuwait, Saudi Arabia, Lebanon and Iran. The U.S.S.R. is helping to build the Baghdad-Basra railway, while France is to supply locomotives. The Railway Administration also operates Iraqi Airways. There are major international airports at Basra and Baghdad.

FINANCE

Development spending is a potential cause of inflation, but prices have not risen sharply in past years, although rents have soared. The cost of living and wholesale prices rose in 1957, but fell in 1958 and 1959. In 1960, they rose by over 3 per cent, but in 1961 and 1962 the government was able to stabilize prices by price control, profit-margin fixing, compulsory rent reductions and the operations of a Government Purchasing Board. Subsequently prices moved up again, but in 1963-67 were largely contained.

Dr. Haseeb has made certain estimates of national income, but there are no comprehensive studies of incomes in Iraq. National income rose from I.D. 337.6 million in 1956 (at constant 1956 prices) to 503.1 million in 1962 but dropped in 1963 to 489.5 million. Income per head moved forward from I.D. 56.9 in 1959 to I.D. 72.5 in 1962; it fell back in 1963 to I.D. 69.2. In any case, a computation of "cash incomes" would give a very different result from that of "real incomes", since the majority of workers are engaged in subsistence agriculture.

Until 1959 the ordinary budget received 30 per cent of state oil revenues. However, this share proved insufficient in the 1956-58 period and necessitated drawings on Treasury surpluses and a loan from the Iraq Petroleum Company. Therefore, in 1959 the share was increased to 50 per cent and the development budget receipts from this source were cut accordingly. After oil revenues, customs

are the largest source of ordinary revenue. Since the 1958 revolution expenditure on the social services and defence, as well as on development costs allocated to ministries have increased substantially. Consequently, despite the receipt of 50 per cent of all state oil revenues, each budget has shown a deficit, except in 1961-62 when a very small surplus emerged.

Ordinary expenditure and revenue have risen steadily through the years. In 1966-67 ordinary revenue was estimated at I D 170 million of which I D 70 million came from oil revenues. Ordinary expenditure was estimated at I D 170 million but the actual is thought to have been nearer I D 200 million. Total oil revenues were estimated at I D 140 million, divided equally between the development and the ordinary budgets. However, in view of the crisis over the oil pipeline through Syria in the last quarter of the financial year, the actual levels were probably rather different. At that time a law was passed pooling the development and ordinary funds, presumably so that development funds could be spent under the ordinary budget. In addition the loss of oil revenues had to be met by drawing on IMF funds.

Total government income for 1969-70 was approximately I D 262 million in the Ordinary Budget and I D 89 million in the Development Budget, an increase of I D 60 million or 20 per cent over the previous year. This was mainly attributable to a rise in oil revenues although tax measures also contributed. Total expenditure during 1969-70 was estimated at about I D 268 million in the Ordinary Budget and I D 111 million in the Development Budget.

ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

A Development Board was established in 1950, and a Ministry of Development in 1953, and 70 per cent of total receipts from the oil companies was allocated to the Board. In 1952 a six-year development plan, involving an expenditure of I D 155.4 million, was drawn up. This was superseded by a new plan in 1955 which in its final form envisaged a total expenditure of I D 500 million over the six years 1955-56-1960-61. Under this plan some I D 153.8 million were to be spent on flood control and irrigation, I D 124.4 million on developing transport, and I D 67.1 million on industry, mining and power. Although actual spending was not at the planned level the Development Board achieved a good deal and the republican government continued most of the projects in hand although allowing less scope to Western consultants and contractors, who in some cases withdrew or were dismissed.

The provision of technicians and industrial equipment is covered under the agreement with the USSR under which Iraq was originally to receive Russian credits worth \$137.5 million, increased to \$182.5 million in 1960. Additional Soviet aid, agreed in 1969, is understood to comprise \$18 million for the development of the North Rumaila oilfield and a further \$50 million for other development projects including a dam on the Euphrates and a ship building dock. In 1959 the Development Board, which had been reorganized after the revolution, was replaced by an

Economic Planning Board manned by representatives of relevant ministries under the Prime Minister, and the Planning Ministry replaced the Ministry of Development. The Board now receives 50 per cent of oil revenues, instead of 70 per cent as formerly, and has supervisory rather than executive functions.

Additional funds for development will be derived from an East German loan amounting to \$84 million granted in 1969. This is a twelve year loan bearing interest at 2.5 per cent and repayable in Iraqi commodities and crude oil. It will be used to finance cement, starch and sugar factories.

A provisional four-year economic development plan, providing for an expenditure of I D 393 million over the period 1959-60-1962-63, came into operation on January 1st, 1960. It was replaced by the Detailed Economic Plan covering the five years 1961-62/1965-66, which envisaged a total expenditure of I D 566.34 million. It concentrated on industrial rather than agricultural and irrigation development which was emphasised in earlier plans, industrial expansion will bring a rise in national income more quickly and reduce the dependence on oil revenues. Priority was to be given to the Eski-Mosul dam, the Dalmaj and Lower Diyala irrigation schemes, petrochemical projects and the transmission of gas and liquefied petroleum gas to Baghdad. However, throughout the years of the Detailed Economic Plan, expenditure was considerably less than the planned figures. The bulk of financing, for development comes from the government's oil revenues, supplemented by a Soviet loan and the net profits of government agencies.

The five-year plan (1965-69) envisaged expenditure of I D 820 million of which the government was expected to contribute I D 640 million and the private sector I D 180 million. The plan emphasised agriculture and industry and power generation accounting for 63 per cent of total expenditure, the remainder was to be devoted to the development of housing, transport and communications. It aimed to raise national income by 8 per cent per annum (compared with 7.8 per cent achieved annually over the previous ten years). However the growth rate of national income during the first years of the plan was only about half the planned 8 per cent, while investment also fell substantially behind plan targets. These failures were due to some extent to the political instability of the country following the June 1967 Arab-Israel war and partly because of the slowness of agriculture and industry to respond to incentives.

The current five year plan (1969-74) estimates total expenditure at I D 973 million. Oil revenues are expected to contribute I D 490 million to the plan and the private sector I D 283 million. The emphasis is still on the development of agriculture and industry. Two fifths of public sector development expenditure will be spent on agriculture to revitalize this sector. It is hoped that agriculture will grow at an annual rate of 5 per cent during the plan period and that industrial production will rise by 12 per cent per annum. The overall objective of the plan is to attain an annual growth rate of 7 per cent in the country's gross domestic product.

J I E M

STATISTICAL SURVEY

AREA AND POPULATION

TOTAL AREA	ARABLE	POPULATION (1968 est.)	BAGHDAD (capital)	MOSUL	BASRA
438,446 sq. km.	75,364 sq. km.	8,800,000	1,884,151	343,121	420,145

A neutral zone of 7,000 sq. km. between southern Iraq and northern Saudi Arabia is administered jointly by the two countries. Nomads move freely through it, but there are no permanent inhabitants.

POPULATION BY PROVINCE (MUHAFADHA)

(1970)

Muhafadha of:

Mosul	1,010,534
Sulaimaniya	469,200
Arbil	421,000
Kirkuk	535,700
Diyala	445,300
Ramadi	345,600
Baghdad	2,696,000

Muhafadha of:

Kut	346,988
Hilla	471,377
Kerbela	447,900
Diwaniya	559,800
Amara	355,900
Nasiriya	524,100
Basra	799,300

(Excluding Iraqis abroad.)

In April 1970 the names of eight provinces were changed as follows: Ramadi province became *Anbar*, Kut *Wasit*, Diwaniya *Qadisiyah*, Samawan *Muthanna*, Nasiriya *Dhiqar*, Amara *Maysan*, Hilla *Babil* and Mosul *Naynawa*.

EMPLOYMENT

(1967)

Agriculture	1,600,000	Railways	17,818*
Industry	145,000	Port of Basra	14,848
Oil Companies	10,909	Construction	59,138

* 1966

AGRICULTURE

AREA AND PRODUCTION OF PRINCIPAL WINTER CROPS

CROP	1966-67		1967-68		1968-69	
	AREA ('000 dunums)	PRODUC- TION ('000 tons)	AREA ('000 dunums)	PRODUC- TION ('000 tons)	AREA ('000 dunums)	PRODUC- TION ('000 tons)
Wheat	7,367.0	860.0	8,040.0	1,371.0	8,355.0	1,371.0
Barley	4,342.0	855.0	4,873.0	931.0	4,872.0	1,250.0
Linseed	64.2	12.7	61.8	11.9	64.9	11.5
Lentils	38.6	6.0	42.9	7.5	39.0	6.5
Vetch (Hurtman)	4.5	1.3	3.8	1.0	3.4	0.8
Broad Beans	73.1	18.9	69.7	20.3	67.2	17.7

1970 Figures: Wheat 1,235,600 tons, Barley 682,200 tons.

IRAQ--(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

AREA AND PRODUCTION OF PRINCIPAL SUMMER CROPS

CROP	1967		1968		1969	
	AREA (000 dunums)	PRODUC- TION (000 tons)	AREA (000 dunums)	PRODUC- TION (000 tons)	AREA (000 dunums)	PRODUC- TION (000 tons)
Rice	563 0	308 4	573 0	324 5	538 7	284 2
Sesame	68 2	12 0	68 6	12 0	68 4	12 0
Maize	16 6	4 5	15 5	4 4	16 1	4 8
Green grams	64 7	14 0	62 4	10 6	53 5	9 0
Millet	31 8	8 2	22 4	5 6	5 7	1 3
Giant millet	28 3	9 1	22 7	7 1	12 5	2 4

Livestock (1969) Sheep 12 000 000 Goats 1 000 000 **Fruits** Date Orange Pomegranate Apple Peach
 Cattle 1 650 000 Donkeys 500 000 Horses 120 000 Grape Pear Fig and Olive

DATE CROP

(tons)

1965-66	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69
280 000	380 000	330 000	260 000

AREA AND PRODUCTION OF COTTON

YEAR	AREA (dunums)	SEED COTTON PRODUCED (tons)	NO OF BALES	OUTPUT WEIGHT (tons)
1966	132 047	28 710	56 934	9 316
1967	157 835	35 032	57 320	11 569
1968	182 568	40 570	69 196	13 429
1969	238 081	40 033	58 170	11 312

IRRIGATION

	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69
Number of Pumps	9 740	10 236	11 612	13 066
Total Horse Power	296 021	306 900	328 680	357 099

OIL

PRODUCTION OF CRUDE OIL (000 long tons)

COMPANY	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971 (Jan-May)
Iraq Petroleum Co Ltd	37 625	54 328	55 441	56 893	3 284
Basra Petroleum Co Ltd.	20 049	16 511	16 587	17 067	11 473
Mosul Petroleum Co. Ltd.	1 64	1 281	1 281	1 281	536
TOTAL	58 938	72 6 0	73 309	75 241	35 293

INDUSTRY

('000 units)

	1964	1965	1966	1967
Leather tanning:				
Upper leather (sq. ft.)	5,365.5	5,300.6	6,140.0	6,110.9
Toilet Soap (tons)	5.8	4.6	7.2	5.9
Vegetable oil (tons)	37.1	46.7	43.1	50.2
Woollen textiles:				
Cloth (square metres)	824.6	880.7	937.7	868.2
Blankets (number)	388.5	461.7	510.9	506.8
Cotton textiles (metres)	24,699.0	24,975.9	25,353.9	25,003.4
Beer (litres)	3,773.4	4,803.1	5,639.8	5,523.2
Matches (gross)	1,148.4	1,102.5	1,031.0	1,275.3
Cigarettes (million)	5.0	5.1	5.2	4.9
Shoes (pairs)	5,426.3	5,203.6	5,363.5	5,145.0

FINANCE

I.D. 1 (Iraqi Dinar)=1,000 fils=10 riyals=20 dirhams.

I.D. 0.857=£1 sterling; I.D. 0.357=U.S. \$1.00.

I.D. 100 = £116.58 sterling =U.S. \$280.

Combined Ordinary and Development Budget 1967-68 (estimates): Revenue I.D. 337 million; Expenditure I.D. 424 million
1968-69 (estimates): Revenue I.D. 291 million; Expenditure I.D. 351 million.

FIVE YEAR DEVELOPMENT PLAN 1965-70
 (million I.D.)

GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT	
Agriculture	173.6
Industry	187.2
Transport and Communications	110.1
Hospitals, schools, public building and housing	134.8
TOTAL	605.7

The new 1970-74 Development Plan calls for total investment of I.D. 973 million, of which I.D. 490 million will accrue from oil revenues, 41 per cent of the latter figure will be invested in agriculture, and 35 per cent will be devoted to industry.

NATIONAL ACCOUNTS
 (million I.D., at 1966 prices)

SECTOR	1966	1967	1968	1969
Agriculture	13.9	18.3	20.4	17.1
Mining and Quarrying	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.5
Manufacturing Industries	36.4	33.2	34.3	35.1
Construction	2.1	2.0	2.2	2.2
Electricity, Water and Gas	5.2	16.5	10.3	10.6
Transport, Communication and Storage	23.0	19.5	17.3	21.6
Wholesale and Retail Trade	6.8	6.4	7.0	7.2
Banking and Insurance	0.2	0.2	0.6	0.7
Ownership of Dwellings	29.1	23.9	28.6	29.3
Public Administration	19.9	18.9	20.4	20.8
Services	7.7	9.8	10.3	10.6
TOTAL	144.7	149.0	151.9	155.7

IRAQ—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

BALANCE OF PAYMENTS (million I D)

	1966			1967		
	Credit	Debit	Balance	Credit	Debit	Balance
<i>Goods, Services and Transfer Payments</i>						
Merchandise	333 6	176 0	157 6	295 8	151 7	144 1
Transport freight and insurance	10 6	0 9	9 7	10 4	0 8	9 6
Travel	16 5	29 7	- 13 2	16 1	15 8	0 3
Investment income	4 2	141 9	- 137 7	3 6	122 2	- 122 6
Government n.e.s	2 3	9 1	- 6 8	2 2	10 6	- 8 4
Other services	1 4	4 5	- 2 9	1 6	4 7	- 3 4
Private transfers	1 5	0 4	1 1	0 9	0 6	0 3
Government transfers	0 3	1 3	- 1 0	5 1	0 4	4 7
TOTAL AND CURRENT BALANCE	370 4	364 6	5 8	335 7	310 4	25 3
<i>Capital and Monetary Gold</i>						
Private investment	25 3	—	25 3	3 6	—	3 6
Central government loans and aid	3 6	2 2	1 4	3 2	—	3 2
Private monetary movements	3 5	—	3 5	1 2	0 7	0 5
Government monetary transactions (with IMF and other central institutions)	10 4	36 1	- 25 7	5 7	15 0	- 8 3
CAPITAL BALANCE	—	—	2 8	—	—	2 0
Net Errors and Omissions	—	—	- 8 6	—	—	23 3

EXTERNAL TRADE

TOTAL TRADE ('000 I D)

YEAR	IMPORTS	EXPORTS*	RE-EXPORTS	TRANSIT
1967	151 243	20 664	3 198	11,504
1968	144 164	23 029	4 541	20 492
1969	157 200	22 000	3 937	20 356
1970	181 651	22 565	2 163	27 941

* Exports of crude oil are not included

EXPORTS OF CRUDE OIL ('000 I D)

1965	1966	1967	1968	1969
293 595	307 046	274 396	344 154	346 185
(million long tons)				
58 2	64 1	56 6	69 3	69 7

COMMODITIES ('000 I D)

IMPORTS	1968	1969	1970
Tea	6 098	7 061	6 052
Sugar	6 268	8 151	7 927
Pharmaceutical products	3 118	5 816	5 481
Clothing	13 162	n a	664
Boilers and engines	10 981	30 194	28 808
Automobiles and parts	-58 715	8 143	12 076
Timber	2 853	3 024	2 910

EXPORTS	1968	1969	1970
Barley	667	1 278	n a
Dates	6 439	7 444	n a
Straw and fodder	452	395	27
Raw wool	1,234	1 591	n a
Raw cotton	879	1 204	n a
Hides and skins	1 482	1 699	1 693
Cement	4 357	2 142	n a

COUNTRIES
('000 I.D.)

IMPORTS	1969	1970	IMPORTS	1969	1970
Jordan	1,184	986	Germany (Federal Republic)	5,867	6,459
Kuwait	1,006	640	Italy	12,304	5,460
Lebanon	3,745	4,971	Netherlands	2,495	4,006
Syria	2,029	2,200	U.K.	18,814	21,821
U.A.R.	3,697	3,420	Bulgaria	2,397	3,486
Ceylon	5,236	3,846	Czechoslovakia	3,188	4,709
China (People's Republic)	7,093	8,174	Germany (Democratic Republic)	1,447	2,876
India	4,809	5,281	Hungary	2,158	2,029
Japan	12,645	5,606	Poland	2,205	5,129
Malaysia	3,546	6,746	Romania	2,263	689
Pakistan	1,074	2,221	U.S.S.R.	15,514	19,263
Austria	1,930	2,426	Yugoslavia	1,575	1,307
Belgium	5,270	9,270	Cuba	1,600	625
Denmark	1,194	3,683	U.S.A.	5,783	6,531
France	7,988	10,714			

EXPORTS (excluding oil)	1969	1970
China (People's Republic)	1,871	1,440
India	1,268	1,333
Kuwait	2,331	2,647
Lebanon	3,914	2,825
Syria	1,130	1,430
U.S.S.R.	1,467	2,029
U.A.R.	2,640	3,301

EXPORTS OF CRUDE OIL BY COUNTRY
(million long tons)

	1966	1967	1968	1969
United Kingdom	10.2	3.1	3.1	3.2
France	10.3	14.4	15.7	14.8
Italy	8.7	9.9	17.6	18.0
Netherlands	5.3	4.7	5.1	6.7
German Federal Republic	3.6	1.7	2.5	2.1
Japan	4.6	2.7	1.4	0.2
Belgium	n.a.	n.a.	3.2	1.3
Brazil	n.a.	n.a.	2.9	3.1
Greece	n.a.	n.a.	1.7	3.0
South Africa	n.a.	n.a.	1.9	1.9
Spain	n.a.	n.a.	1.8	2.0
Turkey	n.a.	n.a.	2.0	2.0
TOTAL (incl. others)	64.1	56.6	69.3	69.7

TRANSPORT

RAILWAYS

	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68
Passenger km (ooo)	443 697	431 186	366 716
Freight ton km (ooo)	1 008 804	1 079 132	1 131 232

ROADS
(ooo)

	1966	1967	1968
Cars	58 2	60 6	61 5
Lorries	27 5	30 1	31 3
Buses	9 5	9 1	9 2
Motor Cycles	5 6	5 8	5 9

INLAND WATERWAYS

	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68
Total net reg. tonnage	218 469	218 589	218 051
Number of Vessels	1 350	1 358	1 322

SHIPPING

Movement of Ocean going Merchant Vessels at Port of Basra

YEAR	NO OF PASSENGERS (Arrivals and Departures)	NO OF VESSELS		TONNAGE OF CARGO	
		Loaded (Entered and Cleared)	In Ballast (Entered and Cleared)	Imported	Exported
1965	12 707	1 020	527	973 538	539 298
1966	10 470	1 094	607	1 069 940	717 286
1967	8 002	1 006	578	1 088 502	411 391
1968	8 127	926	577	870 271	270 420

SHIPPING AT FAO OIL TERMINAL

	1965	1966	1967
Number of ships docking	8	18	76
Net registered tonnage	77 120	163 042	726 430

EDUCATION
(1968-69)

	NUMBER OF SCHOOLS	NUMBER OF PUPILS
Primary	5 137	1 017 950
Secondary	840	285 721
Vocational	43	10 388
Teacher Training	48	10 861
Colleges	45	41 189

TOURISM

	1966	1967	1968
Number of Visitors	395 016	391 569	396 275

Source Central Statistical Organization Ministry of Planning Baghdad.

PROVISIONAL CONSTITUTION

The following are the principal features of the Provisional Constitution issued on September 22nd, 1968:

The Iraqi Republic is a popular democratic state. Islam is the state religion and the basis of its laws and constitution.

The political economy of the state is founded in socialism.

The state will protect liberty of religion, freedom of speech and opinion. Public meetings are permitted under the law. All discrimination based on race, religion or language is forbidden. There shall be freedom of the Press, and the right to form societies and trade unions in conformity with the law is guaranteed.

The national rights of the Kurdish people are guaranteed within the framework of the unity of Iraq.

The highest authority in the country is the Council of Command of the Revolution, which will promulgate laws until the election of a National Assembly. The (five) members of the Council of Command of the Revolution are nominated Vice-Presidents of the State.

Two amendments to the constitution were announced in November 1969. The President, already Chief of State and head of the government, also became the official Supreme Commander of the Armed Forces and President of the Command Council of the Revolution. Membership of the latter body, was to increase from five to a larger number at the President's discretion.

Earlier, a Presidential decree replaced the 14 local government districts by 16 governorates, each headed by a governor with wide powers.

The fifteen-article agreement which ended the Kurdish war was issued on March 12th, 1970. A new provisional constitution was announced in July 1970 which took account of this agreement. It had 67 articles, the most prominent being the article which further defined the Revolutionary Command Council. This now has 12 members, all members of the National Command Party. The President is elected by a two-thirds majority of the Council; he is responsible to the Council and the Vice-Presidents and Ministers will be responsible to him.

THE GOVERNMENT

President: General AHMED HASSAN AL BAKR.

Vice-President: SALIH MAHDI AMMASH.

COUNCIL OF COMMAND OF THE REVOLUTION

Members: The President, the Vice-President, and twelve other members.

COUNCIL OF MINISTERS

(July 1971)

Prime Minister: Gen. AHMAD HASSAN AL BAKR.

Minister of the Interior: Gen. SAADOUN GHADAN.

Minister of Defence: Gen. HAMMAD SHEBAB.

Minister of Foreign Affairs: Dr. ABDUL KAREEM AL SHEIKHLY.

Minister of Industry and Acting Minister of the Economy: Capt. TAHA JAZRAWI.

Minister of Labour and Social Affairs: MORTADA AL HADITHI.

Minister of Information: SHAFIQ KAMALI.

Minister of Justice: AZIZ SHERIF.

Minister of Transport: ANWAR ABDUL KADER AL HADITHI.

Minister for Youth: HAMED AL JOUBOURI.

Minister of Communications: ADNAN AYUB SABRI.

Minister of Municipalities: IHSAN SHIRZAD.

Minister of Northern Development: MUHAMMAD MAHMOUD ABDUL RAHMAN.

Minister of Housing: NOURI SHAOUIS.

Minister of Agriculture: NAFTHED JALAL.

Minister of Agrarian Reform: IZZAT AL DOURI.

Minister of Oil and Minerals: Dr. SAADOUN HAMADI.

Minister of Education: Dr. AHMED ABDUL SATTAR^{AL} JIWARI.

Minister of Higher Education: FOUAD KHALIL ISMAIL.

Minister of Planning: Dr. RASHID RIFAI.

Minister of Finance: AMIN ABDUL KERIM.

Minister of Health: Dr. IZZAT MUSTAFA.

Minister of State for Military Affairs: KHALID MAKKI AL HASHIMI.

Minister of State for Presidential Affairs: Dr. ABDUL SATTAR AL JIWARI.

Minister of State: RASHID AL-RIFA'I.

DIPLOMATIC REPRESENTATION

REPRESENTATIVES OF IRAQ ABROAD

(A) Ambassador, (M) Minister, (CA) Chargé d'Affaires

Afghanistan: A. SAIB, Kabul (A)
Albania: MOHIEDDIN MAARUF TIRANI (A)
Algeria: J. MUHAMMED, Algiers (A)
Austria: NOURI AL KADHIM Vienna (A)
Belgium: FOUD ABDUL JABBER, Brussels (A)
Ceylon: BASHIR TALIB Colombo (A)
China, People's Republic: BING MUNDHIR URAIN Peking (A)
Czechoslovakia: ABDULAHAD DARA, Prague (M)
Ethiopia: (see U A R)
France: MUHAMMAD SADIQ AL MASHAT, Paris (A)
German Democratic Republic: (to be appointed), East Berlin (A)
Ghana: SAADOUN BADIA, Accra (M)
Greece: (vacant) Athens (CA)
Guinea: (see U A R)
Hungary: M. MAHMOUD, Budapest (A)
India: Dr. JASIM AL WAHABI
Indonesia: ABDULLAH SAMARRAI Djakarta (A)
Italy: TAHA MAARUF Rome (A)
Japan: FAISAL AL-KHIZORAN, Tokyo (A)
Jordan: AHMAD AMIN Amman (A)
Korea (D.P.R.): ABDELKERIM MARKI Pyongyang (A)
Kuwait: MIDHAT JUMA Kuwait (A)
Lebanon: TALEB SHEBIB Beirut (A)

Libya: ABDULLAH SABAI Tripoli (A)
Morocco: Maj. Gen. FADL ASSAF, Rabat (A)
Netherlands: Dr. GHAB MAWLOUD MUKHLIS, The Hague (A)
Nigeria: H. ALBARAZANCHI Lagos (A)
Pakistan: ABDUL QADIR AL GAILANI Karachi (A)
Saudi Arabia: SALIN NUAIMI Jeddah (A)
Somalia: NASIM JAWAD Mogadishu (A)
Spain: HASAN NAQIB Madrid (A)
Sudan: (vacant), Khartoum (A)
Sweden: MUHAMMAD GAAYRA, Stockholm (A)
Switzerland: N. AL-JAMIL, Berne (A)
Syria: UDEN BAYATI (A)
Tunisia: M. ALJAZAIRI, Tunis (M)
Turkey: (vacant) Ankara (A)
U.S.S.R.: MOHSEN AL-HABIB Moscow (A)
U.A.R.: M. AL HADISY Cairo (A) (also accredited to Guinea and Ethiopia)
United Kingdom: KADHIM AL KHALAF London (A)
Yemen: A. AL-FARISI, Sana'a (A)
Yugoslavia: FAISAL HABIB AL KAIZARANA Belgrade (A)

United Nations: TALIB AL SHIBIB New York (Perm. Rep.)

EMBASSIES AND LEGATIONS ACCREDITED TO IRAQ

(Baghdad unless otherwise stated.)

(E) Embassy; (L) Legation

Afghanistan: 28/10 Waziriyah (E), Ambassador SAID TAJEDDIN (also accredited to Jordan)
Algeria: Karradat Mariam (E), Ambassador AHMAD TEFWIK AL-MADANI
Austria: Masbah (E), Ambassador WALTER DE CONTES
Belgium: Abu Nawas Street, Kard el Pasha (E), Ambassador MARCEL DUPRET
Bulgaria: 35/1 Karradat Mariam (E), Ambassador PENYU DOKUZOV
Canada: Teheran, Iran (E)
Ceylon: 10B/6/12 Alwiyah (E), Chargé d'Affaires H. O. WIJEGONAWARDENA.
China, People's Republic: Karradat Mariam (E) Ambassador KUNG TA IZI
Czechoslovakia: 11/7 Karradat Mariam (E); Ambassador (vacant)
Denmark: 204 Nidhal St., Alwiyah (E), Chargé d'Affaires: (vacant)
Ethiopia: Cairo, U.A.R. (L)
Finland: Masbah 37/7/35 (E), Chargé d'Affaires: ARTO TANNER

France: Kard el Pasha 9/G/3 (E), Ambassador PIERRE CERLES
German Democratic Republic: (address not available) (E), Ambassador HANS JÜRGEN WEITZ
Greece: Beirut, Lebanon (E)
Guinea: Cairo, U.A.R. (E)
Hungary: 40/35 Masbah (E); Ambassador LAJOS S. NAGY (also accredited to Afghanistan and Kuwait).
India: Taha Street, Najib Pasha, Ahmadiya (E); Ambassador, MAHBOOB AHMED
Indonesia: Masbah 22/9/21 (E), Chargé d'Affaires: SORTAN BAHROEM SJAH
Italy: Karradat Mariam (E), Ambassador FRANCESCO V. MARERI
Japan: 40/7/35 Masbah (E); Ambassador TATSUO FUKAI
Jordan: 10/9/22 Masbah (E), Ambassador ZUHAIIR AL-MUFTI
Kuwait: al Mansour Street, Karradat Mariam (E), Ambassador MOHAMMED A. A. AL-HAMAD
Lebanon: 11/35 Masbah (E), Ambassador FAWZI AL-BARDAWIL
Libya: Saadoun Park (E), Ambassador: FADHL AL-AMIR

IRAQ—(DIPLOMATIC REPRESENTATION, NATIONAL ASSEMBLY, ETC.)

Morocco: 3/1/37 Masbah (E); *Ambassador:* ABDELHADI TAZI.

Netherlands: Nidhal St. (E); *Ambassador:* HUGO SCHELTENA (also accredited to Iran).

Norway: Ankara, Turkey (E).

Pakistan: Karradat Mariam (E); *Ambassador:* ABD AL FADL MUHAMMAD ABD AL FATH.

Poland: Karrada al-Sharkiya, Masbah (E); *Ambassador:* STANISLAW TURBANSKY.

Portugal: Ankara, Turkey (L).

Saudi Arabia: Waziriyah (E); *Ambassador:* MOHAMMED AL-HAMAD AL-SHEBAILY.

Somalia: Cairo, U.A.R. (E).

Spain: Saadoun Park 162/2 (E); *Ambassador:* Marques DE SANTA CRUZ DE IGNACIO (also accredited to Afghanistan).

Sudan: 51/5/35 Masbah (E); *Chargé d'Affaires:* SAYID SHARIF AHMED (also accredited to Jordan and Turkey).

Sweden: 132/2 Al Nidhal St. (E); *Ambassador:* BENGT OHDNER.

Switzerland: 3/1/2 Saadoun St. (E); *Ambassador:* ANDRÉ DOMINCE.

Syria: 160/2 Saadoun Park (E); *Ambassador:* BAHAEDDIN NAKKAR.

Thailand: Karachi, Pakistan (E).

Turkey: 2/8 Waziriyah (E); *Ambassador:* ALI WINKAYA.

U.S.S.R.: 140 Mansour St., Karradat Mariam (E); *Ambassador:* VENIAMIN ANDREVITCH LIKHACHEV.

United Arab Republic: Zahawi St. (E); *Ambassador:* AHMED LUTFY METWALLY.

United Kingdom: Shari Salah Ud-Din, Karkh (E); *Ambassador:* H. G. BALFOUR PAUL.

Vatican: Karrada al-Sharkiya, Saadoun St. (Apostolic Nunciature); *Apostolic Pro-Nuncio:* Mgr. MAURICE PERRIN.

Viet-Nam, Democratic Republic: Damascus, Syria (E).

Venezuela: Cairo, U.A.R. (E).

Yemen: Karradat Mariam (E); *Chargé d'Affaires:* ALI AL-UNSI.

Yugoslavia: 10/11/1 Asfar Quarter, Battaween (E); *Ambassador:* ZVANKO ROAS (also accredited to Kuwait).

Iraq also has diplomatic relations with Albania, Ghana, Ireland and Democratic Republic of Korea.

NATIONAL ASSEMBLY

No form of National Assembly has existed in Iraq since the 1958 revolution which overthrew the monarchy. The existing provisional constitution contains provisions for the election of a new 100-member assembly at a date to be determined by the government.

POLITICAL PARTIES

Baath Party: Baghdad; revolutionary Arab socialist movement, founded in Damascus in 1947; has ruled Iraq since July 1968; Regional Sec.-Gen. AHMED HASSAN AL BAKR; Vice Regional Sec.-Gen. SADDAM HUSSAIN.

Kurdish Democratic Party: seeks special status for the Kurdish minority in north-eastern Iraq; Leader Gen. MUSTAFA AL-BARZANI.

JUDICIAL SYSTEM

Courts in Iraq consist of the following: The Court of Cassation, Courts of Appeal, First Instance Courts, Peace Courts, Courts of Sessions, Shara' Courts and Penal Courts.

The Court of Cassation: This is the highest judicial bench of all the Civil Courts; it sits in Baghdad, and consists of the President and a number of Vice-Presidents and not less than fifteen permanent judges, delegated judges and reporters as necessity requires. There are four bodies in the Court of Cassation, these are: (a) The General body, (b) Civil and Commercial body, (c) Personal Status body, (d) The Penal body.

A Technical Bureau has been established which is related to the Court of Cassation and is carrying out the work of abstracting and classifying the legal principles which are contained in the judgments issued by it.

Courts of Appeal: The country is divided into five Districts of Appeal: Baghdad, Mosul, Basrah, Hilla, and

Kirkuk, each with its Court of Appeal consisting of a President, Vice-Presidents and not less than three members, who consider the objections against the decisions issued by the First Instance Courts of first grade.

Courts of First Instance: These courts are of two kinds: Limited and Unlimited in jurisdiction.

Limited Courts deal with Civil and Commercial suits, the value of which is five hundred Dinars and less; and suits, the value of which cannot be defined, and which are subject to fixed fees. Limited Courts consider these suits in the final stage and they are subject to Cassation.

Unlimited Courts consider the Civil and Commercial suits irrespective of their value, and suits the value of which exceeds five hundred Dinars with first grade subject to appeal.

First Instance Courts consist of one judge in the centre of each *Liwa*, some *Qadhas* and *Nahiyas*, as the Minister of Justice judges necessary.

IRAQ—(JUDICIAL SYSTEM RELIGION)

Revolutionary Courts These deal with major cases that would affect the security of the state in any sphere political financial or economic. In December 1968 the death penalty was introduced for espionage a special three-man court was then set up to try such cases

Courts of Sessions There is in every District of Appeal a Court of Sessions which consists of three judges under the presidency of the President of the Court of Appeal or one of his Vice-Presidents. It considers the penal suits prescribed by Penal Proceedings Law and other laws. More than one Court of Sessions may be established in one District of Appeal by notification issued by the Minister of Justice mentioning therein its headquarters jurisdiction and the manner of its establishment

Shara' Courts A Shara' Court is established wherever there is a First Instance Court. The Muslim judge of the First Instance Court may be a *Qadhi* to the Shara' Court if a special *Qadhi* has not been appointed thereto. The Shara' Court considers matters of personal status and religious matters in accordance with the provisions of the law supplement to the Civil and Commercial Proceedings Law

Penal Courts A Penal Court of first grade is established in every First Instance Court. The judge of the First Instance Court is considered as penal judge unless a special judge is appointed thereto. More than one Penal Court may be established to consider the suits prescribed by the Penal Proceedings Law and other laws

One or more Investigation Court may be established in the centre of each Liwa and a judge is appointed thereto. They may be established in the centres of *Qadhas* and *Nahiyas* by order of the Minister of Justice. The judge carries out the investigation in accordance with the provisions of Penal Proceedings Law and the other laws

There is in every First Instance Court a department for the execution of judgments presided over by the Judge of First Instance if a special President is not appointed thereto. It carries out its duties in accordance with the provisions of Execution Law

There is a Notary Public for the swearing of contracts and he carries out his duties in accordance with the provisions relating to Notaries Public.

RELIGION

ISLAM

Over 90 per cent of the population are Muslims. The Arabs of northern Iraq, the Bedouins, the Kurds and some of the inhabitants of Baghdad and Basra, are mainly of the Sunni sect. The remaining Arabs south of the Diyala belong to the Shi'a sect. Leaders: Mr. ALWAJID (Sunni) Prof. ABDUL QASSEM AL MOUSAWI AL KHOUTI (Shi'a)

CHRISTIANITY

There are Christian communities in all the principal towns of Iraq, but their principal villages lie mostly in the Mosul district. The Christians of Iraq fall into three groups: (a) the free Churches including the Nestorian, Gregorian and Jacobite; (b) the churches known as *Uniate* since they are in union with the Roman Catholic Church including the Armenian Uniates, Jacobite Uniates and Chaldeans; (c) mixed bodies of Protestant converts, New Chaldeans and Orthodox Armenians.

Catholic

Latin Rite Archbishop of Baghdad Most Rev. MAURICE PERRIN approx. 2000 adherents.

Armenian Rite Archbishop of Baghdad Most Rev. NERSES TAYROYAN

Chaldean Rite Patriarch of Babylon of the Chaldeans (vacant) approx. 220,000 adherents.

Syrian Rite Archbishop of Mosul Most Rev. EMANUEL BENYI Archbishop of Baghdad Most Rev. ATHANASE J. D. BAKOSE approx. 25,000 adherents

Orthodox Syrian Community 12,000 adherents

Orthodox (Gregorian) Community 12,000 adherents mainly Armenians. Acting Bishop of Baghdad KRIKOR HAGOPIAN

JUDAISM

The Jewish community numbered some 250,000 in 1939, but most Jews have left the country since the Second World War, particularly during the nineteen fifties. Unofficial estimates put the present size of the community at 2,500, almost all living in Baghdad.

OTHERS

About thirty thousand Yazidis and a smaller number of Turcomans, Sabaeans and Shebeks make up the rest of the population.

Sabean Community 20,000 adherents. Head Sheikh DAK HIL Nasuriyah. Mandeans mostly in Nasuriyah.

Yazidis 30,000 adherents. TASHIN BAIK Asifli.

THE PRESS

The daily press was completely reorganized in December 1967 when by special decree all private newspapers were closed and a total of five government-controlled newspapers were recognized. Under the new law cabinet permission will be required to establish a new daily. Management control is by an institute attached to the Ministry of Information. An official statement said that the new press organs would serve as observers of the government, not official mouthpieces. A Kurdish language newspaper was allowed to resume publication in 1968. Some 15 magazines covering a wide range of interests are published by the Ministry of Information.

DAILIES

- al Horriya:** Baghdad; circ. 3,000.
al Jumhuriya (*The Republic*): Waziriyah, Baghdad; f. 1963, re-founded 1967; Editor FAWZI ABDUL JABBAR; circ. 20,000.
al Masa: Baghdad; f. 1967; evenings; Editor AZIZ MADI.
al Mouaten: Baghdad; f. 1967; Editor ABDULLAH SALAH.
al Noor: Baghdad; circ. 2,000.
al Taakhi (*Brotherhood*): Baghdad; re-founded 1968; privately-owned; Kurdish language.
al Thawrah al Arabiya (*Arab Revolution*): Baghdad; f. 1964, re-founded 1967; organ of the Arab Socialist Union; Editor HAZEM MUSHTAQ.
Baghdad Observer: P.O.B. 257, Karantina, Baghdad; f. 1967; daily newspaper; English language; Editor-in-Chief MUHAMMAD KHIDHER ABBAS; circ. 13,000.

WEEKLIES

- Alif Ba:** Baghdad; circ. 2,000.
al Amal wal Ummal (*Work and Workers*): Baghdad; trades union organ; Editor NURI HAMMUD AL-BADRAN.
al Anba al-Jadida: Baghdad; circ. 10,000.
al-Aswaq al-Tijariya (*The Commercial Markets*): 28/13 Sharia Hassan Ben Thabit, Baghdad; f. 1951; economic and commercial; Propr. and Editor JAMAL DAWOOD; circ. 3,000.
al-Iqtisad al-Iraqi (*The Iraq Economy*): Baghdad; economic affairs; Editor A. B. MAHMUD AL-UMAR.
al-Jumhar al-Riadhi: Baghdad; sports.
al-Kashkal: Mosul; humorous.
al Khalij al-Arabi: Baghdad; f. 1963; pro-Government.
Kul Shi': Baghdad; general interest.
al-Malab: Baghdad; sports.
al-Mutafarrij: Rashid St., Hayderkhana, P.O.B. 409, Baghdad; f. 1965; satirical; Editor MOUJIB HASSOON.
al-Nahdha: Sulaymaniya; Arabic and Kurdish; general interest.
L'Opinion de Baghdad: L'Etablissement Général de la Press et de l'Imprimerie, B.P. 257, Baghdad; f. 1970; French; Editor-in-Chief ALI SMIDA.
al Rasid: Baghdad; circ. 2,000.
Saut al Fallah: Baghdad; circ. 5,000.
Saut al-Ummal: Baghdad; trades union.
al Shuoun al Zirayah wol Iqtisadiyah: Baghdad.
al Watan al-Arab: Baghdad.

PERIODICALS

- al Adib:** Mosul; political; fortnightly.
al Amilun fil Naft: Baghdad; petroleum news; monthly; Editor FAKHRU KHALIL AZIZ.

al Aqlam (*The Pen*): Baghdad; literary; monthly; Ministry of Culture and Information; f. 1964.

Commerce: Chamber of Commerce, Baghdad; f. 1938; quarterly; commercial and economic; circ. 2,000; also a weekly bulletin dealing in commodity prices and market conditions; circ. 2,000.

al-Fikr al-Arabi: Mosul; political; fortnightly.

al-Hadaf: Mosul; political; fortnightly.

al-Idhaa wat-Television: Baghdad; radio and television programmes and articles; fortnightly.

Iraq Government Gazette, The: Ministry of Information, Baghdad; f. 1922; Arabic edition irregular, English edition weekly; legal and official; circ. Arabic 4,000, English 450.

Journal of the Faculty of Medicine, The: College of Medicine, University of Baghdad, Baghdad; f. 1941; quarterly; Arabic and English; medical and technical; published by the Faculty of Medicine, Baghdad; Edited by Prof. YOUSIF D. AL NAAMAN, M.D., D.Sc.

Majallat al-Ziraa al-Iraqiyah: Baghdad; quarterly; agricultural; published by the Ministry of Agriculture.

Majallat-al-Majma al-'Ilmi al-Iraqi: Iraqi Academy, Waziriyah, Baghdad; quarterly; scholarly magazine on Arabic Islamic culture.

Mesopotamia: Ministry of Culture and Guidance, Tourism Service, Baghdad; monthly.

al-Mu'allam al-Jadid: Ministry of Education, Baghdad; f. 1935; quarterly; educational, social, and general; owned and published by the Ministry of Education; Editor ALI AL-SHOBAKI.

Mujalat Huwat al Tuwabiya al Iraqiyah: Baghdad; monthly.
Nation, The: Mid-East House, Shahrain; f. 1960; monthly; English; Editor MUMTAZ TARIQ.

Review of Arab Petroleum and Economics: Baghdad; English and Arabic; monthly.

al Sadura: Baghdad; bi-monthly; religious and cultural.

al Sinai (*The Industrialist*): P.O.B. 11120, Baghdad; publ. by Iraqi Federation of Industries; Arabic and English quarterly.

Sumar: Directorate-General of Antiquities, Jamal Abdul Nasr Street, Baghdad; f. 1945; archaeological, historical journal; publ. by the Directorate-General of Antiquities; Chair. of Ed. Board: Dr. FAISAL EL-WAELY (Dir.-Gen. of Antiquities); twice yearly.

NEWS AGENCIES

Iraqi News Agency: Baghdad; f. 1959; gathers and circulates news and photographs for use at home and abroad; independent in financial and administrative affairs; has contracts and agreements with various international commercial agencies and government newsagencies; Board of Directors includes representatives from the Ministries of Culture and Information, Foreign Affairs, Dir. of Military Intelligence, Dir. Gen. of Broadcasting and Television; offices in Beirut, Amman and Kuwait and correspondents in the Arab foreign countries; Dir.-Gen. BAHJAT SHAKIR.

FOREIGN BUREAUX

Agence France Presso: P.O.B. 5699, South Gate, Baghdad; Chief NAGIB FRANGIEH.

Middle East News Agency: Rasheed Str., al-Morabaa, Zaki Gamil Building, P.O.B. 2, Baghdad.

D.P.A. and Tass also have offices in Baghdad.

PUBLISHERS

al Ahliya: Mutanabi St., Baghdad.
 Dar al Batri: Amin Square Rashid Street, Baghdad.
 Dar al Bayan: Mutanabi Street Baghdad
 Iraq International Trade Directory: Saadoun St., P O B 3119 Baghdad.
 al Irtihad. Baghdad, Arab literature
 al Jumhuriyah Printing and Publishing Co.: Wazniya, Baghdad f 1963, the principal Iraqi publishers of newspapers and books

al Ma'arif Ltd : Mutanabi Street, Baghdad, f 1929 publishes periodicals and books in Arabic, Kurdish Turkish, French and English.
 al Muthanna: Mutanabi St Baghdad
 al Nahdah: Mutanabi St., Baghdad, politics Arab affairs.
 Dar al Nafih: North Gate Baghdad.
 Dar al Shafik: Baghdad art books

RADIO AND TELEVISION

RADIO

Broadcasting Station of the Republic of Iraq: Directorate Gen. of Broadcasting and Television Salihiya Baghdad, home service broadcasts in Arabic, Kurdish and Turkman foreign service in French German, English, Russian, Persian Turkish and Urdu Dir Gen M S AL SARAF
 Idash Baghdad: f 1936 20 hours daily
 Idash Sawt Aljamahir: f 1970 12 hours daily
 Idash Dar Al-Salam: f 1971 commercial 12 hours daily
 There were 200 000 radio receivers in 1970

TELEVISION

Baghdad Television: Ministry of Culture and Information, Salihiya Baghdad, a government station which transmits for 7 hours daily, Kirkuk Television in operation since November 1967, transmits for 4 hours daily; the Mosul station was opened in 1968, and a Basra station was opened in 1969 Dir-Gen MUHAMMAD S AL-SARAF
 Number of TV receivers (1970) 177 000

FINANCE

All banks and insurance companies, including all foreign companies, were nationalized in July 1964 The assets of foreign companies were taken over by the state

(cap = capital, p u = paid up, dep = deposits, m. = million, amounts in Iraqi dinars)

BANKING

CENTRAL BANK

Central Bank of Iraq: Banks St., Baghdad, f 1947 as National Bank of Iraq branches in Mosul and Basra has the sole right of note issue, cap p u 25m., dep 60.1 (Oct. 1970) Gov Dr ABDUL HASSAN ZALZALA publ. *Quarterly Bulletin Annual Report*

COMMERCIAL BANKS

Commercial Bank of Iraq: New Banks St. Baghdad f 1953 nationalized 1964 15 branches cap p u 3 75m absorbed the Baghdad Bank and the Credit Bank of Iraq in 1970, Chair and Gen. Man ADNAN AL TAYYAR Assistant Gen. Mans I H SHAWKI SABIH SADIQ JAMIL KADHIM

Rafidain Bank: New Banks St. Baghdad f 1941, cap 10 2m, dep 83m took over the Mortgage Bank of Iraq in 1970 six overseas branches Gen Man Dr FARZI AL-HAISLI

SPECIALIZED BANKS

Agricultural Bank of Iraq: Rashid St., Baghdad, 24 branches, cap p u 6 4m, Gen Man. ABDUL RAZZAK AL-JILALI

Estate Bank of Iraq: Hassan ibn Thani St., Baghdad, f 1949 18 branches, gives loans to assist the building industry cap p u 25m. acquired the Co-operative Bank in 1970 Dir-Gen. Dr A K KANNUNA

Industrial Bank of Iraq: Industrial Bank Building Baghdad 5 branches f 1940 cap p u 4 75m Gen. Man. Dr FARHANG JALAL publ. *Annual Report*

INSURANCE

Iraqi Life Insurance Co : Shabander Bldg, New Banks St., Baghdad, f 1960, cap p u 10 325 000, Chair and Gen. Man. MUSTAFA AL-UMARI

Iraq Reinsurance Company: Reinsurance Building, Khulani Square, P O B 297, Baghdad, f 1961 to transact reinsurance business on the international market, Chair and Gen Man Dr MUSTAFA RAJAB, London Office 5 Fenchurch St., E C 3

National Insurance Co.: Al-Jamhouriya St., Khulani Square P O B 248 Baghdad f 1950 cap p u 10 2m, state monopoly for all direct non life insurance, Chair and Gen Man ABDULBARI REDHA

OIL AND GAS

Iraq National Oil Company (INOC): P.O.B. 476, Saadoun Street, Baghdad; f. 1967 to operate in all stages of the oil industry outside and within the country. With Cabinet approval INOC may form or participate in other companies and contract loans. The Government will receive 50% of INOC's net annual profits until INOC has recovered its capital, when the payment shall be 75%. INOC may operate throughout Iraq except in the areas allocated to the oil companies under Law 80 (about 740 square miles); in August 1967 INOC was authorised by the government to exploit oilfields taken over from Western companies in 1961; in February 1968 agreement was reached with the French state-owned company ERAP, which will act as contractors for INOC for these areas; the Rumaila field is, however, being exploited directly by INOC with Soviet aid. Production is expected to be 100,000 barrels a day by 1971. There are plans to build a new deep-water oil terminal at a site to be determined. INOC is to participate in the building of a Central European crude oil pipe-line to carry Iraqi oil to Yugoslavia, Hungary and Czechoslovakia. Chair. SAADOUN HAMADI; Dep.-Chair. ALI HADI AL JABIR; board of 5 mems.

Gas Distribution Administration (G.D.A.): Baghdad; f. 1964 to supervise all gas projects, and to distribute and market natural and liquid gas all over Iraq. A sulphur recovery plant is under construction at Kirkuk. Two gas pipelines are being laid from Kirkuk to Baghdad, and a liquid gas processing plant (12,000 b/d) has been erected at Taji, north of Baghdad.

Government Oil Refinery Administration: Baghdad; operates refineries at Baghdad, Khanaqin, Kirkuk, Hadithah and Qayyarah; capital investment I.D. 30m.; annual turnover I.D. 25m. approx.

Iraq Petroleum Co. Ltd.: Office: 33 Cavendish Square, London, W.1; Chair. C. M. DALLEY; Man. Dir. G. G. STOCKWELL; Exec. Dirs. J. F. MOORE, C. E. HAHN.

On January 1st, 1951 the Iraq Petroleum Company and its associated companies operating in Iraq entered into an agreement with the Government to share equally in the profits accruing from the production and export of crude oil; this agreement is still operative. Oil from the fields in northern Iraq is exported via pipelines to terminals in Syria and Lebanon. Combined group exports totalled 53.6 million tons in 1969; payments to the government in respect of these exports amounted to approximately £200 million.

Basrah Petroleum Co. Ltd.: Office: 33 Cavendish Square, London, W.1; an associate company of the Iraq Petroleum Co. Ltd.; Chair. C. M. DALLEY; Man. Dir. G. G. STOCKWELL.

On November 30th, 1938, the Company was granted a concession over southern Iraq, south of latitude 33°, for 75 years. Oil was found in 1948 at Zubair and in 1953 at Rumaila. Production has reached an annual rate of over 20 million tons, but it has declined recently; in 1969 it amounted to 16,587,000 tons.

Oil is exported by tankers from a deep-water terminal at Khor al Amaya, twenty-four miles offshore (opened in 1962). A system of pipelines carries the crude oil from the fields to the terminal.

Mosul Petroleum Co. Ltd.: Office: 33 Cavendish Square, London, W.1; an associate company of the Iraq Petroleum Co. Ltd.; Chair. C. M. DALLEY; Man. Dir. G. G. STOCKWELL; Exec. Dirs. J. F. MOORE, C. E. HAHN.

After many years' exploration, oil was first exported in 1952. The Ain Zalah and Butmah fields are now in production. Total production has stagnated in recent years; in 1969 it was 1,281,000 tons. A 12-inch diameter pipeline, 134 miles long, carries the oil to K.2 Pumping Station where it joins the main Iraq Petroleum Company pipeline system to the Mediterranean.

TRADE AND INDUSTRY

CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE

Federation of Iraqi Chambers of Commerce: Mustasir St., Baghdad.

Amarah Chamber of Commerce: Al-Amarah; f. 1950; Pres. HAJ MUHSIN AL-RAMADHAN; Sec. HAJ SALMAN HASSAN.

Arbil Chamber of Commerce: Arbil; f. 1966; Pres. SHEKHEEL HAJ HASSAN; Sec. MUHYEE UDDIN HAJ ABDUL RAZZAK.

Baghdad Chamber of Commerce: Mustansir St., Baghdad; f. 1926; 14,296 mems.; Pres. SHA'ABAN JASSIM AL RIJAB; Sec. ZAKI HASSAN; Dir.-Gen. MUNIER SAID; publs. *Weekly Bulletin, Commerce* (quarterly magazine), *Trade Directory*.

Basra Chamber of Commerce: Basra; f. 1926; Pres. JAA'FER AL-BADER; Sec.-Gen. ABDUL KERIM AL-ATTAR; publ. *al Tajir* (monthly).

Diwaniya Chamber of Commerce: Diwaniya; f. 1961; Pres. HAJ DHAMIR HAJ YOUSUF; Sec. TALIB AL-IDHARI.

Diyala Chamber of Commerce: Diyala; f. 1966; Pres. ABDUL RAZZAK RASHEED AL-SHIBANI; Sec. NASSIR JABIR AL-DULAIMI.

Hillah Chamber of Commerce: Hillah; f. 1949; Pres. ANWAR AL JEWHAR; Sec. MOHAMMAD INAD AL ALI.

Karbala Chamber of Commerce: Karbala; f. 1952; Pres. JAWAD ABULHAB; Sec. HUSAIN AHMED.

Kirkuk Chamber of Commerce: Kirkuk; f. 1957; Pres. MOHAMMAD AL-SALIH; Sec. IZZUDDIN KOUJA WAH.

Mosul Chamber of Commerce: P.O.B. 35, Mosul; f. 1926; Pres. ABDUL GHANI AL ANNAN; Vice-Pres. ABDUL MAJEED AL NAFOUSSI; Sec. ABDUL JAWAD AL NEAIMI.

Najaf Chamber of Commerce: Najaf; f. 1950; Pres. SAYYID SHUBBAR MUSA SHUBBAR; Sec. ABDUL AMEER AL-TUFAILI.

Nasiriya Chamber of Commerce: Nasiriya; f. 1958; Pres. ADEL ABDUL GHANI; Sec. SUHAIL ABED AL YASEEN.

Sulaimaniya Chamber of Commerce: Sulaimaniya; f. 1967; Pres. AHMAD JALAL TAHA; Sec. ABDUL RAHMAN MALLA SAEED.

IRAQ—(TRADE AND INDUSTRY TRANSPORT)

EMPLOYERS ORGANIZATION

Iraq Federation of Industries Credit Bank Bldg 5th Floor Bank St. Baghdad f 1957 1 800 mems Pres Dr MUHAMMAD KHALIL AL TAWIL publs *Al Sinat* (quarterly) Directory of Iraqi Industries and monthly reports

INDUSTRIAL ORGANIZATIONS

General Establishment for Industry Baghdad state organization controlling most of Iraq's industry organized into 5 departments covering (1) Clothing Hides and Cigarettes (2) Construction industries (3) Weaving and Textiles (4) Chemicals and Food stuffs (5) Engineering

Iraqi Dates Organization Baghdad responsible for date exports Dir Dr BABA SHUBBAR

Iraqi National Minerals Corporation Baghdad responsible for exploiting all minerals in Iraq except oil Pres Dr SHAKIR SAMARRAI

TRADE UNIONS

General Federation of Iraqi Trade Unions Adj Iranian Embassy Karradat Manam Baghdad f 1964 19 unions with a membership of 250 000 are affiliated to the General Federation and registered with the Ministry of Labour and Social Security Affairs Pres HASMUN

ALI MOHSIN Sec-Gen NOURI NAJIM publ *Sawf al Ummal*

Union of Teachers Baghdad Pres IBRAHIM MARZOUK

Union of Palestinian Workers in Iraq Baghdad Sec Gen SAMI AL SHAWTISH

CO OPERATIVES (1965)

NAME	NUMBER
<i>Consumers Co-operatives</i> (provide members with foodstuffs and clothing)	65
<i>Agricultural and Credit Co-operatives</i> (provide member farmers with loans at low rates)	297
<i>Housing Co-operatives</i> (provide members with houses at cost price)	269
<i>Producers Co-operatives</i>	3
TOTAL	634

PEASANT SOCIETIES

General Federation of Peasant Societies Baghdad f 1959 has 734 affiliated Peasant Societies

TRADE FAIR

Baghdad International Fair Damascus St Al Mansour Baghdad held annually in October

TRANSPORT

RAILWAYS

Iraqi Republican Railways Baghdad length of track 1 462 miles (714 miles—4 ft 8½ in 742 one metre gauge) Dir Gen ABDUL JABBAR SAADI

The standard gauge line serves as a link between Europe and the Arabian Gulf Principalities as well as Iran Pakistan and India the port of Basra handles freight Direct passenger trains run twice a week between Istanbul and Baghdad There are also internal express train services with air-conditioned coaches hauled by diesel electric locomotives between Mosul Baghdad and Basra

ROADS

The most important roads are: Baghdad Kirkuk Mosul 300 miles (485 km) Baghdad Shargat Mosul 270 miles (433 km) Kirkuk-Sulaimaniya 72 miles (116 km) Baghdad Amarah Basra 370 miles (598 km) Baghdad Hillah Basra 386 miles (622 km) Baghdad Damascus 475 miles (683 km) Baghdad Teheran 620 miles (1 000 km) Baghdad Hail Medina 680 miles (1 100 km)

The total length of metalled and unmetalled roads is approximately 8 500 km of which 3 500 km are metalled Under the 1965 70 Development Plan \$125m. have been allocated to rebuilding and extending the present road system including the completion of the Basra Mosul highway The World Bank has made a \$23m. loan towards the project.

Iraq Automobile Association Abu Nuwas St Alwazi Arrasa No 7 Baghdad f 1931 3 000 mems Sec Gen ALI GHALIB GHARIB

INLAND WATERWAYS

Directorate General of Navigation Basra Dir Gen (vacant) in 1961-62 there were 1 613 registered river craft and 195 steam and motor propelled boats

SHIPPING

Iraqi Ports Administration Basra Dir Gen ADNAN AL QASAB

The Ports of Basra and Um Qasr are the commercial gateway of Iraq They are connected by various ocean routes with all parts of the world and constitute the natural distributing centre for overseas supplies The Iraqi Maritime Company maintains a regular service between Basra Arab Gulf and north European ports Other shipping lines operate cargo and passenger services from Basra and Um Qasr to all parts of the world There are fast mail and passenger services from Basra to Bombay via Khorramshahr Bushire and Karachi connecting at Bombay with the Peninsula and Orient Mail Services to England Australia South Africa and the Far East

In 1969-70 the revenue of the Iraqi Ports Administration was ID11 089 022 against a general expenditure of ID9 937 915 including capital works Expenditure on planning schemes was ID459 110 The tonnage of imports at the Port of Basra was 1 031 011 and exports (excluding oil) 597 413 Oil exports totalled 16 357 918 tons

Four wharves of reinforced concrete are under construction to supplement the one already in existence In 1969-70 there were 2 505 registered river craft

Iraqi Maritime Transport Co POB 3052 Baghdad f 1952 Dir Gen and Chair of Board HAFEZ TOUQ MATCHI

CIVIL AVIATION

A new international airport for Baghdad came into operation in the summer of 1969

Iraqi Airways Al Kharth Baghdad f 1945 Dir Gen MUHAMMAD SAID KHALIL regular services from Baghdad to Amman Bahrain Basra Beirut Berlin Cairo Damascus Dhahran Doha Frankfurt Geneva Istanbul Kuwait London Mosul Paris Prague Teheran Vienna Copenhagen Karachi New Delhi fleet 3 Trident 3 Viscounts

The following airlines also operate services to Iraq Aeroflot Ballan (Bulgaria) BOAC CSA (Czechoslovakia) Interflug (German Dem. Rep.) Iranair KLM (Dutch) Kuwait Airways Lufthansa MEA PIA Saudi Arabian Airlines S vissair Syrian Arab Airlines TMA (Lebanon) UAA

TOURISM AND CULTURE

Directorate-General of Summer Resorts and Tourism Service: Ministry of Information, Baghdad; f. 1956; Dir.-Gen. ALADDIN BAKRI; publ. *Mesopotamia* (monthly), *Iraq* (tourist guide in English) and maps and folders.

THEATRE GROUPS

I. OFFICIALLY SPONSORED

National Group for Acting: Department for Cinema and Theatre, Ministry of Culture and Information, Baghdad.

Rashid National Group: Department for Cinema and Theatre, Ministry of Culture and Information, Baghdad; folklore group providing dancing and singing concerts.

2. PRIVATE

Baghdad Theatre Group: Baghdad; f. 1967.

Contemporary Theatre Group: Baghdad; f. 1966.

Folklore Group: Baghdad; f. 1965; theatrical performances.

Free Theatre Group: Baghdad; f. 1965.

14 July Theatre Group: Baghdad; f. 1966.

Modern Art Group: Baghdad; f. 1967.

Theatre Arts Group: Baghdad; f. 1967.

United Artists' Group: Baghdad; f. 1967.

ATOMIC ENERGY

Atomic Energy Commission: Baghdad; f. 1957; Sec.-Gen. Dr. MOYASSAR YAHIA AL MALLAH; an atomic reactor, built with Soviet aid at Tuwaitha, south of Baghdad, was inaugurated in 1968. The reactor will provide isotopes for teaching and civilian research.

EDUCATION

Since the establishment of the Republic in 1958 there has been a marked expansion in education at all levels and the educational budget has risen from I.D. 14.4 million (1958) to I.D. 29.8 million (1962) and I.D. 48.6 million (1968). Apart from private schools and universities, education in Iraq is entirely free. Pre-school education is rapidly expanding although as yet it reaches only a small proportion of children in this age group. Primary education, lasting six years, is now officially compulsory, and there are plans to extend full-time education to nine years as soon as possible. At present secondary education, which is expanding rapidly, is available for only five years, but it was hoped to extend this to six. In 1970 French was officially adopted as the second language to be taught in schools.

Science, Medical and Engineering faculties of the universities have undergone considerable expansion, but

the expansion of the training of technicians is still lagging. Both university enrolment and universities have increased in recent years—enrolment from 4,354 men and 1,387 women in 1958 to over 20,000 men and 7,000 women in 1969. Two branches of Baghdad University at Basra and Mosul became independent universities in 1967. Two private universities offer evening courses and full-time tuition; one of these—University College—is partly Government assisted. There are in addition many students studying abroad—some 3,000 in 1969. The Iraq Petroleum Company operates a scholarship scheme which finances some of these students.

Illiteracy is still an important problem but because of the introduction of compulsory primary education and the efforts of the army and fundamental education centres, it is gradually being overcome. For the age group 15-40 of men, it may now be as low as one third illiterate.

LEARNED SOCIETIES AND RESEARCH INSTITUTES

(See also under Universities)

Academy of Linguistics: Baghdad.

Al-Kalam (*P.E.N. Club*): Baghdad.

American School of Oriental Research: Baghdad; f. 1923; following the foundation of the Jerusalem School, Dir. (vacant); undertakes archaeological surveys and excavations of historic sites; aims to make the accumulating material available to international scholarship; publs. *Bulletin*, quarterlies, monographs.

Biological Research Centre: Baghdad.

British Council: P.O.B. 298, 7/2/9 Waziriya, Baghdad; Rep. J. F. C. SPRINGFORD, O.B.E.; library re-opened 1969.

British School of Archaeology in Iraq (Gertrude Bell Memorial): 31-34 Gordon Square, London, W.C.1;

f. 1932; Baghdad address: 90/1 Karradet Mariam; Pres. Prof. Sir MAX MALLOWAN, C.B.E., M.A., D.LIT., F.B.A., F.S.A.; Chair. Prof. D. J. WISEMAN, O.B.E., M.A., D.LIT., F.B.A., F.S.A.; Dir. in Iraq Mrs. DIANA HELBAEK, F.S.A.; publ. *Iraq* (twice annually).

Council for Scientific Research: Baghdad; f. 1963.

Department of Scientific and Industrial Research: Directorate-General of Industry, Baghdad; f. 1935; staff 42; Dir.-Gen. of Industry SHEETH NA'AMANN; publs. *Technical Bulletin*, *Annual Report*.

Economics Research Centre: Baghdad.

Educational Research Centre: University of Baghdad, Waziriah, Baghdad; Chair. Dr. ABDUL JALIL AL-ZOBAIE; Dir. Dr. MUWAFFAK AL-HAMDANI.

IRAQ—(LEARNED SOCIETIES AND RESEARCH INSTITUTES, LIBRARIES)

- Institut Franco-Irakien:** Baghdad f 1969 studies in archaeology ancient civilizations Islamic culture science and technology
- Institute for Research on Natural Resources:** Abu Ghraib Baghdad f 1960
- Instituto Hispano-Arabe de Cultura (Hispano Arabica Cultural Institute):** Saadun Park P O B 2256 Baghdad f 1957 library of 6 000 vols Dir José PÉREZ LAZARO
- Islamic Study Institute** Baghdad
- Iraq Academy:** Waziriyah, Baghdad, f 1947 with the aims of maintaining the Arabic language undertaking research in Arabic and Muslim history, and the history of Iraq and encouraging research in the modern arts and sciences, the Academy has Active Members Associate Members and Honorary Members, the last two categories including Iraqi and other nationalities,

- Pres Dr ABDUL RAZZAQ MUHYI AL-DIN, Sec Gen Dr YOUSIF IZZIDIN, publs *Arabs before Islam* (8 vols) *Literary Criticism in Iraq* *Majallat al Mayma al Ilmi al Iraqi* (literary quarterly)
- Iraqi Medical Society:** Maa'n St, Al Mansoor, Baghdad f 1920 873 mems., Pres F H GHALI F.R.C.S (Ed) Sec A K AL KHATEEB F.R.C.S (Ed)
- Nuclear Research Institute (Iraqi Atomic Energy Establishment):** Tuwaitha Baghdad f 1967 includes nuclear research reactor Radioisotope production facilities research in nuclear and solid state physics analytical and radio-chemistry, biology and agriculture health physics and geology
- Petroleum Research Institute:** Baghdad
- Society of Iraqi Artists:** Baghdad Pres AKRAM SHUKRY
- Soviet Cultural Centre:** Baghdad, f 1962 library

LIBRARIES

- Al-Awqaf (Library of Waqfs)** Baghdad f 1929 works relating to the Koran and Arabic history and literature 8 517 vols 3 876 MSS
- Al-Hikma University Library:** P O B 2125, Baghdad, 50 000 vols Librarian Rev ROBERT J COTE s j
- Basra University Library:** Basra Librarian A J ABDUL RAHMAN
- Central Library, University of Baghdad:** Baghdad, f 1960, depository of Iraqi Publications (Act No 71, July 13th, 1963) as well as United Nations Publications It acts as the International Exchange Centre it conducts annual ten months training courses in librarianship and issues the *Iraqi National Bibliography and Catalogue of the Library Holdings* (19 vols in English and 4 vols and 4 supplements in Arabic) 150 000 vols 1 700 current periodicals 5 500 maps 1 200 Arabic MSS, on microfilm Librarian HUSHAM AL SHAWAF PH D
- College of Agriculture Library.** University of Baghdad Abu Ghraib f 1952 13 900 vols mainly Arabic and English and a few other languages 300 periodicals, Librarian NAIJA MADHER
- Diwan Library, The Ministry of Education** Baghdad f 1921
- Library of the American School of Oriental Research:** Baghdad f 1923 2 966 vols Librarian GURGIS AWAD
- Library of the College of Arts:** University of Baghdad, f 1949 31,771 vols, Librarian FATTIMA AL NIAMI
- Library of the College of Education.** University of Baghdad, f 1939, 28,470 vols
- Library of the College of Medicine:** University of Baghdad, f 1927, 59 517 vols, Librarian SAVID ABID NISSAN
- Library of the Institute of Fine Arts:** Baghdad, f 1936, 5 578 vols, Librarian MOHAMED ABID ALI
- Library of the Iraq Museum:** Baghdad f 1934 37,500 vols; 2 340 MSS, Librarian GURGIS AWAD
- Library of the Iraq Natural History Museum:** Waziriyah Baghdad f 1946 19 200 vols 400 current periodicals exchange relations with various museums and biological

- institutions, Librarian HAMID A SALMAN B.A., publs *Iraq Natural History Museum Publications Bulletin of the Iraq Natural History Museum and Annual Report*
- Library of the Mosul Museum:** Mosul, 11,780 vols
- Library of the Soviet Cultural Centre:** Baghdad
- Mosul Public Library:** Mosul f 1930, 61,000 vols, 2 500 periodicals Librarian ABDUL HALIM AL-LAWAND
- Masriyya Public Library:** Muntafiq Librarian MOHAMED LAFFAR KHIDER
- National Library:** Zahawi St, Baghdad f 1955 35 700 vols
- Technical Atomic Energy Library:** Nuclear Research Institute Tuwaitha, Baghdad, up-to-date references reports pamphlets microcards magazines and film reels.
- University of Mosul Central Library:** Mosul f 1965 45 000 vols 890 periodicals depository of UN publications also 2 faculty libraries housing 13 500 vols and 440 periodicals Librarian ABDUL-RAZZAK KAMIL
- There are also important Public Libraries in the following districts Arbil Al Kadisiya Al Anbar Al Muthana Basra Babil Baysan Diyala Karbala Kirkuk Naynwa Najaf Sulaimaniya Thikar and Wasit

SELECTED PRIVATE LIBRARIES

- Bashayan el Abbasi Library:** Shama Abbasiyah, Basra, f 16th century; 10 000 vols, includes 1 500 Arabic manuscripts some being 800 years old
- Rafael Batli Library:** Baghdad 7 000 vols relating to the literature, history, economics politics and sociology of the East
- Taha El-Rawi Library:** Baghdad, f 1906, 14 000 vols, including 6 000 MSS works in Arabic, Turkish and Persian
- Yacub Sarkis Library:** Al Hikma University Library, Box 2125 Baghdad f 1911 4 000 rare vols, 350 MSS, special collection relating to the travels of Europeans in Iraq and the East

MUSEUMS

The following museums, with the exception of the Natural History Museum and the National Gallery of Modern Art, are under the control of the Department of the Directorate-General of Antiquities in Baghdad, a governmental body headed by Dr. ISA SALMAN. The Directorate-General of Antiquities organizes all museum exhibitions, conducts archaeological excavations and supervises excavations by foreign expeditions, issues archaeological reports and maps, and publishes *Sumer*, an archaeological journal which appears twice a year, and *Al-Mashakat*, a numismatical journal.

Abbasid Palace Museum, The: Baghdad; a restored Palace dating back to the last Caliphs of the Abbasid dynasty (13th century A.D.); an exhibition of Arab antiquities, and also scale models of important Islamic monumental buildings in Iraq. Opened as a Museum in 1935.

Aqer Quf Museum: f. 1942; this contains objects excavated during the work at Aqer Quf (1942-45), including stone door sockets with cuneiform inscriptions, pottery jars and bricks. The Museum is situated in an old Temple dedicated to the god Enlil.

Arbil Museum: Arbil; objects from Iraqi history up to Arabic-Islamic period.

Arms Museum: Sheikh Omar District, Baghdad; f. 1940 the museum is one of the main gates in the walls of 13th century Baghdad; it contains a scale model of these walls, obsolete weapons and firearms.

Babylon Museum: f. 1949; contains models, pictures, and paintings of the remains at Babylon; the Museum is situated amongst the ruins.

Costumes and Ethnographic Museum: Bab-al-Shargi, Baghdad; f. 1941; exhibits the costumes and other ethnographical features of Iraq; on the same premises is the Memorial Exhibition, containing the royal relics of King Faisal I; there is also a picture gallery.

Iraq Museum, The: Salhiya quarter, Baghdad West; f. 1923, re-formed 1966; contains antiquities dating from

the early Stone Age to the beginning of the 17th century A.D., including Islamic objects in almost uninterrupted sequence; more than 50,000 exhibits, and about 200,000 pieces in its store rooms; Dir. Dr. FAWZI RASHID; Library: see under Libraries.

Iraq Natural History Museum: Waziriya, Baghdad; f. 1946; includes sections on zoology, botany and geology; publishes scientific papers dealing with the Natural History of Iraq and neighbouring countries in the series *Iraq Natural History, Museum Publications, Bulletin of the Iraq Natural History Museum and Annual Report*; Dir. NURI MAHDI, M.Sc.; Curator of Birds P. V. GEORG, M.Sc.; library: see under Libraries.

Mosul Museum: Dawassa, Mosul; f. 1951; collections: Assyrian antiquities of the 9th and 8th centuries B.C. found at Nimrud, objects uncovered in the ruins of Hatra dating back to the 2nd century B.C. and 2nd century A.D., agricultural tools and pottery vessels from the 5th and 4th millennia B.C., photographs of excavated buildings at Tepe Gawra, maps of the Assyrian Empire, Nimrud and Hatra; Prehistoric and Islamic exhibits; assists in discovery and maintenance of several archaeological sites; Curator H. ABED AL HAMEED.

Museum of Arab Antiquities: Samawal St., Baghdad; it is a restored building of the 14th century A.D., which was opened as a Museum in 1937; collections of Arab antiquities illustrating different Islamic cultural periods in Iraq; exhibits mainly from Wasit, Samaria and Kufa.

Nasiriyah Museum: Nasiriyah; Sumerian and other archaeological objects.

National Museum of Modern Art: Kifah St., Baghdad; f. 1963; Dir. LAMAN BAKRI-WAHAB.

Samarra Museum: Samarra; f. 1936; it is housed in one of the old city gates, and contains objects excavated in the ruins of ancient Samarra.

UNIVERSITIES

AL-HIKMA UNIVERSITY OF BAGHDAD

BOX 2125, BAGHDAD

Telephone: 99063

Telegraphic Address: Irameda, Baghdad

Founded 1956

Languages of instruction: English and Arabic; Private control; Academic year: September to June (two semesters).

President: Very Rev. RICHARD J. MCCARTHY, S.J., D.PHIL.

Academic Vice-President: Rev. JOSEPH L. RYAN, S.J., M.S.

Registrar: WILSON ISHAQ, A.B.

Librarian: Rev. ROBERT J. COTE, S.J., M.S.

Number of teachers: 65.

Number of students: 610.

Publications: *Al Hikma* (Yearbook).

Regular four-year courses leading to three degrees, B.S. in Civil Engineering, B.S. in Business Administration; B.A. in English Language and Literature.

DEANS:

Faculty of Civil Engineering: Rev. F. W. KELLY, S.J.

Faculty of Business Administration: Rev. L. J. McDONOUGH, S.J.

Faculty of Liberal Arts: Rev. J. P. BANKS, S.J.

AL-MUSTANSIRIYA UNIVERSITY

BAGHDAD

Telephone: 65505

Founded 1963

Private control.

President: Dr. MUSARI AL-RAWI.

Registrar: ESAM ABD ALI.

Librarian: GURGIS AWAD.

Library of 26,000 vols.

Number of teachers: 450.

Number of students: 8,000.

DEANS:

Department of Sciences: Dr. MUHAMMAD W. AL-DHAHER.

Department of Arabic: Dr. MAHMOUD GHANNAWI.

Department of Political Sciences: Dr. SHAMRAN HOMMADI.

Department of Economics: Dr. ABDULLA YASSIN.

Department of Foreign Languages: Dr. HAMDI YOUNIS.

Department of Education, Psychology and Sociology: Dr. ABDUL-JALEEL AL-ZOUBA 'EA.

Department of Law: MUHAMMAD T. AL-BASHEER.

Department of Accountancy and Business Administration: FOAD ZAKKO.

IRAQ—(UNIVERSITIES)

UNIVERSITY OF BAGHDAD

BAGHDAD

Telephone 93091

Founded 1958

Languages of instruction Arabic and English.

The University of Baghdad is a state institution providing free education. All the Institutes and Colleges listed below have been incorporated in the University. Each has its own library of Arabic and foreign books.

President (a1) Dr ALI HUSSAIN AL INHALAF
Secretary-General Dr SULTAN AL SHAWI
Assistant to the President/Science Dr KANAN M JAMIL
Assistant to the President/Humanities Dr JAWAD A

ALWASH
Dean of Graduate Studies and Research Dr HASHIM HAMZAWI

Dean of Students GHALIB RANGHEH

Registrar (a1) Mrs TUMADIR ABDULLAH

Librarian Dr H AL SHAWAF

Number of teachers 1 418

Number of students 19 562

Publications Statistical Bulletin (annual) General Catalogue

INCORPORATED COLLEGES

COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE

Founded 1957

Dean H AL ANI PH D

Library of 12 266 volumes

Number of teachers 68

Number of students 748

The College of Agriculture contains the following departments: Agricultural Chemistry, Agricultural Botany, Field Crops, Gardening and Vegetables, Animal Husbandry, Soils, Agricultural Engineering, Agricultural Economics and Statistics, Guidance and Agricultural Education, Entomology and Zoology, Agricultural Industries.

COLLEGE OF ARTS

Founded 1949

Dean J SA ID PH D

Library of 38 500 volumes

Number of teachers 261

Number of students 1 544

The College of Arts contains the following departments: Arabic, Kurdish language, European languages, Geography, History, Education, Philosophy, Sociology.

COLLEGE OF DENTISTRY

Founded 1956

Dean F AL QUDSI M.A. (acting)

Library of 1 690 vols

Number of teachers 11

Number of students 306

The College of Dentistry contains the following departments: Biology, Dental Materials, Dental Prosthetics, Operative Dentistry, Oral Surgery.

COLLEGE OF ECONOMICS AND POLITICAL SCIENCE

Founded 1963

Dean M AZIZ

Library of 13 428 vols

Number of teachers 65

Number of students 1 118

The following departments constitute the College:
 Political Science, Economics.

COLLEGE OF ENGINEERING

Founded 1942

Dean Prof NAJI A KADIR PH D M A S C E

Library of 10 358 vols

Number of teachers 83

Number of students 1 255

The College of Engineering contains the following departments: Architectural Engineering, Chemical Engineering, Civil Engineering, Electrical Engineering, Mechanical Engineering, Petroleum Engineering.

COLLEGE OF LAW

Founded 1908

Dean S NASIR (acting)

Library of 13 728 vols

Number of teachers 51

Number of students 895

COLLEGE OF MEDICINE

Founded 1927

Dean D SALMAN ALI

Library of 59 517 vols

Number of teachers 107

Number of students 1 532

COLLEGE OF NURSING

Founded 1962

Dean L AL BADRI (acting)

Library of 2 035 vols

Number of teachers 2

Number of students 61

COLLEGE OF PHARMACY

Founded 1936

Dean A K. BASHI

Library of 1 400 vols

Number of teachers 21

Number of students 516

COLLEGE OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Founded 1953

Dean N D AL SEHRERWERDI

Library of 3 000 vols

Number of teachers 11

Number of students 548

COLLEGE OF SCIENCES

Founded 1949

Dean M W AL-DHAHIR

Library of 13 077 vols

Number of teachers 227

Number of students 1 404

The College of Science contains the following faculties:
 Botany, Chemistry, Geology, Mathematics, Physics.

IRAQ—(UNIVERSITIES)

COLLEGE OF TECHNOLOGY

Number of teachers: 16.

ACADEMY OF FINE ARTS

Number of teachers: 15.

AFFILIATED INSTITUTES

Arid Zone Research Institute: Baghdad; f. 1961; six sections: Soil and Geology, Climate and Environment, Use of the Water Resources for Agricultural Purposes, Arid Zone Reclamation Projects, Agricultural Engineering, Arid Land Reform; Dir. ABDUL KAMAL AL-DIN, PH.D.

Higher Industrial Engineering Institute: Baghdad; f. 1955; Departments of Civil, Electrical and Mechanical Engineering; Acting Dean N. AL-DAMIUGI; teachers: 32; students: 233.

Higher Institute of Applied Engineering: Baghdad; f. 1958; Departments of Irrigation, Technical Drawing and Plane Surveying; Acting Dean F. AL-KHALISI; teachers: 10; students: 520.

Higher Institute of Agriculture: Baghdad; f. 1965; Acting Dean A. AL-AZAWI; teachers: 2; students: 114.

Higher Secretarial Institute: Baghdad; f. 1964; Acting Dean H. AL-ASWI; teachers: 10; students: 408.

Higher Institute of Medical Technology: Baghdad; f. 1965; Acting Dean S. AL-KASSAB; students: 51.

BASRA UNIVERSITY

BASRA

Telephone: 4251

Languages of instruction: Arabic and English.

Founded 1967 as a separate university; the faculties were formerly affiliated to the University of Baghdad. State control; Academic year, October to June.

President: N. N. AL-SHAWI, PH.D.

Registrar: M. N. AL-ZAGOOM, PH.D.

Chief Administrative Officer: Dr. ALI M. BEDAIR.

Librarian: A. J. ABDUL RAHMAN.

Number of teachers: 126.

Number of students: 3,213, including 651 women.

DEANS:

Faculty of Sciences: S. AL-MUDHAFFAR, PH.D.

Faculty of Engineering: H. N. AL-SAMARAAL, PH.D.

Faculty of Arts: M. ZEIN EL-ABDEEN.

Faculty of Law and Economics: Dr. A. M. BEDAIR.

Faculty of Medicine: M. R. NA'AMA.

MOSUL UNIVERSITY

MOSUL

Founded 1967 as a separate university; the Faculties were formerly part of the University of Baghdad. Some Faculties are situated near Nineveh and others at Hamam al Alill. State control; Languages of instruction: Arabic and English; Academic year: September to May (two terms).

President: Prof. Dr. NAZAR EL-SHAWI.

Secretary-General: A. M. AL TALIB, PH.D.

Assistant to the President: I. M. AL KHATIB, P.H.D.

Registrar: A. SULEIMAN, PH.D.

Dean of Higher Studies: A. K. AL JAWADI, M.D.

Dean of Students: T. AL YAWIR, M.D.

Librarian: ABDUL-RAZZACK KAMIL.

Number of teachers: 149.

Number of students: 3,275, including 252 women.

DEANS:

College of Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine: M. R. TAQAH.

College of Arts: A. M. RASHAD.

College of Engineering: A. AL-KHAFAJI.

College of Medicine: A. K. AL-JAWADI.

College of Science: A. I. KHASHAB.

UNIVERSITY OF SULAIMANIYA

SULAIMANIYA

Telephone: 234

Founded 1968.

President: Dr. MUHAMMAD SALIH.

Registrar: KHUSROW GHANI SHALI.

Librarian: Miss SHAHOW DAOOD SAHIBKRAAN.

The library contains 20,000 vols.

Number of teachers: 50.

Number of students: 800.

DEANS

Dean of Engineering College: Dr. SIRWAN ABDULKADIR KIRKUKLIZADA.

Dean of Agricultural College: Dr. JALAL SHAFIQ.

Dean of Science College: Dr. SADI GHARIB.

COLLEGES

Al-Shari'a College: Baghdad; Dean Prof. NAJI MAROUF.

Higher Institute of Accountancy and Business Administration: Baghdad.

Higher Institute of Industry: Baghdad.

Higher Technical Institute: Baghdad; created 1960 by UN Special Fund; 535 students.

INSTITUTE OF FINE ARTS

BAGHDAD

Founded 1936; gives training to school teachers and artists.

Dean: Dr. AZIZ SHALLAL AZIZ.

Assistant Deans: A.-R. JASSIM, M. S. AL-MUFTI.

Head of Music Department: SALMAN SHUKUR.

Head of Drama Department: B. H. FARID.

Head of Plastic Arts Department: ISMAIL AL SHAIKHLY.

Librarian: MOHAMMED ABID ALI.

Library: (see Libraries).

Number of teachers: 50.

Number of students: 300.

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- Foundations in the Dust (Oxford 1949)
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- MEZERIK A G Kuwait Iraq Dispute 1961 (New York 1961)
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- SALTER Lord assisted by PAYTON S W The Development of Iraq A Plan of Action (Baghdad 1955)
- SOUSS AHMED Iraq Irrigation Handbook—Part I The Euphrates (Baghdad 1944)
- STARK FREYA Baghdad Sketches (John Murray London 1937)
- STEVE S E S Folk Tales of Iraq (Oxford 1931)
- STEWART DESMOND and HAYLOCK JOHN New Babylon a Portrait of Iraq (Collins London 1956)
- VERNIER D L Irak d'Aujourd'hui (Paris 1962)
- WIGRAM REV W A The Assyrians and their Neighbours (London 1929)

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- CAMBRIDGE ANCIENT HISTORY (Vols I and II New Ed Cambridge 1962)
- CHATTERJI S Ancient History of Iraq (M C Sarkar Ltd Calcutta 1961)
- CHIFFRA E They Wrote on Clay The Babylonian Tablets Speak Today (Cambridge 1939)
- FREY J M L Assyria Chrétienne (Imprimerie Catholique Beirut 1965)
- FRANKFORT H Archaeology and the Sumerian Problem (Chicago 1932)
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- HALL H R The Ancient History of the Near East (London 1924)
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BAGHDAD

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Israel

PHYSICAL AND SOCIAL GEOGRAPHY

The pre 1967 frontiers of Israel are defined by armistice agreements signed with neighbouring Arab states, and represent the stabilization of a military front as it existed in late 1948 and early 1949. These boundaries are thus in many respects fortuitous, and have little geographical basis. It may be pertinent to recall that prior to 1918 the whole area now partitioned between Syria, Israel and the kingdom of Jordan formed part of the Ottoman Empire, and was spoken of as 'Syria'. Then after 1918 came the establishment of the territories of the Lebanon, Syria, Palestine, and Transjordan—the frontier between the last two lying for the most part along the Jordan river.

The present State of Israel is bounded on the north by the Lebanon, on the north-east by Syria, on the east by the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan, and on the south and south west by the Gulf of Aqaba and the Sinai Desert, now an occupied territory. The so-called "Gaza strip", a small piece of territory some 25 miles long, formed part of Palestine but was, under the Armistice Agreement of February 1949, then left in Egyptian control. The territories occupied after the war of June 1967 are not recognized as forming part of the State of Israel, although it seems unlikely that she will give up her annexation of the Old City of Jerusalem. The geographical descriptions of these territories are therefore given in the chapter of the countries which controlled them before June 1967.

Because of the nature of the frontiers, which partition natural geographical units, it is more convenient to discuss the geography of Israel partly in association with that of its neighbour, Jordan. The Jordan Valley itself, which is divided territorially between the two states, is dealt with under 'Jordan' (q.v.), but the uplands of Samaria, Judaea, from Jenin to Hebron, and including Jerusalem, which form a single unit, will be discussed below, though a large part of this territory lies outside the frontiers of Israel.

PHYSICAL FEATURES

The physical geography of Israel is surprisingly complex and though the area of the state is small, a considerable number of regions are easily distinguished. In the extreme north the hills of the Lebanon range continue without break, though of lower altitude, to form the uplands of Galilee, where the maximum height is just under 4,000 ft. The Galilee hills fall away steeply on three sides on the east to the well-defined Jordan Valley (see 'Jordan'), on the west to a narrow coastal plain, and to the south at the Vale of Esdraelon or "Emek Yezreel". This latter is a rather irregular trough formed by subsidence along faults, with a flat floor and steep sides, and it runs inland from the Mediterranean south-eastwards to reach the Jordan Valley. At its western end the vale opens into the wide Bay of Acre, 15 to 20 miles in breadth, but it narrows inland to only a mile or two before opening out once again where it joins the Jordan Valley. This lowland area has a very fertile soil and an annual rainfall of 16 inches which is sufficient, with limited irrigation, for agriculture. Formerly highly malarial and largely uncultivated, the vale is now very productive. For centuries it has been a corridor of major importance linking the Mediterranean coast and Egypt with the interior of south west Asia, and has thus been a passage-way for ethnic, cultural, and military invasions.

South of Esdraelon there is an upland plateau extending for nearly 100 miles. This is a broad upfold of rock, consisting mainly of limestone and reaching 3,000 ft. in altitude. In the north, where there is a moderate rainfall, the plateau has been eroded into valleys, some of which are fertile, though less so than those of Esdraelon or Galilee. This district, centred on Jenin and Nablus, is the ancient country of Samaria, now part of Jordan. Further south rainfall is reduced and erosion is far less prominent, hence this second region, Judaea proper, stands out as a more strongly defined ridge, with far fewer streams and a barer open landscape of a more arid and dusty character. Jerusalem, Bethlehem and Hebron are the main towns. Towards the south-east rainfall becomes scanty and we reach the Wilderness of Judaea, an area of semi-desert. In the extreme south the plateau begins to fall in altitude, passing finally into a second plateau only 1,000 to 1,500 ft. above sea level, but broader, and broken by occasional ranges of hills that reach 3,000 ft. in height. This is the Negev, a territory comprising nearly half of the total area of Israel, and bounded on the east by the lower Jordan Valley and on the west by the Sinai Desert. Agriculture, entirely dependent on irrigation, is carried on in a few places in the north, but for the most part the Negev consists of steppe or semi-desert. Irrigation schemes are now being developed in those areas where soils are potentially productive.

Between the uplands of Samaria, Judaea and the Mediterranean Sea there occurs a low lying coastal plain that stretches southwards from Haifa as far as the Egyptian frontier at Gaza. In the north the plain is closely hemmed in by the spur of Mount Carmel (1,800 ft.), which almost reaches the sea, but the plain soon opens out to form a fertile lowland—the Plain of Sharon. Further south still the plain becomes again broader, but with a more arid climate and a sandier soil—this is the ancient Philistia. Ultimately the plain becomes quite arid, with loose sand dunes, and it merges into the Sinai Desert.

One other area remains to be mentioned—the Shephelah, which is a shallow upland basin lying in the first foothills of the Judaea plateau, just east of the Plain of Sharon. This region, distinguished by a fertile soil and moister climate, is heavily cultivated, chiefly in cereals.

CLIMATE

Climatically Israel has the typical "Mediterranean" cycle of hot, dry summers when the temperature reaches 90° to 100° F., and mild, rainy winters. Altitude has a considerable effect, in that though snow may fall on the hills, it is not frequent on the lowlands. Jerusalem can have several inches of snow in winter, and Upper Galilee several feet. The valleys, especially Esdraelon and adjacent parts of the upper Jordan, lying below sea level, can become extremely hot (over 100°) and very humid.

Rainfall is very variable from one part of Israel to another. Parts of Galilee receive over 40 inches annually, but the amount decreases rapidly southwards, until in the Negev and Plain of Gaza, it is 10 inches or less. This is because the prevailing south-westerly winds blow off the sea to reach the north of Israel, but further south they come from Egypt, with only a short sea track, and are hence lacking in moisture.

RACE AND LANGUAGE

Discussion over the racial affinities of the Jewish people has continued over many years, but there has been no unanimity on the subject. One view is that the Jewish people, whatever their first origin, have now taken on many of the characteristics of the peoples among whom they have lived since the Dispersal—e.g., the Jews of Germany were often closely similar in anthropological character to the Germans; the Jews of Iraq resembled the Arabs; and the Jews of Abyssinia had a black skin. Upholders of such a view would largely deny the separateness of ethnic qualities amongst the Jews. On the other hand, it has been suggested that the Jews represent an intermixture of Armenoid and other Middle-Eastern racial strains, with the former predominating—and evidence for this may be found in the head-form and facial appearance of many Jews, which are often strongly Armenoid. The correctness of either viewpoint is largely a matter of personal interpretation.

Under British mandatory rule there were three official languages in Palestine—Arabic, spoken by a majority of the inhabitants (all Arabs and a few Jews); Hebrew, the ancient language of the Jews; and English. This last was considered to be standard if doubt arose as to the meaning of translation from the other two.

Since the establishment of the State of Israel the relative importance of the languages has changed. Hebrew is now dominant. Arabic has greatly declined following the

flight of Arab refugees, and English is also less important, though it remains the first foreign language of most Israelis.

Hebrew, once widely current in biblical days, underwent considerable eclipse after the dispersal of Jewish people by the Romans, and until fairly recently its use was largely restricted to scholarship, serious literature and religious observance. Most Jews of Eastern and Southern Europe did not employ Hebrew as their everyday speech, but spoke either Yiddish or Ladino, the former being a Jewish-German dialect current in East and Central Europe; the latter being a form of Spanish. Immigrants into Israel since 1890 have, however, been encouraged to use Hebrew as a normal everyday speech, and Hebrew is now the living tongue of most Israeli Jews. The revival has been a potent agent in the unification of the Israeli Jewish people because, in addition to the two widely different forms of speech, Yiddish and Ladino, most Jewish immigrants usually spoke yet another language according to their country of origin, and the census of 1931 recorded over sixty such languages in habitual use within Palestine.

It is only by a revival of Hebrew that the Jewish community has found a reasonable *modus vivendi*—yet this step was not easy, for some devout Jews opposed the use of Hebrew for secular speech. Furthermore, there was controversy as to the way Hebrew should be pronounced but the Sephardic pronunciation was finally adopted.

HISTORY

For the first part of this introduction, Israel is considered to be identical with Palestine—a narrow corridor between the Jordan Valley and the Mediterranean Sea. It is the south-western horn of the Fertile Crescent vanishing into the Sinai Desert.

Palestine is known throughout the Western world for its connection first with the Jewish people as recorded in the Old Testament, later with Jesus Christ as recorded in the New Testament. But researches in recent decades have taken the history of Palestine back to the Paleolithic Age of 200,000 years ago. It also is rich in Neolithic remains of the tenth millennium B.C. Its written history, however, begins about five thousand years ago, when Semitic tribes migrated in from the East and became the matrix of its successive civilizations.

With the fertile and teeming valleys of the Nile to the West and of the Euphrates to the East, Palestine was tossed like a ball from empire to empire. First came the Egyptians of the Sixth Dynasty in the third millennium B.C. Their supremacy was challenged by the Assyrians, and after many changes of fortune Palestine became an Assyrian tributary from the ninth century B.C. When the Assyrian Empire was eventually taken over by the Babylonians, Palestine fell to the new conquerors in the seventh century. As the Persian Empire rose to the East and displaced the Babylonians, Palestine in turn fell to Persia in the sixth century. In the fourth century B.C. it was conquered by soldiers from over the water, the Greeks under Alexander the Great. For three hundred years or so it belonged to one or other of the Hellenistic monarchies until a second maritime power, Rome, occupied it in the first century B.C. Most of these events are reflected in the Old Testament, as well as the brief periods when the Jews in Palestine had an independent existence of their own.

The Romans, and then the eastern half of their Christian Empire, Byzantium, remained in control of Palestine until they were displaced by the Muslim Caliphate, which endured for some six hundred years. The Muslim Empire was at first governed by the Ummayyad Dynasty at Damascus. From the eighth century it was governed by the Abbasid Dynasty at Baghdad; from the ninth century Palestine was ruled by a series of independent Muslim dynasties with their centre in Egypt. During the twelfth century Palestine was re-occupied by Christians from the west, but the Latin kingdom was gradually destroyed by the Muslims and Palestine fell under the control of the Mamluk Dynasty in Cairo in the thirteenth century.

In the sixteenth century the Muslim Ottoman Turks conquered Syria, Palestine and Egypt from the Mamluks. Palestine was ruled by feudal chiefs owing allegiance to the Turkish Sultan at Constantinople. In the nineteenth century the Egyptians under Ibrahim Pasha conquered Southern Palestine and for a brief period reformed the system of government. Later, after the Egyptians had withdrawn, the Turks introduced a new system of provincial administration. Northern Palestine was part of the *vilayet* of Beirut; Southern Palestine was the autonomous *sanjak* of Jerusalem.

In 1914 the Turks threw in their lot with the Germans; a joint military expedition from Palestine crossed the Sinai Desert and made a demonstration against the Suez Canal. The British Expeditionary Force in Egypt counter-attacked and advanced eastwards and northwards. By 1918 the whole of the Levant had been conquered and fell under a British military administration until July 1920. Then Palestine became, like Iraq, a Mandated Territory under British colonial administration.

THE BRITISH OCCUPATION

In 1918 Palestine had a population of about 700,000 of whom a tenth were Jews rather less were Christian Arabs, and over four fifths were Muslim Arabs. Apart from the Jewish populations in the holy cities of Jerusalem and Tiberias (where they formed the majority) and in Safad and Hebron, a number of new towns and villages in Palestine had been settled since the 1880s with immigrant Jews, largely from Russia and Eastern Europe. The Turkish Government had been hostile to Jewish colonization; the British Government favoured it in order to develop the country, the Arab population as a whole was not yet politically conscious.

Apart from the imprecise and contradictory directives contained in the Balfour Declaration of 1917 and the Mandate approved by the League of Nations, the British administration of Palestine was very similar to that of the more advanced Crown colonies. The Governor was, to be sure, called a High Commissioner, an annual report on British stewardship had to be submitted to the Mandates Commission of the League of Nations at Geneva. International disputes over Palestine could be (and were) taken to the International Court of Justice at the Hague. But Palestine was essentially governed by the Colonial Office in London subject to the usual British Parliamentary control through question and debate.

The structure of government in Palestine was the familiar British colonial pattern—a British High Commissioner exercising wide authority, assisted by a small all-British Executive Council composed of senior officials. The law courts were under a more or less independent British Chief Justice, with British, Muslim Arab, Christian Arab and Jewish judges and magistrates. The British garrison was commanded by an Army or Air Force officer responsible primarily to the War Office or the Air Ministry in London. Owing to the split between Arab and Jew that widened with the years no elected legislature was ever established. The nominated Advisory Council with a Palestinian majority, was replaced in 1922 by a wholly British Council composed of departmental heads which merely assented, like a king in privy council, to all bills approved by the Colonial Office and placed before it. Although Palestine was among the first British colonial dependencies in the size of its budget and foreign trade, and about half way down the list in size of population, it was almost at the bottom of the list in its constitutional development. In spite of the fact that its Jewish citizens, and towards the end of the Mandate many of its Arab citizens were politically mature and ripe for self government they could never exercise it. Nor were Palestinians, owing to the intensity of their religious and racial feelings, ever allowed to become heads of departments or district commissioners. Almost every one of these posts during the whole twenty-eight years of the Mandate was reserved for British appointees sent out from Great Britain or transferred to Palestine from some Crown colony.

Owing to the intensity of the struggle between Jew and Arab for the political control of Palestine and to the absence of any common institutions—outside the Civil Service itself and the municipalities of the mixed cities—the Jewish population created the *Vaad Leumi* (the National Council). In addition the Jewish Agency was set up by the World Zionist Organisation. Provision for a Jewish Agency existed in the Mandate itself, it became a state within a state. It was developed into the spearhead of the world wide Zionist struggle for the partition of Palestine and the germ of the eventual State of Israel. At the same time the Arabs, partly under the impact of Zionism, developed an Arab nationalist movement. But the rift between the more numerous Muslim Arabs and the better-educated Christian Arabs and the struggle

between the leading Muslim Arab families, retarded the development of Arab nationalism in Palestine. It was, however, aided by the nascent Arab nationalisms of Syria, Iraq, Trans Jordan, Saudi Arabia and the Lebanon and by the powerful cultural and political influence of Egypt. The increasing financial support given to the Jewish nationalist movement in Palestine by Jews abroad, chiefly in the United States, was, however, far more powerful, and in the event decisive.

In the first few years of the Mandate, Jewish support abroad of Jewish development in Palestine was much less than had been anticipated. There was a chronic shortage of capital for colonization. The Jewish immigration boom from Poland in 1925 collapsed in 1926 leaving a severe slump. But the creation of the Jewish Agency in 1929 was followed by an outburst of bloodshed arising from an apparently unrelated dispute over Jewish rights of access to the Walling Wall in the Old City of Jerusalem. Even so, the tempo of Jewish colonization did not provoke the Arabs to insurrection until 1936, three years after the advent of Hitler to power in Germany. The consequent rising tide of Jewish immigration into Palestine after 1933 resulted in three years of Arab rebellion which was only suppressed by the use of a very large part of the British regular army. The employment of such powerful forces is a measure of the importance that Palestine then played in the British plans for the defence of its interests in the Middle East in face of the growing imperialisms of Germany and Italy. Even so, the Arab rebellion was only called off after the Arab States had themselves intervened and the British Government had issued the White Paper of 1939 putting a stop to further extension of Jewish land purchase and eventually to all Jewish immigration.

Jewish colonization in Palestine between the world wars had resulted in an increase in the Jewish population, largely through immigration, from 70,000 to 200,000. The Arab population, largely through a high birth rate and a declining death rate resulting from improved sanitation and hygiene, had by a strange coincidence increased by exactly the same number. But whereas in 1918 the Arabs outnumbered the Jews by ten to one, by 1938 they only outnumbered them by two to one. The number of Jewish villages had risen from 30 to 230. Jewish investment in Palestine had reached tens of millions of pounds sterling. Although the Arabs were still in the majority, the superior Jewish powers of organization and their single minded devotion gave them a political influence as strong as if not stronger, than that of the Arabs. Jewish reaction to the White Paper of 1939 was sharp. Illegal immigration and arms acquisition were resorted to on a large scale. On the outbreak of World War II in 1939 the Jewish struggle against the White Paper policy was called off in favour of a united front against the common enemy, Germany. The British armies in the Middle East (including many Jewish and Arab volunteers) saved Palestine from invasion and the Jews from extermination. But once Germany was defeated, Jewish rebellion against British policy in Palestine broke out and was fought with increasing bitterness on both sides.

The removal of the absolute ban on all further Jewish immigration would have pacified the Jews. A limited Jewish immigration would not have menaced Arab numerical preponderance. But the League of Arab States which had come into existence during World War II was regarded by Britain as having a strength which the subsequent war with Israel proved to be exaggerated. The personality of Mr. Ernest Bevin, the Labour Government's Foreign Secretary from 1945, prevented any modification of British policy in Palestine. The Anglo-American Committee of 1946 and the United Nations Special Committee on Palestine were unable to find any solution

equally acceptable to Britain, the Arabs and the Jews. With the defeat of Germany and Italy and the post-war prostration of Russia, Palestine had lost much of its pre-war value to Britain, which decided to withdraw; yet it refused to implement in any way the United Nations resolution of 29th November, 1947, that Palestine should be partitioned into an Arab and a Jewish state. Unwilling therefore to hand over to the successor governments the services it had so laboriously and successfully built up over thirty years, Britain allowed Palestine to lapse first into anarchy and then into civil war.

THE EMERGENCE OF ISRAEL

Arab hostility to partition and to the emergence of any kind of a Jewish State had led to an Arab military offensive against Jews even before the end of the Mandate. Whereas in the first Arab Rebellion from 1936 to 1938 there was a united British-Jewish Front, from 1946 to 1948 the Arabs attacked the Jews while the Jews were attacking the British. Jewish Jerusalem was under Arab siege. Arab time-bombs were exploded in the Jewish Agency and in Ben Yehuda Street. A Jewish convoy to Mount Scopus was ambushed by Arabs—all with heavy loss of life. Irregular Arab guerrillas invaded Israel, and a force led by Kaukji and equipped with field guns besieged Mishmar Haemek near the Carmel Range. In spite of the large British military forces still in Palestine, little was done to maintain law and order. The brunt of Jewish defence fell on the *Haganah*, an underground citizen army sponsored by the Labour Federation and the Jewish Agency. This had determination which made up for its lack of heavy military equipment. Some small arms were smuggled in from abroad, others were made locally in secret factories. The Jewish static defence system was well developed, but their mobile forces were poorly trained owing to the need for secrecy and suffered heavy losses in action.

The Jewish position was complicated by the co-existence of two other smaller Jewish defence organizations—politely called “dissidents” but terrorist in effect. One was the *Irgun Zvai Leumi* or *Etsel* (National Military Organization); the other the *Lohmey Herut Israel* or *Lehi* (Fighters for the Freedom of Israel). The *Irgun* was under Revisionist right-wing control; the *Lehi* were even more violently patriotic. Both showed a daring and a ruthlessness but also an irresponsibility that damaged the Jewish cause much more than promoting it. The blowing up of a wing of the King David Hotel in Jerusalem causing the death of many British, Arab and Jewish civil servants; the hanging of two British sergeants in reprisal for the hanging of a captured Jewish terrorist; and the massacre of Arabs at the village of Deir Yasin near Jerusalem caused violent British and Arab reactions. In the case of Deir Yasin the British military forces again took no action against the attackers, and large numbers of Arabs fled from Palestine by land, sea, and air. The Arab minority evacuated Tiberias; Arab resistance in Haifa collapsed. An *Irgun* attack from Tel-Aviv drove the Arabs out of Jaffa.

The Arab-Israel war was fought largely at company and battalion level and not at brigade and divisional level. United Nations observers acted like umpires at a football match. Two truces were arranged, the second of which developed into an armistice but not into a peace treaty. Both sides firmly believe even today that were it not for the truce they would have completely defeated the other. In the event Israel emerged with much more territory than that originally allocated to her under the partition plan. All that remained to the Arabs was half of the city of Jerusalem, the Nablus and Hebron hills and the Jordan Valley—all added to the Kingdom of Jordan (formerly Trans-Jordan)—and the Gaza strip added to Egypt.

The failure of the Arab League (Egypt, Saudi Arabia, Trans-Jordan, Syria, Lebanon and Iraq) to conquer Israel in 1948 was due in part to lack of unity between these Arab States. Dynastic rivalries and mutual jealousies prevented the establishment of a united Arab command.

Meanwhile a Jewish provisional Government was declared in Tel Aviv on May 14th, 1948, the day before the end of the Mandate. The head of the new Government was Mr. David Ben Gurion, formerly Chairman of the Jewish Agency Executive in Jerusalem. Several other leading Executive members became members of the new Coalition Cabinet, in particular Mr. Eliezer Kaplan, as Minister of Finance, and Mr. Moshe Sharett, as Minister of Foreign Affairs. Mr. Ben Gurion also became Minister of Defence, and as such directed the war against the Arab States.

One of the first actions of the provisional Government of Israel was to invite the veteran Zionist leader, Dr. Chaim Weizmann, to become the first President of the new State. Dr. Weizmann died on November 9th, 1952, and was succeeded by Itzhak Ben Zvi, a veteran labour leader.

THE REFUGEES

One of the most tragic consequences of the war was the flight of the Arab refugees into the neighbouring territories. Many smaller Arab towns and villages were evacuated both before and after the end of the Mandate, some in face of advancing Jewish forces. Abandoned Arab villages were blown up by the Israeli Army to prevent any possibility of an Arab return. Some 800,000 Arabs took refuge in the Lebanon and Syria and in Arab Palestine—in the Nablus and Hebron hills and the Jordan Valley under the Kingdom of Jordan, and in the Gaza strip under Egyptian control. This exodus was, in places, encouraged by Arab nationalist leaders who anticipated an early defeat of Israel. But when Israel was not defeated an Arab refugee problem was created which has so far been left unsolved and embitters all relations between Israel and its neighbours. The Arab States insist on the return of the refugees to Israel; Israel refuses to readmit any more, pointing out that the state absorbed some 476,000 Jewish refugees from Arab countries in the decade after the war of 1948. Israel's counter-offer to pay for abandoned Arab property taken over by Israel and the use of this money for resettling Arab refugees outside Israel has not been accepted, and the United Nations' resettlement plan has also been rejected by the Arab States. The situation is further complicated by the movement of some 300,000 to 400,000 Arabs from the west bank of the Jordan to the east bank, in the year after the Arab-Israel war of June 1967. Nor is this the full extent of the new refugee problem caused by the 1967 war. Between 80,000 and 125,000 people were estimated to have been displaced from the Syrian villages of the Golan heights; while on the west bank of the Suez Canal, in Egyptian territory, upwards of 350,000 persons were moved inland from the towns of Ismailia, Suez, Port Said and Port Tewfiq to escape continuing exchanges of artillery fire. Israel still has within its 1967 frontiers an Arab minority of some 9 per cent of the population (about 246,000), who distinguished themselves by their loyalty to Israel during the 1967 war. But many Israelis doubt whether it is possible to integrate this minority quickly, given its religious, linguistic and nationalist differences.

BIRTH OF THE KNESSET

All political power in Israel is concentrated in the Cabinet and the Knesset, or Parliament. The extreme buoyancy and self-confidence of Israel's leaders led them to create a single-chamber assembly which soon showed considerable capacity for effective action, under the leadership of another veteran Zionist—the late Mr.

Joseph Sprinzak the Speaker. The Knesset and its 120 members are held in great public esteem but the electoral system on which it is based is the proportional list system taken over from the Zionist Congresses. This effectively prevents any single party from having a majority it perpetuates splinter parties and it condemns Israel to a series of shifting coalitions.

The first elections to the Knesset took place in January 1949 and there have been five more general elections since. The fourth Knesset was dissolved before the end of its term as a result of a protracted Government crisis and new elections were held on August 15th 1961. The crisis arose over the Lavon Affair the exact details of which are still unknown and which originated in 1954 when Mr Pinhas Lavon resigned as Minister of Defence from Mr M. Sharet's Cabinet.

In the 1961 elections the right wing Liberals (a merger between the former General Zionist and Progressive Parties) and the Communists increased the number of their seats at the expense of the Mapai which lost five seats. It still retained its leading position in the House with forty two seats.

After long negotiations for the formation of a new Cabinet a narrower Coalition (without Mapai) was formed consisting of Mapai supported by four Arab members the National Religious Party and two minor parties namely Ahdut Ha avoda and Poalei Agudah.

The narrowing of the Coalition slightly strengthened Mapai's position inside the Government although Mr Ben Gurion had to concede to Ahdut Ha avoda as a member of the Coalition the right to oppose the Government on the issue of Military Government in the Arab-populated areas and on questions connected with Israel's relations with Germany. This right nearly led to a Government crisis in February 1963 when the party voted with the Opposition on motions calling for the abolition of Military Government in Arab-inhabited areas. By a vote of 57 to 56 the Knesset rejected the motions thus narrowly averting the defeat of the Cabinet.

The year 1965 marked a new trend in Israeli politics a tendency to reduce the number of political parties in preparation for the general elections due to be held in November. An alignment between the majority party Mapai and Ahdut Ha avoda a Socialist minority party was signed on May 19 1965 while the Liberal and Herut factions in the Knesset formed on May 18 a Herut Movement and Liberal Party bloc thus becoming the second largest faction after Mapai Ahdut Ha avoda. This trend was continued when in January 1968 after prolonged negotiations a merger of three Labour factions took place to form the Israeli Labour Party. Mapai The merger included the previous Mapai Ahdut Ha avoda and Rafi parties which together controlled 54 out of the Knesset's 120 seats. Mr Ben Gurion a former member of Rafi did not enter the new party and decided to sit as an Independent.

GROWTH OF THE NEW STATE

A gigantic programme of colonization was launched from the very beginning of the state in 1948. Some 350 new Jewish villages were established along the frontiers up the corridor to Jerusalem and in the south. Some 3 000 000 dunams of abandoned Arab land were taken over by the Jewish National Fund and brought back to cultivation using heavy mechanical equipment. But owing to the great shortage of housing accommodation many immigrants had to live in tents or huts in large camps. The time-lag of several years between starting a new village and the sale of the first crops involved

large imports of food from abroad. The slow expansion of Israel's export industries led to a fantastically large adverse trade balance and a severe drain on Israel's foreign exchange resources. Without a constant flow of new capital into Israel from abroad—largely the United States—none of this development would have been possible. Some of this capital came in as State loans some as gifts some as investment. But the chilly attitude of Israel's first Government to foreign private investment—even Jewish—led to ever increasing financial difficulties for the State. There was a shortage of raw materials for industry of building materials even of food. The very large German reparation payments to Israel largely in the form of goods have however materially eased the situation. The earlier shortage of food and building materials has disappeared. The strict Government rationing system and its attendant black market gave way in 1952 to a new economic policy of rationing by the purse.

However the inflationary pressure continued and after a series of ineffective devaluations the Israeli pound was in February 1962 reduced to one-eighth of its original sterling value. In announcing the new financial policy the Government abolished multiple exchange rates for foreign currencies and introduced a new system of a liberalization of trade so as to pave the way for Israel's possible association with the European Economic Community (the Common Market). These hopes however were dashed in the course of protracted negotiations with the EEC and following the breakdown of the negotiations for Britain's entry into the Common Market. Instead a modest three-year commercial agreement was signed between Israel and the Common Market on June 4th 1964.

The 1961 census gave Israel's total population as 2 260 700. There were about 230 000 Arabs of whom 164 000 were Muslims 51 000 Christians and 23 000 Druse. The census showed that 40 per cent of the population was native born. Among Jews born outside Israel 43 per cent came from Africa and Asia and 53 per cent from Europe (80 per cent in 1948). The two millionth Jew arrived in Israel in May 1962. By November 1967 it was officially estimated that Israel's population numbered 2 768 300 of whom 2 378 900 were Jews. Almost half of the Israeli Jewish population (47 per cent) is concentrated in nine cities: Tel Aviv Jaffa (394 000) Haifa (208 000) Jerusalem (196 000) Ramat Gan (105 000) Petach Tikvah (71 000) Holon (74 000) Beer sheva (68 000) Bene Beraq (63 000) and Nathania (55 000). Some of the immigrants have become discouraged and have left but the vast majority has now been satisfactorily integrated. Every possible use was made of available talent and immigrants with professional qualifications but lacking Hebrew were sent to residential colleges for half a year at state expense. According to an Israeli census taken in September 1967 the Arab population of the territories occupied by Israel in the June war came to about one million persons (excluding East Jerusalem) of which 600 000 lived on the West Bank of Jordan. The Gaza Strip's population was about 354 000 persons while the Golan Heights contained 6 400 persons (90 per cent of them Druse) and the northern part of Sinai 33 000 inhabitants.

Mass immigration into Israel during the first three years of her existence doubled her population a feat unparalleled in any country in any century. This preference for quantity over quality strengthened Israel's defences and enabled the more exposed Jewish communities—especially in Arab countries where their situation deteriorated following the Arab Jewish war—to be rescued and brought to Israel. This move combined with the Arab refugees from Israel proved to be a large-scale transfer of Middle East populations. But the pace set by this mass immigration nearly wrecked the economy of Israel and in 1951 mass immigra-

tion had to be abandoned in favour of selective immigration, that is, preference for the able-bodied and those with professional skills. Following the struggle for independence in French North Africa there was a considerable increase in Jewish immigrants from Morocco in 1956. Some 72,634 immigrants entered Israel in 1957, including quite an appreciable number from Poland and Hungary. Many were taken direct from the ships and settled in frontier villages.

The number of immigrants declined in 1958 to 27,287, and although large numbers were expected from Eastern Europe in 1959, the total for the year was 24,000. In 1960 it dropped to 17,500, but the end of 1961 saw again a vast increase in immigration from countries which in the past years barred Jewish emigration. It rose again in 1962 but did not reach the expected climax owing to the failure of the Algerian Jews to come to Israel. While over 100,000 of them left Algeria before independence, only about 10,000 emigrated to Israel. It was estimated that in 1963 some 60,000 new immigrants came to settle in Israel. But following the imposition of a policy of economic retrenchment the country was beset by a wave of emigration, and it was estimated that in 1966 some 12,000 people emigrated, whereas only 5,000 new immigrants arrived in Israel. As a result of the war in 1967, about 22,000 people immigrated into Israel in that year, 4,000 more than in the previous year.

THE SINAI CAMPAIGN

The supply of Russian and Czech armaments on a large scale to Egypt in the years preceding 1956 upset the Middle Eastern balance of power which the Tripartite Declaration of 1950 had tried to preserve. Egypt increased her forces in the Sinai Desert and the Gaza Strip and embarked on a series of *fedayeen* (commando) raids into Israel, from Egyptian as well as from Jordan territory, with a constant drain of life on the frontiers.

Israel countered this with heavy reprisal raids, one of which—on the Gaza frontier in the spring of 1956—nearly led to war. The visits to the Middle East of Mr. Dag Hammarskjöld, Secretary-General of the United Nations, reduced the tension. With the withdrawal of part of the Egyptian forces from Sinai and the Gaza Strip to meet the Anglo-French threat to Egypt after the seizure of the Suez Canal Company, and the temporary discontinuance of the *fedayeen* raids, the tension between Egypt and Israel further declined.

In the autumn, however, the Egyptian troops returned to Sinai and the Gaza Strip; the elections in Jordan showed a swing towards Egypt; a military alliance against Israel was signed between Egypt, Jordan and Syria; and the *fedayeen* raids were restarted.

In October the United Kingdom, France and Israel contrived a secret pact, details of which were only to emerge ten years later, which was at once to undo Egypt's takeover of the Suez Canal, and to enable Israel, with Anglo-French air protection, to remove the threat of President Nasser's huge military build-up in the Sinai peninsula. Accordingly, Israel rapidly mobilized, and on October 29th her forces crossed into Sinai at several points, one column arriving within striking distance of the Suez Canal within four days. On the following day the Anglo-French ultimatum was sent to Egypt and Israel, calling on them to stop all warlike action and to withdraw their forces to a distance of ten miles from each side of the Suez Canal.

The Anglo-French bombing of Egyptian airfields crippled the Egyptian air offensive against Israel and the Anglo-French stand on the Security Council prevented Israel from being named as the aggressor. Israel forces had mean-

while succeeded in occupying the whole of Sinai, the Gaza Strip and the islands in the Gulf of Aqaba, which were used by Egypt to blockade the gulf. Israel captured much war booty and took several thousand prisoners. Nevertheless, under strong United Nations pressure, Israel agreed to evacuate the Sinai peninsula once the UN Emergency Force was ready to take over positions on the Israel-Egyptian border, and to occupy the gun emplacement at Sharm el Sheikh on the tip of the peninsula, from where the Egyptians had exercised control over all shipping passing through the Straits of Tiran into the Gulf of Aqaba. Henceforth Israeli vessels were free to navigate these straits, making possible the development of trade relations with East African and Asiatic countries through the port of Eilat. The Israeli Government was at pains to assert in 1957 that any Egyptian attempt to re-establish control over Israeli shipping in the Straits of Tiran would constitute an act of war.

HOME AFFAIRS

A government crisis was caused in June 1959 by the sale to Western Germany of arms manufactured in Israel, and for some months Mr. Ben Gurion led a divided caretaker government until the general election in November, when he returned to power at the head of a new coalition government in which the position of his own party, Mapai, was strengthened. The most important laws passed during 1959 by the outgoing third Knesset were for the nationalisation of labour exchanges, which had been conducted hitherto by Histadrut, and for increasing facilities and privileges for foreign private investors in the Israel economy.

A new cabinet was formed in December 1959, and among new ministers appointed were Gen. Moshe Dayan, Minister of Agriculture, who had commanded Israel's forces in the Sinai campaign of 1956, and Mr. Abba Eban, Minister without Portfolio, who had formerly been Israel Ambassador in Washington. Subsequently, on July 31st, 1960, Mr. Eban was appointed Minister of Education in succession to Mr. Zalman Aran, who resigned following a dispute between secondary school teachers and the Histadrut-affiliated Teachers' Association.

In the Cabinet formed in 1961 the new Ministers included Dr. Dov Joseph (Justice), Mr. Yosef Almogi (Housing), Dr. Zerach Wahrhaftig (Religious Affairs), General Yigal Allon (Labour) and Dr. Eliahu Sasson (Posts). One of the first acts of the Government was the promulgation of a new economic policy based on the devaluation of the Israeli pound, the abolition of the multiple exchange rates and the liberalisation of trade restrictions. It also undertook a vigorous effort to obtain Jewish and international capital from abroad for the country's development and to settle the new wave of immigrants. Another of the Cabinet's early pre-occupations was Israel's association with the European Common Market.

In 1962 President Ben-Zvi was sworn in for a third term of office, after having been elected by 62 votes of the Coalition against the opposition's 42. Mr. Ben-Zvi died on April 23rd, 1963, to be succeeded in May by Zalman Shazar. President Shazar is a member of the Executive of the Jewish Agency and the author of numerous works on Zionism. He was re-elected by the Knesset to a second five-year term of office on March 26th, 1968.

In March 1960 Mr. Ben Gurion paid private visits to the U.S.A. and to Britain. At a meeting with the United Nations Secretary-General, Mr. Ben Gurion expressed Israel's concern at Egyptian troop concentrations on the U.A.R.-Israeli border, as well as at the continuing refusal of the U.A.R. to allow Israeli shipping to use the Suez Canal.

MR. ESHKOL'S GOVERNMENT

On June 16th, 1963, Mr Ben-Gurion resigned "for personal reasons" as Israel's Prime Minister and Minister of Defence. He remained, however, a Member of the Knesset. Mr Levi Eshkol a former Minister of Finance in Mr Ben-Gurion's Cabinet, formed a new Government which obtained a vote of confidence on June 26th by 64 votes to 43 of the Opposition parties. In the new Cabinet Mr Eshkol took also the portfolio of Minister of Defence, Mr Pinhas Sapir replaced him at the Ministry of Finance while retaining his previous portfolio of Minister of Trade and Industry. Mr Abba Eban was appointed Deputy Prime Minister, and was replaced at the Ministry of Education by Mr Zalman Aranne. The Coalition remained unchanged. In one of his first statements Mr Eshkol renewed the offer made by his predecessor, Mr Ben-Gurion, to meet President Nasser "at any time or in any place" to discuss their differences. On December 14th 1964, following a meeting of the Central Committee of his party, Mapai at which Mr Ben-Gurion carried on his fight to re-open the "Lavon Affair", Mr Eshkol resigned. He re-formed his Government a few days later with only minor changes. But the rift with Mr Ben-Gurion continued leading to the resignation of some of his supporters, Mr Moshe Dayan, Minister of Agriculture, Mr Joseph Almogi Minister of Development and Mr Shimon Peres Deputy Defence Minister. Mr Eshkol replaced these ministers, but in July 1965 Mr Ben-Gurion formed, with their support, a new party, the Israel Labour List (*Reshimat Poalei Israel*), to contest the elections in November, when the party secured only about 8 per cent of the votes cast, which gave them ten seats in the Sixth Knesset.

In October, 1963 Mr Eshkol announced travel relaxations for the Israeli Arab minority. This was a major departure from the line of policy followed by his predecessor. Further easing of restrictions on the movement of Arabs in the Central Galilee and the Negev came into force in January 1966. Under the new orders more than 20,000 Bedouin living in restricted areas of the Negev were freed from obtaining individual permits to move into any part of Israel. Another 60,000 inhabitants of the "little triangle", abutting on the Jordanian border in Central Israel, were allowed to enter without a permit the closed zones in Central Galilee, around Nazareth. On December 1st, 1966, the Military Government administration, which had been in force in Israel's border areas since the end of the war in 1948, was abolished and its functions were transferred to the civilian authorities.

In June 1964, Mr Eshkol visited the United States as an official guest of the White House. President Johnson reiterated to Prime Minister Eshkol U.S. support for the territorial integrity and political independence of all countries in the Near East and emphasized the firm opposition of the U.S.A. to aggression and the use of force or the threat of force against any country. A communiqué also referred to an American-Israeli agreement to undertake joint studies on problems of desalting water which provided concrete evidence of the desire of the United States to continue to assist Israel in her efforts to solve the remaining economic problems.

As a result of the general election for the Sixth Knesset, held in November 1965, Mr Eshkol's Alignment for the Unity of Israel's Workers polled nearly 37 per cent of the votes and emerged again as the strongest party with 45 members. In January of the following year Mr Eshkol presented his new Government to the Parliament based on a coalition of the Alignment with the National Religious Party, the Mapam, the Independent Liberals, the Poalei Agudat Israel and the Alignment affiliated Arab lists. The coalition commanded a majority of 75 votes out of 120. In the new cabinet Mr Abba Eban replaced Mrs Golda

Meir, who had held the post of Foreign Minister for nearly ten years. In one of his first pronouncements the new Foreign Minister called for the application of "the spirit of Tashkent" to the Arab-Israeli conflict.

The Eshkol government continued without major changes until the formation of a coalition immediately before the June 1967 war. This continued to govern until the elections in October 1969. Mr Eshkol, however, died of a heart attack on February 26 1969 at the age of 73, a week later Mrs Golda Meir was appointed Prime Minister at the head of an unchanged cabinet.

FOREIGN RELATIONS, 1957-67

Throughout this period Israel enjoyed close and friendly relations with the principal countries of the Western World. The friendships were cemented by extensive commercial and financial co-operation and investment as well as by immigration and tourism, the Arab attempt to boycott all companies with interests in Israel had limited success. Relations with the U.S.A., whose Jewish community provided much of the finance for Israel's development and France, supplier of most military equipment and technical knowledge, were particularly close.

The undiminished hostility of the neighbouring Arab States has obliged Israel to keep her defence forces in instant readiness and to devote a disproportionately large share of the national budget to defence. Throughout 1959 there was tension between Israel and the U.A.R. due to the repeated retention by Egypt of vessels passing through the Suez Canal, and the confiscation of cargo bound for Israel. Israel's Foreign Minister, Mrs Golda Meir, protested strongly against this Egyptian action in a speech before the U.N. Assembly in September, 1959.

The tension between Israel and the Arab states increased when Israel announced that she was going ahead with her National Water Project envisaging the pumping of 320,000,000 cubic metres of water to be drawn annually from the Lake of Galilee for the needs of agriculture and urban population in the Negev. The Arab leaders met in Cairo in January 1964 to consider retaliatory plans for diversion of the tributaries of the Jordan and to agree on a unified military command. Premier Eshkol warned them, however, that Israel would brook no interference with its scheme. Thirteen Arab Prime Ministers who met in Cairo in January 1965, claimed that they had agreed on measures for the diverting of the head-waters of the River Jordan away from Israel. The Israeli Prime Minister, Mr Eshkol, again warned the Arabs of the consequences of such measures. By September 1964, the 100 mile National Water Carrier was reported to be operational, except for two water reservoirs in the Beit Natufa depression. In September 1965 a spokesman of the Ministry of Agriculture stated that the daily output of the country's water resources rose in the past four years by 1,500,000 cubic metres and stood at 4,300,000 cubic metres. The increase has been achieved among other things by the operation of the National Water Project.

On the other hand Israel has taken great trouble to establish and maintain good diplomatic and economic relations with several largely non-Muslim countries in Asia and Africa as for example Ghana, Guinea, Upper Volta, Liberia, Nigeria, Burma, Malaysia, Central African Republic and Thailand. Many Israeli scientists and experts are engaged in Asia and Africa, and the diplomatic missions to countries which have recently gained independence are staffed with men of particularly high calibre.

In 1966 Premier Eshkol visited seven African states, Senegal, Ivory Coast, Liberia, Congo, Malaysia, Uganda and Kenya. He had talks with leaders of these countries and joint statements issued after the visits expressed appreci-

ation for Israel's co-operation in the development of these countries as well as hopes for the further strengthening of relations. Nevertheless Israel has failed to achieve recognition from the majority of African and Asian countries. Evidence of their lack of sympathy for the Jewish state was seen at various gatherings of these countries during the early sixties, notably at Casablanca, Bandung and Belgrade in 1961, in Tanzania in 1963, and in Cairo in 1964; on all these occasions resolutions critical of Israel were passed by large majorities.

Relations between Israel and the Soviet Union continue to be strained. In May 1960 the Soviet Government rejected Mr. Ben Gurion's request for a meeting with Mr. Khrushchev. Relations deteriorated further when in July 1961 the Soviet Union expelled the First Secretary at the Israel Embassy in Moscow, Mr. Yaakov Sharett, son of the former Prime Minister of Israel. He was detained in Riga while on holiday and was accused of being a spy and of distributing "illegally anti-Soviet literature". In an article published by *Trud*, the official organ of the Soviet Trade Unions, under the title "Zionism—the Mask of Israel Spies" Israeli Embassy officials, especially its First Secretary, Mr. J. Pratt, and Mr. Y. Sharett, were strongly attacked for distributing anti-Soviet literature and using synagogues for meetings with Jewish people. These accusations were linked with the case of three elderly Leningrad Jews sentenced to terms of imprisonment for "criminal contacts" with an unnamed foreign country. The Zionist organisations and parties in Israel were blamed for having become branches of the American Intelligence Service. Mr. Khrushchev's visit to Cairo in May 1964, and the support given in his speeches to the Arab cause gave considerable anxiety to Israel's leaders.

In August 1966 the Soviet Union expelled Mr. David Gavish, Second Secretary at the Israeli Embassy in Moscow, for "espionage activities". It was then reported by a Press Agency that more Israeli diplomats had been declared "persona non grata" by the Soviet authorities since 1948 than representatives of any other country. But relations between the two countries reached their lowest point as a result of the "six day war" in June 1967, when the Soviet Union broke off diplomatic relations with Israel. This was followed by other Communist countries, with the notable exception of Romania.

The Shah of Iran's announcement on July 24th, 1960, confirming his country's *de facto* recognition of the State of Israel led to bitter dispute between Iran and the Arab States of the Middle East, in spite of the fact that this marked no new development in Iranian policy, since Iran's *de facto* recognition dates back to 1949.

In January, 1964, in the course of his momentous visit to the Holy Land, Pope Paul VI spent one day in Israel. He was met twice by President Shazar, on his arrival at Megiddo and before he left the country through the Mandelbaum Gate in Jerusalem. The visit was interpreted as being of historic significance for Christianity and Judaism but signalled no change in the Vatican's attitude of no formal recognition of Israel. Before leaving the country Pope Paul VI defended the record of his war-time predecessor, Pope Pius XII, by saying that the accusations levelled against the latter were "a slight against his memory".

A rather unexpected turn for the worse in relations between France and Israel followed the June war. President de Gaulle put a strict embargo on the sale of 50 Mirages V, ordered and partly paid for by Israel. The payment by Israel of the balance of the sums due for the aircraft did not immediately affect President de Gaulle's decision. A speech in which he criticized Israel and the Jewish people (November 1967) further exacerbated already strained relations.

ISRAEL AND GERMANY

In 1960 an event which stirred Israel deeply was the capture in Argentina by Israeli agents of Adolf Eichmann, described in the Knesset by Mr. Ben Gurion as one of the worst of the Nazi war criminals, who was personally responsible for the extermination of six million Jews in Europe. Eichmann was brought to Israel to stand trial under an Israeli law of 1950.

Eichmann's trial opened at the Bet Haam in Jerusalem on April 11th, 1961, and lasted with adjournments until December 15th. He was charged under the Nazis and Nazi Collaborators (punishment) Law of 1950 and the fifteen charges included the causing of the extermination of millions of European Jews, placing millions of others in murderous living conditions, having devised sterilizing measures, persecuted the Jewish people and various other crimes. Twelve of these charges carried the death penalty. The accused was sentenced to death and was described in the judgement as an arbiter of life and death, a man for whom even Hitler's orders were not unalterable. The Defence lodged an appeal against the sentence. The Israel Supreme Court dismissed the appeal and Eichmann was hanged on May 31st, 1962.

While the trial and execution of Eichmann did not visibly affect Israel's relations with Federal Germany a crisis in the relations between Israel and Germany arose in the spring of 1965 when on February 10th the Bonn Government announced that she would halt all arms supplies to Israel, because of the threat by President Nasser that should the arms deliveries continue he would reconsider the Egyptian stand on the German question, and would give diplomatic recognition to the German Democratic Republic. In fact President Nasser invited Mr. Walter Ulbricht, the D.D.R. Prime Minister, to visit Cairo. The immediate West German reaction was to threaten to withdraw economic aid from Egypt, and when on February 24th Mr. Ulbricht landed in Egypt as a State Visitor, this threat was put into effect. On March 7th the Bonn Government offered diplomatic recognition to Israel, which was subsequently accepted. Following this some 80 of the German scientists working in the United Arab Republic returned to Germany, and several Arab countries broke off relations with the Federal Republic. The first Federal German Ambassador to Israel, Dr. Rolf Pauls, arrived on August 11th, 1965, and Mr. Asher Ben-Nathan, Israel's envoy to Bonn, left for Germany. Riotous demonstrations were held in Israel against the appointment of the West German Ambassador, who was a former Wehrmacht officer.

German reparations payments to Israel, in accordance with The Hague agreement of 1952, were completed in March 1966. By then West Germany had paid 2,400 million Marks (about £216 million) and 1,050 million Marks in oil supplied to Israel by Britain.

In May 1966 Dr. Konrad Adenauer, the former West German Chancellor, visited Israel and was awarded the Hon. Fellowship of the Weizmann Institute at Rehovoth. The ceremony was boycotted by Coalition Ministers of the left-wing Labour parties Achdut ha' Avoda and Mapam and street demonstrations took place.

BACKGROUND TO THE 1967 CRISIS

Although the Sinai campaign in 1956 put an end to the *fedayeen* raids from across the Egyptian border, in the early 1960s similar activities by individual terrorists infiltrating into Israel mainly from bases in Syria began to occur. In response to frequent Israeli protests the Lebanese and Jordanian governments took steps to restrain these elements, but in 1966 Premier Zeayen of

Syria publicly declared his nation's support of the activities of al Fatah, one of the principal organizations responsible.

In the course of the last few years the tension between the two countries reached the point of intermittent small-scale military confrontation, particularly in the Tiberias region. Israel's traditional response to infiltration by terrorists had been occasional large-scale retaliatory raids, one of which was launched against the Jordanian village of Samu in November 1966. While this provoked great political disturbance within Jordan it in no way succeeded in containing Syrian infiltration, which in the six months preceding the war of June 1967 reached a greater frequency than at any previous period.

The attempt of U Thant to reconvene the lapsed Syrian-Israeli mixed armistice commission, following a renewal of border conflict in January 1967, came to nothing. In April a more serious military confrontation took place, this time including aircraft, in the course of which six Syrian MiGs were shot down.

In May a series of warning pronouncements were made by Israeli leaders to the effect that if guerrilla infiltration was not controlled Israel would take the extreme step of invading Syria to overthrow the Baathist regime. On May 14th Premier Eshkol declared that such a confrontation would be inevitable if the terrorist campaign continued. The Arab response was extreme.

In the middle of May, large Egyptian troop movements were reported in the Sinai desert. This was shortly followed by President Nasser's demand that the United Nations Emergency Force (UNEF) be withdrawn from the Gaza Strip, the Sinai desert, and from the Straits of Tiran. The Egyptian explanation for this move was that they had received reliable information (from Soviet Intelligence as later emerged) to the effect that Israel, with the backing of the United States, was planning a major attack on Syria and had concentrated forces in the north for this purpose. UN observers on the Syrian border could not confirm the presence of such forces. President Nasser then took the critical step of imposing a total blockade on Israel's vessels using the Straits of Tiran. The Israelis warned Egypt that this was an aggressive act, and also expressed misgivings about the hasty withdrawal of the Emergency Force by the UN Secretary General, U Thant.

ARAB-ISRAELI WAR

When, in view of the growing tension in the area, U Thant flew to Cairo for talks with President Nasser on May 22nd, Israel and the United Arab Republic had already called up reserves and Syria and Jordan had also mobilized their forces. Attempts by Britain to obtain the agreement of other maritime nations to a joint statement of the principle of peaceful use of the Straits of Tiran and the Gulf of Aqaba by ships of all nations proved unsuccessful. A few days later King Hussein of Jordan signed a defence agreement with Egypt thus extending the Arab-Israeli confrontation to Israel's eastern neighbour. In Israel one member each of three opposition parties joined the Cabinet thus forming a "national Government" which included General Moshe Dayan, the victor of the 1956 Sinai campaign, as Defence Minister.

War finally broke out on Monday, June 5th, in the early hours of the morning, when it was announced that Israeli forces were attacking on the Egyptian front an armoured force moving towards Israel. Within twenty-four hours it became clear that the Israeli air force had launched a massive attack on airfields in Egypt and claimed big Egyptian losses in destroyed aircraft on the ground and in the air. Large scale fighting also took place on the Jordanian front, especially in the Jerusalem area, where

Jordanian forces left their defensive positions but found themselves without adequate air cover. Within three days King Hussein had to accept the cease-fire demanded by the UN Security Council, which met in emergency session on the day the hostilities broke out. Egypt followed suit on the fourth day after the beginning of the fighting when the Israeli forces in a three-pronged attack had occupied the Gaza Strip, the east bank of the Suez Canal and Sharm al Sheikh in the Straits of Tiran, thus occupying once again the Sinai peninsula. In Jordan they occupied the whole of Jordanian held territories west of the River Jordan and the Old City of Jerusalem. The Syrian forces, which attacked Israeli settlements from positions held in the mountains in the north of Israel, accepted a cease-fire on June 10th when advance Israeli forces were already on their way to Damascus. Thus the 'six day war' came to an end with the Arab countries claiming that it had been 'established' that Britain and the United States had given active support to the Israelis, an unsubstantiated allegation that was vehemently denied by both these countries as well as by Israel. President Nasser and King Hussein later withdrew these allegations. The Israeli army lost 679 killed and 2,563 wounded during the Six Day War.

THE AFTERMATH OF THE WAR

Following the acceptance of a cease-fire the Soviet Union asked for the convening of an emergency session of the UN General Assembly which met on June 19th, 1967. After prolonged debate, the initial Soviet resolution (calling for the condemnation of Israel as the aggressor and the unconditional withdrawal of Israeli troops to the 1949 armistice line) together with a number of modified resolutions were rejected by the Assembly. The only resolution passed, by 99 votes to nil, was Pakistan's proposal that the Assembly should declare invalid the legislative measures taken by the Knesset incorporating the Old City of Jerusalem and its environs administratively and economically within the state of Israel.

On November 22nd 1967 the Security Council of the UN unanimously adopted a British resolution which linked the withdrawal of Israeli forces behind "secure and recognized boundaries" with an end to Arab belligerency and the appointment of a special UN representative to establish contacts with the various parties in order to promote an agreement (see p. 66). Dr Gunnar Jarring, a Swedish diplomat, was appointed to this post and started consultations with the Egyptian, Jordanian and Israeli authorities. While the Israelis insisted on direct peace negotiations with the Arabs, the Egyptian Foreign Minister Mr Mahmoud Riad said in Cairo in March 1968 that the U A R would not enter into such talks either directly or indirectly.

A 'little summit' of five Arab Presidents (the U A R, Algeria, Iraq, Syria and Sudan) held in Cairo in July 1967, agreed that they would neither sit down and talk with Israel "nor ever let her live in peace". A similar stand was taken by Arab Foreign Ministers meeting in Khartoum in August as well as by Arab kings and presidents who stated in September 1967 in Khartoum that there would be "no peace, no recognition, and no negotiations" with Israel.

In the year following the cease-fire with Jordan an estimated 380,000 Palestinian Arabs, including many refugees of the 1948 war living in camps, moved from the west to the east bank, so aggravating the immense economic and social problems incurred by Jordan through the Israeli occupation of the west bank. An Israeli offer to repatriate former inhabitants of the west bank who had left for the east began to be implemented in August 1968, but by the summer of 1970 less than 30,000 refugees had returned permanently, a further 20,000 were said to have

paid short visits to relatives and friends still on the west bank.

Meanwhile continued sporadic fighting occurred after July 1st at the Suez Canal cease-fire line, occasionally including aircraft attacks. The situation was made more complicated by the arrival of part of the Soviet fleet at the port of Suez, and the rapid replacement by the U.S.S.R. of a large proportion of the Egyptian military equipment destroyed during the war.

The sinking by the Egyptians of the Israeli destroyer *Eilat* on October 20th, 1967, was considered by the Israelis as a resumption of hostilities. The attack came from a Soviet-built missile ship while the *Eilat* was, apparently, on a routine patrol in international waters off the occupied Sinai coast. A few days later Israeli guns shelled the El Nasr Petroleum Company refinery at Suez, causing considerable damage. The Suez Canal remained blocked and an attempt to free fifteen foreign ships trapped in the Canal was frustrated when the Egyptians tried to free the whole Canal without at the same time guaranteeing freedom of passage for Israeli shipping.

EXPANSION OF GUERRILLA ACTIVITY

The Arab guerrilla organizations increased their activity, with several incursions into Israeli territory, across the River Jordan. Maintaining that the centre of these activities was the Arab village of Karameh, on the eastern bank of Jordan, strong Israeli forces crossed the river on March 21st to wipe out what they claimed was the headquarters and main advance base of the Al Fatah saboteurs. The Israelis suffered heavy losses and the operation was unsuccessful in that the terrorist organization was not eliminated and resistance added to its popularity. It also gained official political support from Egypt and Jordan.

On June 5th, 1968, the eve of the first anniversary of the June war, Israeli forces launched a large-scale attack on the town of Irbid, killing thirty people. They claimed that this was in retaliation for "incessant Jordanian artillery barrage" against Israeli settlements. On August 4th a further major attack was made near Essalt, only 12 miles from Amman.

From the autumn of 1968 until the summer of 1970 there were frequent exchanges of gunfire across the Canal, despite the presence of UN mediators. In one such exchange the Suez oil refineries were largely destroyed. Many air battles also took place. Both sides launched numerous guerrilla raids, and the Israeli forces inflicted substantial damage to power lines and communications. The Al Aqsa mosque fire in August 1969 aroused fresh calls for a Muslim "holy war" against the Israeli annexation of Jerusalem. In the second half of 1969 Israel made numerous air raids into the heart of Egypt, some targets being on the outskirts of Cairo; these raids ceased in 1970, however. The installation of Soviet anti-aircraft missiles and the presence of Soviet pilots flying non-combatant missions are thought to have been a factor influencing this. Israel then built a fortified wall along the Canal—known as the "Bar-Lev" line after the Chief of Staff—using sections of the torn up El Arish-Kantara railway line from northern Sinai.

The River Jordan and more recently the Syrian frontier have also become the scene of sustained military activity. There have been frequent exchanges of artillery fire by regular troops, on some occasions involving the Iraqi forces stationed in Jordan. The respective air forces have also engaged each other, and in July 1969 there was an important air battle with the Syrian Air Force. Israel's principal concern, however, has been the irregular Arab commando organizations, notably Al Fatah, which have made several raids on the West Bank and organized

many terrorist incidents. In November 1968 a bomb planted in a Jerusalem supermarket killed twelve people; in May 1969 the "Tapline" oil pipeline was blown up where it passes through the occupied Golan Heights, and prompt measures had to be taken to prevent oil leakage polluting vital water supplies. A month later the Haifa oil refinery was shelled, causing considerable damage. These are only the most notable of the guerrillas' "achievements". A favourite deterrent tactic of the Israeli authorities is the demolition of houses occupied by people suspected of giving active or tacit support to the *fedayeen* movement.

In December 1968 a crowded El Al airliner was machine-gunned by an Arab commando organization at Athens airport, it being purely by chance that only two casualties resulted. A few days later Israeli commandos raided Beirut airport as a reprisal, and as a warning to the Lebanese government to restrict the freedom which the *fedayeen* based in Lebanon enjoyed. Over a dozen aircraft belonging to Arab airlines were destroyed, but without loss of life. There was much criticism of this raid from elements normally friendly to Israel—the UN Security Council unanimously passed a motion condemning it—and one effect was to help bring down a Lebanese government which had never taken an active part in anti-Israel activity. Shortly before the raid the U.S. announced that it would sell Israel fifty Phantom jet fighters, which would become the most advanced aircraft owned by a Middle Eastern country; after the raid, however, France imposed a total ban on arms supplies to Israel. Western reports claimed that Israel has made atomic bombs at its Dimona plant in the Negev, developed with French assistance after the 1956 war. The government denied these reports, but military commentators generally assume that Israel has at least the capacity to make nuclear weapons.

THE MEIR GOVERNMENT

In October 1969 Mrs. Meir's governing coalition retained power and continued in office virtually unchanged. However, a division of opinion in the cabinet between "hawks" and "doves" on policy towards a peace settlement in general and the occupied territories in particular became increasingly obvious. American pressure for moderation, with the threat of withdrawing or delaying military supplies, notably the vital jet fighters, if aggressive policies were continued, was one important factor.

Another issue tending to divide the cabinet, which contains several members of the National Religious Party, was the question of the legal definition of a Jew. The controversy arose over a mixed marriage, when the Gentile wife claimed Israeli citizenship without accepting religious conversion; it flared up again when a woman converted to Judaism by a reform rabbi also asked for citizenship. The incidents reminded Israelis—and the world—that the united front shown to the Arabs since 1967 had concealed the enduring contradiction at the heart of Israel's existence: the gulf between the secular and radical ideals of most of the state's founders and the power which the Rabbinate has in practice acquired over civil law and customs. In July 1970 the government was strengthened by the addition of two Mapam members, who had refused to take up the places in the cabinet allotted to the party after the 1969 election.

In the summer of 1970 the military situation was still explosive. June and July saw some of the most severe clashes on all fronts since the June war. The Israeli air force maintained an almost continuous offensive against Egyptian positions on the canal. Land and air battles took place between Israeli and Syrian forces on the Golan Heights. Similar engagements were fought by the Israelis against the Jordanian army and the Palestinian guerrillas. In addition, guerrilla activities increased in the Gaza Strip,

where many Arab suspects were arrested. A new and from the Israeli point of view escalating factor in the situation was the installation with Soviet help of SAM 2 missiles in the U A R.

However following a new peace initiative by the U S A led by Secretary of State William Rogers and based on the UN Security Council Resolution of November 22nd 1967 (see p 66) a cease-fire agreement between Israel and the U A R eventually came into force on August 7th 1970. A similar agreement between Israel and Jordan was also observed. The cease fire has been renewed at intervals ever since.

Israel's acceptance of the new peace proposals resulted in the resignation from Mrs. Meir's cabinet of the six ministers belonging to the Gahal Party, but on a motion of no confidence in the Knesset she obtained a majority of 59 with 3 abstentions and the 26 Gahal members absent.

Although talks under the auspices of Dr Gunnar Jarring the UN mediator began in New York later in August the atmosphere was quickly soured by alleged violations of the cease-fire agreement. One of the terms of the agreement was the maintenance of the *status quo* in zones extending 50 km (31 miles) east and west of the cease-fire line. Israel alleged that significant movements of SAM-2 and SAM 3 missiles had taken place on the Egyptian side. The U A R responded by accusing Israel of having built fortifications on the canal's east bank. The U S A while agreeing with Israel seemed reluctant to dramatize her protégé's complaints or take any action preferring to emphasize the overriding importance of the talks. The cease-fire violations caused serious disagreements in the Israeli cabinet on the most suitable response. General Dayan's opposition to the continuance of talks eventually carried more weight than the views of the majority who were concerned about the American reaction to withdrawal from the negotiations. On September 6th Israel announced her decision to stop talking until the cease-fire terms were fully observed but without going back on her acceptance of the Rogers plan.

The Palestinian guerrillas (like Iraq and Syria of the front-line Arab forces) rejected the Rogers peace proposals and the cease-fire agreement and reaffirmed their militancy in September 1970 by hijacking and destroying four Western airliners. The guerrilla group responsible the marxist Popular Front for the Liberation of Palestine (P F L P) held passengers and crew members hostage until the Swiss West German and British governments released Palestinian commandos in custody in their respective countries.

The guerrillas' hostility to the U S peace plan led to a fresh deterioration of relations with the Jordanian Government and a bloody war with the Jordanian army in late September. There were thousands of casualties before an uneasy cease fire was agreed with the mediation of other Arab states and since then guerrilla activity has been mainly confined to the Gaza Strip which has a long tradition of Palestinian resistance. Commando actions there provoked 50 reprisal murders in the first half of 1971. In addition heavy handed response by the occupying forces resulted in disciplinary action being taken against certain Israeli soldiers. Given the reduction in guerrilla activity generally it was not surprising that differences were reported in January between the P F L P and Fatah. By July the Jordanian Government had considerably strengthened Israel's position by liquidating the remaining Palestinian commando bases in Jordan.

In the meantime after more complaints from both sides of cease fire violations representatives of Israel the U A R and Jordan met Dr Jarring again in January 1971. There then followed a period of intense diplomatic activity in

which each side put forward proposals for settlement and in which the U S A U S S R United Kingdom and France all played a part. Mrs Meir and President Sadat both appeared to moderate their positions a little in February. Mrs Meir hinted at possible withdrawal from some of the occupied territories while the Egyptian President mentioned possible recognition of Israel. Mrs Meir visited Britain and the U S A. Statements she made to the London *Times* about her country's territorial requirements led in March to another (unsuccessful) no-confidence motion in the Knesset.

By May the opening of the canal as a first step to a peace settlement had emerged as the central point of American policy and this was made clear by Mr Rogers in a tour in May of Israel the U A R and other Arab states. The fifteen year friendship treaty signed between the U S A and the U S S R in May was interpreted in Israel as a counteraction against the recent improvement in Egyptian American relations and it was generally considered in Israel to be a setback for the Rogers initiative. Rogers himself however was in June talking in terms of an agreement on the canal by the end of the year.

Israel is still spending a greater proportion of its budget on defence than any other country amounting to over 20 per cent of the gross national product. She has nevertheless lost more soldiers in action since the end of the war—642 killed with 2 333 wounded in the period up to the cease fire—than in the war itself.

THE OCCUPIED TERRITORIES

The areas gained by Israel in the war of June 1967 comprised (from north to south) the Golan heights (Syrian Jowian district) the Old City of Jerusalem and the three Jordanian provinces of Nablus Jerusalem and Hebron the Gaza strip in the south east and the Sinai peninsula beyond it. The Golan heights largely depopulated by the war and the Gaza strip two-thirds of whose population were refugees from the 1948 conflict had great strategic significance each having served as a focus for Arab attacks on the country. Sinai largely desert has nevertheless important mineral deposits which Israel has not been slow to survey and exploit and its retention ensures the security of Israeli shipping in the Gulf of Aqaba. Most problematic to Israel is the heavily populated West Bank territory.

Of these areas only the future of Jerusalem seems firmly decided there seems no likelihood that Israel will voluntarily give up a gain of such emotional and symbolic significance. Integration of the two halves of the city both political and economic has proceeded apace and the formerly Jordanian inhabitants of East Jerusalem some 70 000 Arabs are now treated as Israeli citizens. The other occupied areas are under military administration albeit with many local civil officials continuing to exercise their former duties under the supervision of the military governors.

The economy of the occupied territories is in strong contrast to that of Israel. In the Gaza strip a precarious balance had been achieved between income from United Nations Emergency Force and UNRWA projects remittances from workers in the Persian Gulf oil industry exports of citrus and proceeds from the free port of Gaza. The disbanding of UNEF and the revocation of the freedom of Gaza port have been a stimulus to movement of workers into the West Bank and even into Jordan. The Israeli authorities have not opposed this exodus. On the other hand road works and electric power lines have been put in hand giving employment to local labour and suggesting a long term interest in the development of Gaza as part of a greater Israel. In 1969 Israeli geologists revealed that vast water reserves had been discovered

under the Sinai desert; should it eventually prove possible to tap these reserves economically, the settlement of large numbers of Gaza refugees in the peninsula might become a viable proposition. The contrast in wage levels between Israel and the Arab territories poses difficult problems; the cheapness of labour and produce from the West Bank constitutes a threat to Israel's economy; price levels for the Arab community have been priced up by the replacement at higher cost from Israeli sources of stocks run down in the occupied areas. These hardships are to some extent being overcome by developing non-competitive crops such as grain, figs and olives, by rescaling wage rates, especially in East Jerusalem, and above all by the authorities' turning a blind eye to considerable exports of fruit and vegetables across the Jordan by the rebuilt bridges. But this commerce has had as one result the continued inflow of Jordanian dinars, which in the west bank have had to be retained as legal currency alongside the Israeli pound. Long-term solutions to these problems are still being sought.

Public opinion in Israel is divided on the future of the occupied territories, but most follow prominent political and religious leaders in supporting their retention, certainly until a lasting peace settlement is achieved. Although the government has not announced an official policy, several individual leaders have taken a stand against return of any occupied lands to the defeated Arabs. All the major parties appear to be agreed on the retention of strategic areas within an enlarged state, and only Mapam envisages the

return of Sinai and the West Bank territories, after a peace settlement. The Arab wing of the Israel Communist Party alone demands the full restitution of occupied lands.

In the West Bank lies the key to the problem of the "rediscovered" lands. If it is retained as part of a greater Israel the trends of population growth will lead to a preponderance of Arabs over Jews in the new state within a decade, unless steps are taken to encourage further Jewish immigration and Arab emigration. If the territories are returned to Jordan, as they would be under a plan with which Deputy Premier Yigal Allon's name has been associated, they would continue to pose an enormous security problem in any realistic assessment of the future political situation. The "Allon Plan" involves setting up a fortified zone, partly occupied by Jewish settlements, along the western heights above the Jordan valley, through which all movement of Jordanian Arabs would be controlled. Since 1968 an increasing number of Jewish settlers have been moved into villages in the West Bank; the case of the town of Hebron, which has received a large influx of Jews, has been much publicized as a possible indication of government policy on the retention of the territory.

Complete political and administrative integration of the new territories would put a heavy burden on the Israeli taxpayer, for uncertain advantages and little immediate return of revenue. Meanwhile the Israel Government keeps its options open, while informal moves towards economic and social integration continue to develop.

E.B.

ECONOMIC SURVEY

The continuous flow of immigrants, as well as the hostility of both the natural and human environment in the Eastern Mediterranean have not only affected Israel's political progress. They have also left a deep imprint on her economy and its development.

Large-scale immigration calls not only for heavy financial outlay to transport the future citizen to the shores of the new state and to maintain him during the early period of his stay, but for extensive capital investments in order to absorb him into the economic life of the country. Similar problems have had to be overcome with respect to the establishment of a productive agricultural—and later industrial—economy.

The continued tension between Israel and her Arab neighbours entails the maintenance of a costly defence system. At the same time, the boycott operated through the Arab League reinforces a certain intrinsic isolation from world markets—interfering with Israel's lines of communication, hampering her foreign trade, and restricting the natural outlets for her products and services.

Yet despite these difficulties, Israel's economy has expanded at a very rapid rate and shows substantial achievements in practically every branch of production: agriculture and fisheries, industry and mining, building and construction, transport and communications, trade and services. At the same time, a high rate of capital formation has been sustained.

One of the basic problems of Israel's economy, however, has been a tendency towards overheating—

inflation—and in turn, toward too rapid contraction. This latter was seen most recently in 1966 and early 1967, when economic growth fell to nil. Unemployment increased sharply, as did emigration.

By mid-1967, however, it was evident that the economic picture was improving: this trend was confirmed by the war "boom" which followed the Arab-Israeli fighting of that year. Production and employment returned to their former levels, helped by large military orders as well as the revival of the home market. The occupied territories provided additional markets as well as a labour source. As a result economic growth showed an 11 per cent rise in 1968 and 12.3 per cent in 1969.

Some signs of a falling off of this high level of economic expansion were discernible in 1970, when the overall G.N.P. growth rate fell to 7 per cent, largely because sufficient financial or human resources were not available to sustain further increases.

AREA AND POPULATION

The total area of the State of Israel within its 1948 armistice frontiers amounts to 7,993 square miles; the territories occupied in 1967 (i.e. Sinai, the West Bank and the Golan Heights) multiplied fourfold the original area of Israel. This compares with the area of Palestine under British mandate which totalled 10,249 square miles. The population at the beginning of 1971 totalled some 3,000,000, of whom 2,500,000

are Jews, 300,000 Muslims, 72,000 Christians and 33 000 Druzes and others. In the area brought under Israeli administration as a result of the June war are an additional 1,000,000 persons.

Of the total population, about 30 per cent live in the Tel-Aviv-Jaffa area, 18 per cent in the central area between Tel-Aviv and Jerusalem, 16 per cent around Haifa, 15 per cent in the north, and about 11 per cent around Jerusalem.

The growth of the Jewish population, both of Palestine and of Israel, has been mainly due to immigration. During the period from 1919 to 1947, approximately 485,000 Jewish immigrants entered the country. By 1966, however, the migration balance (the surplus of immigrants over emigrants) had fallen to 8 300 and by 1967 to 4,300.

After the Arab-Israeli war, however, the balance swung sharply back in Israel's favour, reaching 12,700 in 1968 and 21,500 in 1969.

The first waves of immigrants to reach the new state were refugees from war-torn Europe, mainly from Poland, Romania, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia and Hungary. They were followed by Jews emigrating from the neighbouring Arab states and from Iraq, Iran, Turkey, Yemen and Libya. Later arrivals came from North Africa where emigration is still in progress. Since 1956, immigration from Eastern Europe (Poland, Hungary and Romania) has been resumed. The three million Jews living in the USSR still have little contact with the Jewish State, although by early 1971 an emigration rate of about 1,000 Russian Jews per month was reported.

Of the Israeli Jewish population, about 45 per cent are native born (17 per cent of these are second-generation Israelis), 28 per cent were born in Europe, America and Oceania, 14 per cent are from Africa and the remainder from Asia.

At the beginning of 1970, the Israeli civilian labour force totalled more than 990 000 persons of whom 307,000 were employed in the services sector, 247 000 in industry, 122,000 in commerce, banking and insurance, 99 000 in agriculture, forestry and fishing, 77,000 in construction, 73 000 in transport and communications, and the remainder in public utilities. Their average monthly salary was I£615.

As is apparent from the employment figures for industry, commerce and agriculture, only about half of the labour force is employed in the truly "productive" branches of the economy. Efforts are being made to improve this distribution, which is considered unsatisfactory and which, to a certain extent, is the result of a tendency of many of the immigrants to continue, if possible, in their former professions—mostly in the field of trade and services. Large-scale building projects and public works and the compulsory national service for both sexes in the armed forces have also taken a large share of the labour supply available, while the availability of economic assistance and other forms of unilateral transfers from abroad has also prevented the weeding out of "non productive" economic branches.

AGRICULTURE

For centuries, the Jews in the diaspora were barred from owning land and hence from farming and related occupations. The Zionist movement therefore saw in the acquisition of land and in the settlement thereon of the largest possible number of persons one of the basic objectives of Jewish colonization in Palestine. The establishment of the State has led to an even greater stress being laid on the development of agriculture. Not only was it necessary to develop alternative sources for supplies previously imported from Arab countries, but the expanding population and the need to conserve foreign exchange made it necessary to encourage the domestic supply of staple food and the growing of crops for export. This was a difficult task. Farmers were strange to one crop farming and it was necessary to settle on the land immigrants who had never before engaged in agriculture. Yet despite these handicaps Israel's agriculture has been able to make progress in practically every branch. As of 1970, Israel was producing well over 90 per cent of her requirements in fruits and vegetables, dairy and poultry products as well as more than 75 per cent of meat, fish and starch-foods needs. Only with respect to cereal grains, and oils and fats is domestic production seriously deficient.

Cultivation has undergone a profound transformation and from an extensive, primitive and mainly dry-farming structure it has developed into a most intensive, modern and efficient irrigated husbandry. A special feature of Israel's agriculture is its co-operative settlements which have been developed to meet the special needs and challenges encountered by a profession. While there are a number of different forms of co-operative settlements, all are derived from two basic types: the Moshav and the Kibbutz. The Moshav is a co-operative smallholders' village. Individual farms in any one village are of equal size and every farmer works his own land to the best of his ability. He is responsible for his own farm, but his economic and social security is ensured by the co-operative structure of the village, which handles the marketing of his produce, purchases his farm and household equipment, and provides him with credit and many other services.

The Kibbutz is a collective settlement of a unique form developed in Israel. It is a collective enterprise based on common ownership of resources and on the pooling of labour, income and expenditure. Every member is expected to work to the best of his ability, he is paid no wages but is supplied by the Kibbutz with all the goods and services he needs. The Kibbutz is based on voluntary action and mutual liability, equal rights for all members, and assumes for them full material responsibility.

During the years following the establishment of the State a large-scale expansion of the area under cultivation took place. This was caused by the heavy influx of immigrants and the re-cultivation and rehabilitation of the area abandoned by the Arabs. The cultivated area increased from 400 000 acres in the crop year 1948-49 to over one million acres in 1970. Of this, some 430,000 acres are irrigated. Total water

consumption at present amounts to 1,500 million cubic metres of which 1,200 million cubic metres is consumed by agricultural users.

Without taking into consideration the cost or availability of irrigation water, it is estimated that the land potential ultimately available for farming under irrigation is 5,284 million dunams, while 4,096 dunams is the figure given for the area potentially available for dry farming. There are also 8.5 million dunams available for natural pasture and 0.9 million dunams for afforestation.

Agricultural production is expected to expand in future at a rate of 8–10 per cent per year, as a result of greater efficiency and productivity.

The main factor limiting agricultural development is not land, but the availability of water. Latest estimates of the potential water supply show a total of approximately 1,840 million cubic metres of water available annually from the following sources:

- (i) Perennial: 995 million cubic metres (River Jordan 500 million, Yarkon River 215 million, springs 280 million).
- (ii) Flood waters: 85 million cubic metres.
- (iii) Sewage and irrigation backflow: 125 million cubic metres.
- (iv) Wells and other sub-surface sources: 635 million cubic metres.

Taking into consideration that on average 800 cubic metres of water are needed per annum to irrigate one dunam of cultivated area, it is obvious that Israel must harness all water resources. For this reason, the Government established a special Water Administration headed by a Water Commissioner who has statutory powers to control and regulate both the supply and the consumption of water.

The Water Administration has been charged, among other tasks, with the implementation of the national water project. The purpose of this project is to convey a substantial part of the waters of the Jordan River and of other water sources from the north to southern Judea and to the Negev, to store excess supplies of water from winter to summer and from periods of heavy rainfall to periods of drought, and to serve as a regulator between the various regional water supply systems. The backbone of the national water project is the main conduit from Lake Tiberias to Rosh Haayin (near Tel-Aviv), known as the National Water Carrier, which has an annual capacity of 320 million cubic metres. Two other large schemes, also in operation, are the Western Galilee-Kishon and the Yarkon-Negev projects. Small desalination plants have been built at Eilat and elsewhere, and will be used more extensively if costs are eventually reduced. Desert farming in the Negev, using brackish water found underground, has achieved considerable success on an experimental basis.

Cultivation of citrus fruits is one of the principal agricultural branches and produces the main export crop. The varieties grown are "shamouti" oranges, "late" oranges, grapefruit, lemons, tangerines, and

citrons. A Citrus Marketing and Control Board supervises all aspects of the growing and marketing of the fruit, particularly exports. Although oranges were grown in Palestine even prior to World War I, it was only after 1918 that citriculture began to expand. It reached its peak in 1938–39, when nearly 300,000 dunams were devoted to the growing of citrus and out of a total crop of 18 million cases more than 15 million were exported. The outbreak of the Second World War brought exports practically to a standstill and since the home market was insignificant this spelt ruin for the industry and many citrus groves were neglected, abandoned or even uprooted. Disturbances after the war caused further neglect and during the War of Independence damage was caused to many groves and to their water installations. A census conducted in 1950 showed a citrus area of only 188,000 dunams, of which 35,000 were administered by a government-appointed Custodian on behalf of the Arab absentee owners. In 1952 a rehabilitation programme was initiated, with the result that by the beginning of 1971, the area under citriculture had been increased to some 425,000 dunams.

Not only have new plantings led to an expansion of the area under cultivation, but stress has also been laid on the introduction of modern methods and techniques both in the groves and in the packing houses.

The 1970–71 citrus crop was some 1,200,000 tons. Of this total, over 700,000 tons was exported. Chief markets in 1967 were West Germany (175,000 tons), the United Kingdom (165,000 tons) and France (64,000 tons). The total value of Israeli citrus fruit exports in 1969 was \$91,300,000.

Of the remaining area under cultivation at the beginning of 1971—some 3,825,000 dunams—about 2,750,000 dunams are producing field crops, 425,000 are planted with other fruit crops, 370,000 dunams are being used for assorted vegetables, potatoes, melons and pumpkins, 54,000 dunams are devoted to fish ponds and the remainder for miscellaneous purposes. Of the last, increasing emphasis is being laid on the growing of floral plants, produce from which is exported directly to West Europe as cut flowers.

There has been a steady increase in the number of cattle, raised mainly for dairy farming. In recent years, due to surpluses of milk, restrictions on imports of meat, and the rise in the standard of living, there has been a shift towards the raising of cattle for meat: at the end of 1969 cattle in Israel totalled 240,000 head, of which about 65,000 were beef animals. The keeping of poultry has become one of the basic branches of agriculture: laying hens, geese, ducks and turkeys in Israel now total about 8,000,000 and poultry now provides the main source of animal protein for the population. It is of particular importance for the absorption of new immigrants as the raising of poultry is eminently suitable for new settlers who have as yet little experience of farming.

Supplies of fish are derived from three sources: Mediterranean Sea fishing (trawling, in-shore and deep-sea fishing), lake fishing (Lake Tiberias) and fish breeding ponds. Sea fishing has been expanding in

recent years and Israeli fleets operate from the Canary Islands to the Indian Ocean, and also off the South African Cape. Breeding of fish in ponds has become highly developed and provides the largest part of the total catch. In 1969, the fish catch totalled 21,400 tons, about half of which came from Israeli ponds.

INDUSTRY

The need to create employment opportunities for a rapidly expanding population have made Israel the most industrially-minded country in the Middle East, and no efforts are being spared to speed and spread industrial development—even at the level of crafts and handicrafts. The result was that between 1950 and 1969, industrial output showed a greater-than-fivefold increase—an average of over 10 per cent a year—to a value of (at 1965 prices) 1,110,800 million. In the same period, productivity per worker has increased by an average of 4 per cent a year, in spite of the addition to the labour force of substantial numbers of immigrants.

At the beginning of 1970, there were some 22,000 industrial establishments in Israel (including self-employed persons) of which about 230 employed more than 100 persons and about 110 more than 300 persons. There are still a number of problems, however, deriving from the large number of small sized industrial units and the fragmentation of production to which this gives rise.

Israel's industry originally developed by supplying such basic needs as soap, oil and margarine, bread, ice, printing and electricity. It used raw materials available locally to produce citrus juices and other citrus by-products, canned fruit and vegetables, cement, glass and bricks. In order to save foreign exchange, imports of manufactured goods were curtailed, thus giving local industry the opportunity of adding local labour value to the semi-manufactures imported from abroad.

To stimulate investment and encourage the inflow of foreign capital the Law for the Encouragement of Capital Investments was enacted in 1950, broadened in 1959 and amended in 1967. The Law sets up an Investment Centre and provides for the approval of projects contributing to the development of industrial potential, the exploitation of natural resources, the creation of new sources of employment—particularly in development areas—and to the absorption of new immigrants. Among the concessions granted to approved projects, particularly those financed in foreign currency, are remittance of profits and withdrawal of capital, and tax benefits in respect of income tax, indirect taxes and depreciation allowances.

Although most of Israel's industrial production, about 85 per cent, still goes for home consumption, industrial exports now constitute about half of all Israeli exports. Here again there has been a very rapid expansion, the result of tax and investment incentives from the Government. In 1950, Israeli industrial exports were worth \$18 million, representing a contribution of some \$5 million to net foreign currency earnings. In 1969 these figures rose to \$552 million

in industrial exports, representing some \$212 million in net currency earnings.

Israel's most important industrial export product is diamonds, most of the expertise for the finishing of which was supplied by immigrants from the Low Countries. Thus there is a certain irony in the fact that today Israel is second only to Belgium as an international diamond centre. In 1969 Israel exported some \$215 million worth of diamonds; the country's share of international trade in polished diamonds has risen to 30 per cent and as high as 80 per cent in medium sized stones in which she specializes.

Israel Aircraft Industries, employing over 12,000, is Israel's largest single industrial enterprise. At its main plant adjacent to Lod Airport it produces the first wholly Israeli-designed aircraft—the Arava, a twin turboprop passenger/cargo transport—and the Commodore Jet, a 10 place twin-jet executive aircraft as well as the Gabriel sea-to-sea missile. It also overhauls, maintains and repairs almost every type of aircraft. Subsidiary and integrated plants design and make a large variety of aviation products.

The food, beverage and tobacco industries account for about 14 per cent of manufactures and employ some 32,000 persons. About 90 per cent of output is sold on the local market, the rest, such as juices, wines, chocolate and coffee, goes abroad.

The textiles and clothing industry, which was developed chiefly because of its low capital-labour ratio, accounts for about 15 per cent of total industrial production and employs some 50,000 persons. In 1969, it exported goods worth some \$80.6 million—about 15 per cent of total output.

There is also a small but rapidly expanding electronics industry, specializing in equipment for military and communications purposes. Exports by this sector have been increasing by some 20 to 30 per cent a year and in 1969 were worth in the area of \$6,500,000.

In view of the heavy power needs of irrigation and the water installations, agriculture as well as industry are large-scale consumers of electricity. As both irrigation and industry have been expanding, sales of electric power are constantly increasing. Total generating capacity in May 1948 (after the destruction of the 18,000 kW Jordan hydroelectric station at Naharayim) amounted to only 58,000 kW. Today, through the expansion of existing plant and the building of new power stations, generating capacity has increased to over 1,000,000 kW. Production of electricity in 1970 was some 6,000 million kWh of which some 1,800 million kWh was sold to industry, 1,200 million kWh to users in water pumping and irrigation, and 2,200 million kWh to other consumers.

The Petroleum Law, enacted in 1952, laid the foundation for oil prospecting in Israel. It regulates the conditions for the granting of licences, divides the country into petroleum districts and fixes a basic royalty of 12.5 per cent. In 1955, oil was discovered at the Heletz-Bror field on the coastal plain and later at Kokhav, Brur and Negba. Although 34 wells in

Israel are now producing, their output is less than 100,000 tons a year.

In 1958, a gas field was discovered at Rosh-Zohar in the Dead Sea area: production from it in 1970 was equivalent to nearly 140,000 tons of oil. Other gas discoveries were made at Kidod, Hakanaim, and at Barbur. The output is transported through a 29 km. 6-inch pipeline to the Dead Sea potash works at Sodom and through a 49 km. 4-inch and 6-inch line to towns in the Negev and to the Oron phosphate plant.

Despite these finds, Israel has in the past lacked large resources of fuel and power and has been dependent on imports (mainly crude oil and fuel oil) now amounting to over \$75 million a year. The imported crude oil is refined at the Haifa oil refinery, which has a capacity of 5.2 million tons per year, and which is now being expanded to 6 million tons. Roughly a third of its output is exported. Dependent on the Haifa refinery is a growing petrochemicals industry, which represents an investment of some \$20 million.

The results of the 1967 Arab-Israeli fighting could make a considerable difference to the supply of oil, since Israel gained control over several oilfields in the Sinai peninsula, and off shore in the Gulf of Suez. The current level of production is about 5 million tons a year: estimates of potential production range as high as 40 million tons a year. Most of the oilfields are operated by COPE, a joint company of the Egyptian Government and the Italian State.

The closure of the Suez Canal and this new oil supply encouraged the Israeli authorities to go ahead with a scheme for a new large 42-inch pipeline, 160 miles in length, from Eilat to Ashkelon on the Mediterranean coast. The first crude oil flowed through the pipeline early in 1969. Initial throughput was about 13 million tons and in 1971 is expected to reach 26 million tons. Provision has been made for an eventual increase in the line's capacity to 60 million tons a year. The source of the crude oil put through the pipeline is thought to be Iran, though some may come from the Sinai fields. A refinery with a capacity of 3 million tons per year is to be built at Ashdod, ten miles north of the pipeline terminal at Ashkelon. Completion is planned for 1973. An Israeli owned tanker fleet is now under construction: tonnage totalled 561,405 by 1970 and will rise to 1.5 million tons in 1972.

The Dead Sea, which contains potash, bromides, magnesium and other salts in high concentration, is the country's chief source of mineral wealth. The potash works on the southern shore of the Dead Sea, belonging to Palestine Potash Limited, had been abandoned during the War of Independence, while those on the northern shore fell into Arab hands and were destroyed. Rebuilding of the southern plant was started in 1952 and by the successor company, Dead Sea Works Ltd., and by 1955 a new plant was brought into operation. A road-link with Beersheba and a rail-link from Beersheba northwards was completed at the same time. In 1961, the company was granted new concession rights, subject to the condition that

it expand production in the first stage by an additional 400,000 tons. This increase has now been achieved. Further expansion is taking place to bring production capacity to 1,000,000 tons by early 1971.

Mining for phosphates was started at Oron in the Negev in 1951 and reached an output of 225,000 in 1961. Through mechanical processing and flotation, the phosphorous content of the ore has been increased from 21 per cent to 31 per cent, while a new calcination plant has improved the concentration to 38 per cent. The plant has now a production capacity of 600,000 tons a year and a new railway line from the Oron phosphate area to Eilat is planned. New deposits of phosphates estimated at 8 million tons have been found in the Araba of the Negev. Production from Oron and Araba now amounts to about 1,000,000 tons a year.

At Timna, in the southern Negev near Eilat, geological surveys have located proven reserves of 20 million tons of low-grade copper ore (about 1.5 per cent Cu) and a further 50 million tons of probable reserves. The building of a mill to make use of these ores and for producing copper-cement was completed in 1958. The ore is mined by open-cast and underground methods: in 1970, copper production from the Timna complex was greater than 10,000 tons.

FINANCE

The problems confronting Israel make a certain degree of inflationary financing unavoidable, and it is reflected in the country's financial statistics. In the early years of the State, when the Government financed its deficits through the printing press and banks expanded their credits, efforts were made to maintain a low level of prices by means of controls and rationing. The result was a large surplus of purchasing power in the hands of the public. The attempt of the public to expand this surplus gave rise to a black market in controlled goods and to a sharp rise in the prices of uncontrolled goods and services.

In 1952, stabilization measures were introduced, but not before the economic development of Israel had been seriously threatened. The currency was devalued, bank credit restricted and a compulsory loan introduced. On the whole, the policy proved to be successful and helped to promote the expansion which was to become a feature of Israel for more than a decade. By 1962, however, it had become apparent that further structural adjustments were necessary in order to put the economy on a more competitive basis. In February 1962, the Government announced a new economic policy. In addition to devaluation of the currency and reform of the foreign exchange system, the policy provided for reduction of barriers imposed to protect local industry, liberalization of imports and for measures to improve productivity. Government disinflationary measures and a credit squeeze were not effective in slowing down the rise in prices until 1967: in November 1967, the occasion of the British devaluation of sterling was taken for a further devaluation of the Israeli pound.

The size and composition of the Israeli budget reflect perhaps better than any other economic indicator the special conditions and problems confronting Israel's economy. To begin with the Israeli budget generally accounts for more than 40 per cent of the national income—a situation made possible on the one hand by the direct receipt from abroad of grants in aid reparations and loans and on the other because it has been the practice to channel these very large revenues directly into development projects.

The budget consists of two main parts: the ordinary budget and the development budget. The first makes provision for current expenses for example on defence (always a very large item) social and economic services administration and debt servicing. Its main sources of revenue are direct (about 40 per cent) and indirect (about 50 per cent) taxation. The development budget makes provision for the capital investment required to implement development projects. Its main sources are external and internal loans reparations received from West Germany (ended in 1964-65 and now replaced with credits U.S. development assistance and proceeds of food surpluses received from the U.S.).

The 1970-71 Israeli budget lists revenues and expenditures of 169 910 million the former deriving from property and income tax (26.5 per cent) taxes on expenditure (24.3 per cent) fees licenses and other (10.2 per cent—all of the foregoing being put toward ordinary expenditure—and internal loans (27.7 per cent) and foreign loans and transfers (11.3 per cent)—this last being put toward development expenditure).

Main items of revenue outlay are defence and security (39.8 per cent—and excluding expenditures dealt with under special reserves) social services (21.8 per cent) and economic purposes (15.2 per cent). Reflecting yet another of the problems of inflationary financing is expenditure on debt servicing and repayment at 14 200 million (20.1 per cent) a figure only slightly less than that spent on social services.

That the Israeli payments position is at present in surplus (some 1 100 million in 1970) is the result of capital movements to Israel totalling more than \$10 000 million since the establishment of the State. Against these funds may be set the inevitable loss on current account (\$1 250 million in 1970) and other deficits on current account. Transfer payments—proceeds from the United Jewish Appeal and similar campaigns personal remittances as well as institutional and personal remittances—comprised about 70 per cent of this total the remainder coming from overseas short and long term loans and investments including about \$30 million from the sale of State of Israel bonds.

Israel's foreign exchange obligations at the beginning of 1970 were some \$2 210 million of which Independence and Development bonds accounted for some \$870 million. Although interest rates are generally low only five per cent of outstanding obligations are short term debts.

TRADE

Israel's balance of trade inevitably shows a heavy deficit reflecting its dependence on foreign consumer and capital goods—if not foodstuffs—and raw materials. Although exports have increased dramatically from \$28 million in 1949 to \$199 million in 1959 and \$791 million in 1969 imports have stayed well ahead. In 1949 Israel's imports were worth \$253 million in 1959 \$430 million in 1969 Israel imported goods and services to a total value of \$1 332 million. The result in 1969 was a trading deficit of \$453 million.

Among major items imported in 1969 were manufactured goods (worth \$453 million including \$211 million worth of precious and semi-precious stones) machinery and transport equipment (worth \$385 million including non-electrical machinery to the value of \$163 million electrical machinery worth \$101 million and transport equipment worth \$122 million) foodstuffs and live animals (worth \$132 million) and inedible crude materials (worth \$106 million).

The focus of Israel's foreign trade is mainly Europe and North America. Thus the progress towards regional economic integration in Western Europe is of considerable interest. In May 1964 a three year agreement was concluded with the European Economic Community providing for tariff reductions of from 10 to 40 per cent on about 20 items mostly industrial goods. This expired in 1967 but a five year preferential trade agreement with the EEC was signed in June 1970. This agreement included a 45 per cent cut in EEC tariffs on certain agricultural and industrial items a 40 per cent cut for citrus fruit and a 300 ton per year quota for textiles. In return Israel is granted tariff cuts of from 10 to 25 per cent on industrial and processed agricultural imports.

BANKING, TRANSPORT AND TOURISM

Israel possesses a well established banking system consisting of the central bank (the Central Bank of Israel) 27 commercial banks, 14 credit co-operatives and 37 other financial institutions. Long term credits are granted by mortgage banks the Israel Agricultural Bank the Industrial Development Bank and the Maritime Bank as of mid 1970 the amount of outstanding bank credit to the public was 14 366 million.

The function of the Central Bank is to issue currency to accept deposits from banking institutions in Israel (and extend temporary advances to the Government) act as the Government's sole fiscal and banking agent and manage the public debt. Its Governor supervises the liquidity position of the commercial banks and regulates the volume of bank advances.

As of the middle of 1970 the total assets of the Central Bank were 14 608.1 million. Currency in circulation totalled 14 170 million and gold and foreign currency assets were 14 154.7 million.

The Israeli pound (divided into 100 agurot) was first issued in 1948 by the Bank Leumi le Israel B.M.—

then the Anglo-Palestine Bank Ltd.—in exchange for the Palestine pound, a colonial sterling currency issued in London. Since 1 December 1954, the Bank of Israel has taken over the issue of currency. As cover for its issue, the Bank holds gold, foreign exchange, Government Land Bills, Treasury Bills and other government obligations.

Originally issued at par with the pound sterling, the Israeli pound has gradually depreciated, leading, in due course, to the payment of export premia, special subsidies for certain capital transfers and to the imposition of surcharges on imports.

The continued severance of all lines of communication with her Arab neighbours has not only intensified Israel's dependence on sea and air communications, but has also given great impetus to the establishment of a national merchant marine and airline.

Since 1949, Israel has operated its own international air carrier—El-Al Israel National Airlines Ltd. Regular scheduled services to West Europe, the U.S., Cyprus, Iran, and parts of Africa and Asia are maintained: in addition, some 14 international airlines call at Lod, the airport of Tel Aviv.

Domestic services are provided by Arkia, a national carrier which in 1970 carried nearly 300,000 passengers from Tel Aviv to Jerusalem, Eilat, Haifa, Rosh Pina and Masada, as well as to points in the occupied territories.

Israel's merchant navy at present consists of some 109 vessels with a total deadweight of some 2 million tons. As of the beginning of 1970, some 40 new ships were on order for delivery by the end of 1973, when total capacity will be in the range of 4.5 million tons, composed of all types of vessels. Most of these will be built abroad, but a shipyard is now being built in

Haifa where there are already floating and dry-dock facilities. In the north, the port of Haifa and its Kishon harbour extension provide Israel's main port facilities. The south is served by the port of Eilat—Israel's only non-Mediterranean port—at the head of the Gulf of Aqaba, and by a new deep-water port at Ashdod, some 30 miles south of Tel Aviv.

About 1,670 million have so far been invested in Israel's railways, which by 1970 operated some 416 miles of main lines and 180 miles of branch lines. The service extends from Nahariya, north of Haifa, to Jerusalem, and then southwards through Beersheba. In 1965 it reached Dimona and in 1970 the phosphate works at Oron: ultimately, an extension to Eilat is envisaged. Traction is wholly by diesel locomotives.

At the beginning of 1970, there were some 2,517 miles of paved roads in Israel, 92 miles of which were four-lane motorways, and 1,786 miles of which were main or regional roads. Travelling them were 136,700 private automobiles—45 per thousand of the Israeli population.

In 1970, nearly half a million tourists visited Israel spending a total of roughly \$125 million, exclusive of fees paid to Israeli national transportation services. The country has more than 300 hotels graded from five-star to one-star, and including guest-houses at the kibbutzim, pilgrims hospices and youth hostels. Overall administration of Israeli tourism is carried out by the Ministry of Tourism, which maintains more than 17 offices abroad. It is also in charge of regulating tourist services in Israel, including the arrangement of "package" tours and the provision of multilingual guides.

W.D.

STATISTICAL SURVEY

AREA AND POPULATION

AREA (sq. miles)	POPULATION Dec. 1970	BIRTH RATE (per '000) 1970†	MARRIAGE RATE (per '000) Oct. 1970†	DEATH RATE (per '000) 1970†
8,017	2,993,000	27.0	9.1	7.0

* This includes the population of Eastern Jerusalem (68,000 inhabitants).

† Estimate.

ADMINISTERED TERRITORIES
(mid-1970)

	AREA (sq. miles)	POPULATION
Golan	444	n.a.
Judea and Samaria	2,270	606,000
Gaza	140	368,000
Sinai	23,622	n.a.
TOTAL	26,476	974,000

POPULATION OF CHIEF TOWNS
(January 1969)

Jerusalem (capital)	275,000	Holon	80,100
Tel-Aviv—Jaffa	384,700	Petach-Tikva	76,700
Haifa	212,200	Beersheba	72,000
Ramat Gan	109,400	Bene Beraq	67,000

GROWTH OF POPULATION AND JEWISH IMMIGRATION, 1958-70

END OF YEAR	TOTAL POPULATION	Jews	OTHERS	IMMIGRATION
1958	2,031,072	1,810,148	221,324	27,082
1959	2,088,685	1,858,841	229,344	23,895
1960	2,150,400	1,911,200	239,200	24,510
1961	2,234,200	1,981,700	252,500	47,618
1962	2,331,800	2,068,900	262,900	61,328
1963	2,430,100	2,155,500	274,600	64,364
1964	2,535,600	2,239,000	286,400	54,716
1965	2,598,400	2,299,100	299,300	30,736
1966	2,657,400	2,344,900	312,500	15,730
1967*	2,773,900	2,383,600	390,300	14,327
1968*	2,841,100	2,434,800	406,200	20,544
1969*	2,916,300	2,496,400	422,800	23,510
1970*	2,993,000	2,559,900	438,500	20,621

* These figures exclude the population of the areas occupied by Israel since June 1967; a military census carried out in September 1967 put this population at 994,735.

ISRAEL—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

EMPLOYMENT

(Percentage)

	1967	1968	1969*	1970*
Agriculture, forestry and fishing.	12.6	11.2	45.2	42.1
Industry, crafts and quarrying .	24.6	26.0	222.5	230.2
Construction and public works .	7.6	8.1	72.8	73.3
Electricity, water and sanitation	2.2	2.1	8.8	8.5
Commerce and banking	13.5	13.3	124.3	124.6
Transport, storage and communi- cations	7.3	7.3	53.4	53.3
Government and public services.	24.1	23.8	255.5	259.4
Personal Service and Entertain- ment	8.1	8.2	29.1	31.0
TOTAL (incl. others)	100.0	100.0	811.6	822.4

* = '000.

AGRICULTURE

AGRICULTURAL LAND USAGE

('000 dunums or '00 hectares)

	1967-68	1968-69	1969-70
Field Crops	2,774	2,674	2,750
Fruit	877	853	853
Vegetables, potatoes, etc.	321	342	366
Nurseries, flowers, fish ponds, etc.	259	233	232
TOTAL Cultivated Area	4,190	4,102	4,201

PRODUCTION

(metric tons)

	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69
Wheat	100,600	221,600	175,000	155,800
Barley	21,200	56,000	25,000	20,500
Sorghum	13,150	23,850	20,650	16,400
Hay	110,200	137,100	113,000	139,900
Groundnuts	13,450	12,900	10,600	12,400
Cotton Lint	24,950	28,500	33,000	39,200
Cottonseed	40,200	48,000	55,000	61,000
Sugar Beet	282,000	239,300	248,000	214,600
Melons and Pumpkins	83,800	92,000	94,100	119,900
Vegetables	344,000	342,400	381,000	443,000
Potatoes	103,800	93,400	110,000	114,600
Citrus Fruit	906,500	1,082,000	1,265,000	1,178,100
Other Fruit	273,080	309,500	275,000	304,800
Milk (kl.)	393,600	428,700	442,700	456,000

ISRAEL—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

PRODUCTION OF CITRUS FRUIT
(metric tons)

	1966/67	1967/68	1968/69
Grapefruit	226 150	264 770	263 400
Lemons	43 800	42 890	36 800
Oranges Shamouti	625 550	684 580	593 300
Lates	140 400	218 300	228 200
Other varieties	46 100	54 760	56 500
TOTAL	1 082 000	1 265 300	1 178 100

LIVESTOCK
(thousands)

ANIMAL	1966	1967	1968*
Cattle (excl. oxen)	209	221	232
Poultry	8 200	6 950	8 000
Sheep	126	127	196
Goats	29	29	141
Work Animals (incl. oxen)	25	25	25

* Figures include non Jewish farming

FISHERIES
(tons)

1964-65	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68
19 300	22 550	22 950	24 550

INDUSTRIAL OUTPUT
(£ million at 1965 prices)

	1966	1967	1968
Foodstuffs and Beverages	1 575	1 691	1 976
Textiles and Clothing	935	927	1 208
Metals and Machinery	950	889	1 323
Chemicals and Petroleum Products	542	583	760
Diamond Industry	494	480	681
Wood and Wood Products	418	391	360
Transport Equipment	415	408	593
Electrical Equipment	270	232	398
Rubber and Plastics	195	196	292
Printing and Publishing	181	216	251
Leather and Leather Products	167	155	184
Mining and Quarrying	167	157	207
Paper and Cardboard	559	516	748
Miscellaneous	93	103	145
TOTAL	6 955	6 899	9 166

ISRAEL—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

FINANCE

1 Israeli Pound=100 agurot.

I£100=£11.91 sterling=U.S. \$28.60.

I£8.40=£1 sterling; I£3.50=U.S. \$1.

BUDGETS 1969-70

(I£ million)

ORDINARY BUDGET

REVENUE		EXPENDITURE	
Income and Property Taxes . . .	1,990	Defence	2,490
Customs and Excise	1,604	Education and Culture	450
Transfer from Development Budget . . .	1,349	Health	191
		Police	127
		Labour and Housing	104
		Other Ministries	533
		Interest	585
		Subsidies	549
		TOTAL ORDINARY BUDGET (incl. other items)	
TOTAL (incl. other items)	5,958		5,958

NATIONAL ACCOUNTS

(million I£)

	1966	1967	1968
NET DOMESTIC PRODUCT (at Factor Cost)	9,641.5	9,923.0	11,524
of which:			
Agriculture, forestry, fishing . . .	763.3	893.5	903
Manufacturing and mining	2,209.8	2,205.4	2,833
Construction and utilities	788.7	695.8	918
Transport and communications . . .	868.3	889.6	1,061
Finance and insurance	528.5	553.8	699
Ownership of dwellings	664.0	684.6	754
Government and central institutions .	2,055.3	2,218.4	2,364
Trade and services	1,763.6	1,781.9	2,042
Inventory and depreciation adjustments .	-419.9	-345.8	-459
NET DOMESTIC PRODUCT (Adjusted) . . .	9,221.6	9,577.2	11,065
Net factor payment abroad	-81.0	-123.0	-155
NATIONAL INCOME (NET NATIONAL PRODUCT at Factor Cost)	9,140.6	9,454.2	10,910
Indirect taxes less subsidies	1,053	1,086	1,147
Depreciation allowances	1,144	1,240	1,318
Errors and omissions	46	154	242
GROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT (at Market Prices)	11,384	11,934	13,617
Balance of exports and imports of goods and services	4,185	4,420	2,726
AVAILABLE RESOURCES	15,569	16,354	16,343
of which:			
Private consumption expenditure . . .	7,909	8,166	9,289
Government consumption expenditure .	2,643	3,411	4,109
Gross fixed capital formation	2,504	1,868	2,945

ISRAEL—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

MONEY SUPPLY
(million I₴ at year end)

	1967	1968	1969	1970
Currency held by the public	965 8	1 091 2	1 128 9	1 228
Demand deposit at banks	1 572 7	1 807 3	1 841 2	1 939
TOTAL MONEY SUPPLY	2 538 5	2 898 5	2 970 1	3 167

BALANCE OF PAYMENTS—ALL FOREIGN COUNTRIES
(million US \$)

	1969			1970		
	Credit	Debit	Balance	Credit	Debit	Balance
<i>Goods and Services</i>						
Merchandise	746 5	1 152 1	-405 6	792 4	1 274 7	-482 3
Freight and merchandise insurance	79 7	42 2	37 5	107 4	33 8	73 6
Other transport	86 3	141 8	-55 5	94 9	164 6	-69 7
Other insurance	70 0	78 0	-8 0	107 1	110 2	-3 1
Travel	89 6	68 2	21 4	105 1	57 7	47 4
Investment income	72 5	152 3	-79 8	52 7	178 5	-125 8
Other governmental	27 4	423 3	-395 9	28 0	678 2	-650 2
Other services	84 2	91 9	-7 7	98 5	99 0	0 5
Total	1 256 2	2 149 8	-893 6	1 386 1	2 600 7	1 214 6
<i>Transfer Payments</i>	489 1	10 9	478 2	640 7	8 9	631 8
<i>Capital and Monetary Gold</i>						
Private long term	190 4	131 9	58 5	245 9	148 0	97 9
Private short term	148 4	215 4	67 0	201 4	152 6	48 8
Government long term	368 1	213 5	154 6	736 1	175 9	560 2
Government short term	77 1	77 0	0 1	64 7	48 9	15 8
Central monetary institutions	370 5	1 8	368 7	8 5	25 7	-17 2
Other monetary institutions	70 9	117 2	-46 3	168 6	183 7	-15 1
Total	1 225 4	750 8	468 6	1 425 2	734 8	690 4
<i>Errors and Omissions</i>	—	53 2	-53 2	—	122 7	122 7

EXTERNAL TRADE
(000 US \$)

YEAR	IMPORTS	EXPORTS	BALANCE
1964	837 491	372 350	-465 141
1965	832 244	429 591	-402 653
1966	812 000	477 000	-335 000
1967	754 000	518 000	-236 000
1968	1 081 000	603 000	-478 000
1969	1 290 000	684 000	-606 000
1970*	1 241 200	650 800	-590 400

* November

ISRAEL—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

COMMODITIES

('000 U.S. \$)

IMPORTS	1967	1968	1969
Diamonds, rough	137,913	180,528	210,373
Boilers, machinery and parts	49,673	105,420	150,709
Electrical machinery	39,964	60,512	88,903
Iron and steel	40,544	83,074	103,710
Vehicles	25,125	55,252	82,665
Chemicals	50,107	68,517	81,464
Crude oil	54,278	62,715	70,325
Cereals	52,153	64,147	65,778
Textiles and textile articles	35,414	54,546	59,429
Ships, boats, etc.	28,156	55,695	17,437

EXPORTS	1967	1968	1969
Diamonds, worked	193,040	229,253	253,543
Edible fruits	89,649	94,061	97,469
Textiles and textile articles	54,899	62,817	81,122
Fruit and vegetable products	25,752	28,123	35,111
Resins and plastics	14,560	18,559	21,481
Fertilizers	13,681	13,867	14,535
Rubber, including synthetic	9,803	10,992	13,852
Organic chemicals	7,471	9,137	12,309
Mineral products	7,215	8,676	8,737
Plywood	7,818	6,591	6,756

COUNTRIES
('000 U.S. dollars)

	1968		1969		1970	
	IMPORTS	EXPORTS	IMPORTS	EXPORTS	IMPORTS	EXPORTS
Australia and New Zealand	3,066	3,830	3,997	5,638	7,708*	1,841*
Austria	6,289	6,724	11,260	6,616	1,288	570
Belgium-Luxembourg	40,669	40,034	48,351	45,177	4,430	3,332
Canada	8,568	12,271	9,609	16,841	37,582	10,598
Denmark	4,788	4,624	7,179	5,694	944	1,065
Finland	9,531	4,646	10,949	6,648	1,120	622
France	52,827	30,523	52,024	36,905	5,465	3,797
German Federal Republic	114,208	57,935	154,520	63,462	16,446	7,239
Hong Kong	975	25,127	1,950	33,890	179	1,740
Iran	1,171	16,636	2,733	19,846	274	2,907
Italy	54,892	8,456	70,266	11,024	5,633	1,132
Japan	12,562	24,210	18,939	30,416	26,700	2,126
Netherlands	51,474	32,222	71,210	30,961	6,248	5,075
Romania	10,009	10,068	17,391	14,898	2,534	567
South Africa	5,229	5,661	5,790	8,181	795	795
Sweden	14,909	9,480	31,683	11,316	2,555	1,995
Switzerland	36,267	29,821	50,230	33,579	4,253	3,212
Turkey	2,327	3,618	3,344	2,013	319	211
United Kingdom	216,005	70,641	245,417	74,850	17,904	6,281
U.S.A.	245,394	119,645	310,773	135,712	37,582	10,598
Yugoslavia	7,668	11,411	10,753	6,864	1,374	582

* Oceania (unclassified countries).

ISRAEL—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

TRANSPORT

RAILWAYS

	1967-68	1968-69	1969-70
Passengers ('000)	4,056	4,082	4,007
Passenger/km. (millions)	337	342	342
Freight ton/km. (millions)	293	402	435

ROADS 1969
MOTOR VEHICLES

Private Cars	131,312
Trucks, Trailers, Tractors	57,568
Buses	3,982
Taxis	3,209
Motorcycles, Motorscooters	41,496
Other Vehicles	1,913
TOTAL	239,410

SHIPPING
(‘000 tons)

	1968	1969	1970
Cargo Loaded	2,904	2,956	3,811
Cargo Unloaded	3,391	3,556	4,284

Merchant Fleet (1968): 1,619,000 d w t.

CIVIL AVIATION (El Al revenue flights only)
(‘000)

	1967	1968	1969
Kilometres flown	17,680	22,972	26,859
Passenger-km.	1,600,697	2,262,414	2,220,981
Cargo ton-km.	193,000	259,000	284,000
Mail (tons)	524	643	670

TOURISM

NUMBER OF TOURISTS

1966	328,077
1967	291,168
1968	432,000
1969	409,000
1970	486,710

Tourist Accommodation (1968): 13,091 rooms.

COMMUNICATIONS MEDIA
(1967)

Radios licensed	610,000
Televisions licensed	30,500
Telephones	302,946
Daily Newspapers	16

EDUCATION
(1969-70)

	NUMBER OF SCHOOLS	NUMBER OF PUPILS
JEWISH		
Kindergarten	3,235	107,668
Primary Schools	1,235	375,534
Secondary Schools	192	58,479
Vocational Schools	258	49,556
Agricultural Schools	30	7,641
Teachers' Training	53	9,012
Others (Evening, Handicapped)	170	14,325
Higher Education	237	14,326
ARAB		
Kindergarten	177	10,357
Primary Schools	207	65,784
Secondary Schools	18	3,820
Agricultural Schools	1	390
Teachers' Training	1	370
Vocational	16	882
Others	12	355

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics, Jerusalem.

THE CONSTITUTION

There is no written Constitution. In June 1950, the Knesset voted to adopt a State Constitution by evolution over an unspecified period. A number of laws, including the Law of Return (1950), the Nationality Law (1952), the State President (Tenure) Law (1952), the Education Law (1953) and the "Yad-va-Shem" Memorial Law (1953) are considered as incorporated into the State Constitution. Other constitutional laws are: The Law and Administration Ordinance (1948), the Knesset Election Law (1951), the Law of Equal Rights for Women (1951), the Judges Act (1953), the National Service and National Insurance Acts (1953), and the Basic Law (The Knesset) (1958).

The President

The President is elected by the Knesset for five years.

Ten or more Knesset Members may propose a candidate for the Presidency.

Voting will be by secret ballot.

The President may not leave the country without the consent of the Government.

The President may resign by submitting his resignation in writing to the Speaker.

The President may be relieved of his duties by the Knesset for misdemeanour.

The Knesset is entitled to decide by a two-thirds majority that the President is incapacitated owing to ill-health to fulfil his duties permanently.

The Speaker of the Knesset will act for the President when the President leaves the country, or when he cannot perform his duties owing to ill-health.

The Knesset

The Knesset is the parliament of the State. There are 120 members.

It is elected by general, national, direct, equal, secret and proportional elections.

Every Israel national of 18 years or over shall have the right to vote in elections to the Knesset unless a court has deprived him of that right by virtue of any law.

Every Israel national of 21 and over shall have the right to be elected to the Knesset unless a court has deprived him of that right by virtue of any law.

The following shall not be candidates: the President of the State; the two Chief Rabbis; a judge (*shofet*) in office; a judge (*dayan*) of a religious court; the State Comptroller; the Chief of the General Staff of the Defence Army of Israel; rabbis and ministers of other religions in office; senior State employees and senior Army officers of such ranks and in such functions as shall be determined by law.

The term of office of the Knesset shall be four years.

The elections of the Knesset shall take place on the third Tuesday of the month of Cheshven in the year in which the tenure of the outgoing Knesset ends.

Election day shall be a day of rest, but transport and other public services shall function normally.

Results of the elections shall be published within fourteen days.

The Knesset shall elect from among its members a Chairman and Vice-Chairman.

The Knesset shall elect from among its members permanent committees, and may elect committees for specific matters.

The Knesset may appoint commissions of inquiry to investigate matters designated by the Knesset.

The Knesset shall hold two sessions a year; one of them shall open within four weeks after the Feast of the Tabernacles, the other within four weeks after Independence Day; the aggregate duration of the two sessions shall not be less than eight months.

The outgoing Knesset shall continue to hold office until the convening of the incoming Knesset.

The members of the Knesset shall receive a remuneration as provided by law.

The Government

The Government shall tender its resignation to the President immediately after his election, but shall continue with its duties until the formation of a new Government.

After consultation with representatives of the parties in the Knesset, the President shall charge one of the Members with the formation of a Government.

The Government shall be composed of a Prime Minister and a number of Ministers from among the Knesset Members or from outside the Knesset.

After it has been chosen, the Government shall appear before the Knesset and shall be considered as formed after having received a vote of confidence.

Within seven days of receiving a vote of confidence, the Prime Minister and the other Ministers shall swear allegiance to the State of Israel and its Laws and undertake to carry out the decisions of the Knesset.

THE GOVERNMENT

HEAD OF THE STATE

President of the State of Israel: ZALMAN SHAZAR (re elected March 1968)

THE CABINET

(April 1971)

Prime Minister: Mrs. GOLDA MEIR (Labour Party)
 Deputy Prime Minister and Minister for Education and Culture: YIGAL ALLON (Labour Party)
 Foreign Minister: ABBA EBAN (Labour Party)
 Minister of Defence: Gen. MOSHE DAYAN (Labour Party)
 Minister of Social Welfare: MIKHAIL HAZANI (Nat. Religious Party)
 Minister of Housing: ZE'EV SHAREF (Labour Party)
 Minister of Agriculture: HAIM GVIATI (Labour Party)
 Minister of Religious Affairs: ZERAH WARHAFTIG (Nat. Religious Party)
 Minister of Labour: JOSEPH A. ALMOGI (Labour Party)

Minister of Justice: YA'ACOV SRINSHON SHAPIRO (Labour Party)
 Minister of Finance, Commerce and Industry: PINHAS SAPIR (Labour Party)
 Minister of the Interior: SHLOMO YOSIF BURG
 Minister of Police: SHLOMO HELLER (Labour Party)
 Minister of Health: VICTOR SHEM TOV (Mapam)
 Minister of Posts and Transport and Communications: SHIMON PERES
 Minister of Tourism: MOSHE KOL (Independent Liberal)
 Minister of Immigrant Absorption: NATHAN PELED (Mapam)
 Ministers without Portfolio: ISRAEL GALILI (Labour Party), ARYEH L. DULTZIN (Liberal)

DIPLOMATIC REPRESENTATION

REPRESENTATIVES OF ISRAEL ABROAD

(A) Ambassador, (M) Minister, (CA) Chargé d'Affaires

Argentina: ELIEZER DORON Buenos Aires (A)
 Australia: MOSHE ERELL Canberra (A) (also accredited to New Zealand)
 Austria: ZE'EV SHEK Vienna (A)
 Belgium: MOSHE ALON Brussels (A) (also accredited to Luxembourg)
 Bolivia: (see Peru)
 Brazil: ITZHAK HARKAVI Rio de Janeiro (A)
 Burma: ARIEH LILAN Rangoon (A)
 Cambodia: EMMANUEL GALBAR
 Cameroon: SHAUL LEVIN Yaoundé (A)
 Canada: EPHRAIM EVRON Ottawa (A)
 Central African Republic: ITZHAK MICHAELS Bangui (A)
 Chad: OVADIA SOFFER (A)
 Chile: DOV SATTAR, Santiago (A)
 Colombia: VICTOR ELIACHAR Bogotá (A)
 Congo Republic (Brazzaville): NARUM GUERSHOMKE, Brazzaville (A)
 Congo Democratic Republic: SHIMON MORATT, Kinshasa (A)
 Costa Rica: JEONATHAN PRATO San José (A) (also accredited to Nicaragua)
 Cuba: YAIR BEHAR, Havana (M)
 Cyprus: SHAUL BAR HAIM Nicosia (A)
 Dahomey: MORDECHAI DRORY, Cotonou (A)
 Denmark: MOSHE LESHEM Copenhagen (A)
 Dominican Republic: ALEXANDER DOTAN, Santo Domingo (A)
 Ecuador: GABRIEL DORON Quito (A)
 El Salvador: (see Guatemala)
 Ethiopia: URIEL LUBRANI Addis Ababa (A)
 Finland: LEO SAVIT, Helsinki (A)
 France: ASHER BEN NATHAN Paris (A)
 Gabon: DAVID EPHRAI Labreville (A)

German Federal Republic: ELIASHIV BEN HORIN, Bonn (A)
 Ghana: AVRAHAM COHEN, Accra (A)
 Greece: YEHUDA GAULAN Athens (A)
 Guatemala: MOSHE TOV Guatemala City (A) (also accredited to El Salvador and Honduras)
 Haiti: (see Panama)
 Honduras: (see Guatemala)
 Iceland: (see Norway)
 Italy: AMIEL E. NAJAR, Rome (A)
 Ivory Coast: ITZHAK MINERBI, Abidjan (A)
 Japan: MOSHE BARTUR Tokyo (A) (also accredited to Republic of Korea)
 Kenya: REUVEN DAFNI Nairobi (A)
 Korea, Republic of: YEHUDA HORAN (M)
 Laos: (see Thailand)
 Liberia: PINCHAS RODAN, Monrovia (A)
 Luxembourg: (see Belgium)
 Madagascar: HAIM RAPHAEL, Tananarive (M)
 Malawi: SHAUL BEN HAIM Blantyre (A)
 Mali: MEIR SHAMIR Bamako (A)
 Mexico: ABRAHAM DARON, Mexico City (A)
 Nepal: AVSHALOM CASPI Khatmandu (A)
 Netherlands: SHIMSHON ARAD The Hague (A)
 New Zealand: (see Australia)
 Nicaragua: (see Costa Rica)
 Niger: YEROSHUA RASH Niamey (A)
 Nigeria: YISSAKHAR BEN-YAACOV, Lagos (A)
 Norway: AVIGDAR DAGAN, Oslo (A) (also accredited to Iceland)
 Panama: YEHIEL ILSAR Panama City (A) (also accredited to Haiti)
 Paraguay: BENJAMIN VARON (A)

ISRAEL—(DIPLOMATIC REPRESENTATION)

Peru: MOSHE YUVAL, Lima (A) (also accred. to Bolivia).
Philippines: YAACOV AVNON, Manila (A).
Portugal: REUVEN NALL (M).
Romania: RAFAEL BEN SHALOM, Bucharest (A).
Senegal: MOSHE LIBA, Dakar (A).
Sierra Leone: MORDECHAI LADOR, Freetown (A).
Singapore: HAGAY DIKAN (A).
South Africa: M. T. MICHAEL (M).
Sweden: MESHULAM VARON, Stockholm (A).
Switzerland: ARIEH LEVAVI, Berne (A).
Tanzania: (vacant), Dar es Salaam (A).
Thailand: (vacant), Bangkok (A) (also accred. to Chad).
Togo: YOEL SHER, Lomé (A).
Trinidad and Tobago: (see Venezuela).

Turkey: DANIEL LAOR, Ankara (M).
Uganda: AHARON OFRI, Kampala (A).
United Kingdom: MICHAEL COMAY, London (A).
U.S.A.: YITZHAK RABIN, Washington (A).
Upper Volta: YAACOV DECKEL, Ouagadougou (A).
Uruguay: MEIR SHAHAM, Montevideo (A) (also accred to Paraguay).
Venezuela: Y. DORON, Caracas (A) (also accred. to Trinidad and Tobago and Barbados).
Zambia: MATITAH LI DAGAN, Lusaka (A).

United Nations: YOSEPH TEKOA H, New York (Permanent Representative); M. R. KEDRON, Geneva (A).
European Communities: MOSHE ALON, Brussels (A).

EMBASSIES AND LEGATIONS ACCREDITED TO ISRAEL

(E) Embassy; (L) Legation.

Argentina: 62 Yehuda Halevi St., Tel-Aviv (E); *Ambassador:* DR. EDUARDO PIZARRO JONES.
Australia: 145 Hayarkon St., Tel-Aviv (E); *Ambassador:* WILLIAM GEORGE ALEXANDER LANDALE.
Austria: 11 Herman Cohen St., Tel-Aviv (E); *Ambassador:* DR. ARTHUR AGSTNER.
Belgium: 76 Eben Gevirol St., Tel-Aviv (E); *Ambassador:* GEORGES CASSIERS.
Bolivia: 5 Ha'Keshet St., Jerusalem (E); *Chargé d'Affaires:* COL. EDUARDO RIVIERA.
Brazil: 57 Sderoth Hen, Tel-Aviv (E); *Ambassador:* JOSÉ OSWALDO DE MEIRA PENNA.
Burma: 11 Hagilgal St., Ramat Gan (E); *Ambassador:* U THEIN DOKE.
Canada: 84 Hashmonayim St., Tel-Aviv (E); *Ambassador:* CHARLES MCGAUGHEY.
Central African Republic: 22 Keren Hayesod St., Jerusalem (E); *Ambassador:* ALBERT SATO.
Chile: 10 Brenner St., Jerusalem (E); *Ambassador:* EUGENIO CRUZ DONOSO.
Colombia: 34 Keren Hayesod St., Jerusalem (E); *Chargé d'Affaires:* LUIS SANIN AGUIRRE.
Congo, Democratic Republic: 23 Hovevei Zion St., Jerusalem (E); *Chargé d'Affaires:* J. L. BOTETI.
Congo, Republic: 18 Balfour St., Jerusalem (E); *Ambassador:* LUCIEN MOUMBOU.
Costa Rica: P.O.B. 1316, Kings Hotel, Jerusalem (E); *Chargé d'Affaires:* JOSÉ ESCALANTE ROJAS.
Cuba: Villa Antil, Herzliya-Pituah (L); *Minister:* RICARDO SUBIRANO Y LOBO.
Dahomey: (see Ivory Coast).
Denmark: 23 Buei Moshe St., Tel-Aviv (E); *Ambassador:* SIGVALD ALEXANDER KRISTENSEN.
Dominican Republic: 5 Bustenai St., Jerusalem (E); *Chargé d'Affaires:* ADOLFO RAFAEL CAMARENA DIDIEZ.
Ecuador: 37 Jabotinsky St., Jerusalem (E); *Chargé d'Affaires:* LUIS ENRIQUE JARRAMILLO.
El Salvador: Rome, Italy (E).
Finland: 224 Hayarkon St., Tel-Aviv (E); *Ambassador:* A. VON HEIROTH.
France: 112 Tayeeth Herbert Samuel, Tel-Aviv (E); *Ambassador:* FRANCIS HURÉ.

Gabon: 8 Shoshana St., Kiryat Moshe, Jerusalem (E); *Ambassador:* ARISTIDE ISSEMBE.
Germany (Federal Republic of): 16 Sutin St., Tel-Aviv (E); *Ambassador:* KARL HERMANN KNOKE.
Ghana: 37 Brandeis St., Tel-Aviv (E); *Ambassador:* S. J. A. OTU.
Greece: 31 Rachel Imenu St., Jerusalem (L); *Diplomatic Representative:* BASILE ELEFThERIADES.
Guatemala: 3 Azza St., Jerusalem (E); *Ambassador:* MISS FRANCISCA FERNANDEZ HALL (also accred. to Greece).
Honduras: Jerusalem (E).
Iceland: Oslo, Norway (E).
Italy: 24 Hubermann St., Tel-Aviv (E); *Ambassador:* GIUSEPPE WALTER MACCOTTA.
Ivory Coast: 14 Ramban St., Jerusalem (E); *Ambassador:* ANOMA KANIE (also accred. to Cyprus).
Japan: 10 Huberman St., Tel-Aviv (E); *Ambassador:* SHIGEZO YOSHIKAWA.
Kenya: Addis Ababa, Ethiopia (E).
Korea: Rome, Italy (E).
Laos: Paris, France (E).
Liberia: 5 Maneh St., Tel-Aviv (E); *Ambassador:* ERNEST JEROME YANCY.
Malagasy Republic: 1 Eli Cohen St., Jerusalem; *Chargé d'Affaires:* JACQUES RAZAFIARISON.
Malawi: Addis Ababa, Ethiopia (E).
Malta: Rome, Italy (E).
Mexico: 22 Huberman St., Tel-Aviv (E); *Ambassador:* JOAQUIN BERNOL Y GARCIA PIMENTEL.
Nepal: Paris, France (E).
Netherlands: Beth Yoel, 33 Yaffo St., Jerusalem (E); *Ambassador:* BARON OSWALD FRANÇOIS BENTINCK VAN SCHOONHETEN.
Niger: (see Ivory Coast).
Norway: 21 Hess St., Tel-Aviv (E); *Ambassador:* KAARE INGSTEAD (also accred. to Cyprus).
Panama: 6 Magnus Square, Jerusalem (E); *Ambassador:* ELIO V. ORTIZ.
Peru: 19 Weizmann St., Tel-Aviv (E); *Ambassador:* FELIPE PORTOCARRERO OLAVE.

ISRAEL—(DIPLOMATIC REPRESENTATION, PARLIAMENT)

Philippines: 12 Smulansky St., Tel Aviv (E), *Ambassador*
ENRIQUE M. GARCIA

Romania: 24 Adam Hachohen St., Tel Aviv (E), *Ambassa-*
dor VALERIU GEORGESCU

Sweden: 193 Hayarkon St., Tel Aviv (E), *Ambassador*
BO L. SIEGBAHL

Switzerland: 228 Hayarkon St., Tel Aviv (E), *Ambassador*
HANSJOERG HESS (also accred. to Cyprus)

Thailand: Rome Italy (E)

Turkey: 20 Baluk St., Tel Aviv (L); *Chargé d'Affaires*
METIN AKBU.

United Kingdom: 192 Hayarkon St., Tel Aviv (E), *Ambas-*
sador JOHN BARNES

U.S.A.: 71 Hayarkon St., Tel Aviv (E), *Ambassador*
WALWORTH BARBOUR

Upper Volta: (see Ivory Coast)

Uruguay: Gad Building Hasoreg St., Jerusalem (E) *Am-*
bassador YAMANDU LAGUARDA

Venezuela: 28 Rachel Imenu St., Jerusalem (E), *Ambassa-*
dor NAPOLEON GIMÉNEZ

Israel also has diplomatic relations with Jamaica, Rwanda and Singapore

PARLIAMENT

Speaker of the Knesset: REUVEN BARKAT

The state of the parties in the 7th Knesset following the General Election of October 1969 was as follows

PARTY	VOTES	PERCENTAGE	SEATS
Labour Mapam Alignment	632 035	46.22	56
Herut Liberal Bloc	296 294	21.67	26
National Religious Party	133 238	9.74	12
Arab Lists (affiliated to Labour)	47 989	3.51	4
National List	42 654	3.11	4
Independent Liberals	43 933	3.21	4
Agudat Israel	44 002	3.22	4
New Communist List	38 827	2.84	3
Poalei Agudat Israel	24 968	1.83	2
Ha'olam Hazeh	16 853	1.23	2
Free Centre	16 393	1.20	2
Israel Communist Party	15 712	1.15	1

There was an 82 per cent poll from the 1,758,685 people eligible to vote in the 1969 elections. The Knesset is elected by proportional representation by universal suffrage for four years.

POLITICAL PARTIES

Israel Labour Party: P.O.B. 36, Tel-Aviv; formed in 1968 as a merger of the three former Labour groups, Mapai, Rafi and Achdut Ha'avoda; Zionist Social Democratic party, membership 300,000, including most of Kibbutz (collective) and Moshav (co-operative) villages. In 1969 elections, in alignment with another Zionist Socialist party, Mapam, gained 65.17% in Histadrut (General Federation of Labour) and, together with affiliated Arab and Druze factions, 60 out of 120 Knesset (Parliament) seats. Holds all central cabinet positions and heads almost all important municipalities.

Gahal (the Herut Movement and Liberal Party Bloc): formed in 1965 as the result of an agreement between:

The Herut (Freedom) Movement: P.O.B. 23062, Tel-Aviv; was founded in 1948 by the Irgun Zvai Leumi, which played an activist part in the underground struggle against the British in the closing years of the Mandate.

The Herut Party strives to extend the present frontiers of Israel to its historic boundaries extending on both sides of the Jordan. The party stands for private initiative; 61,000 mems. Founder and Chair. MENACHEM BEGIN, M.K.

The Liberal Party of Israel: 68 Ibn Gvirol St., Tel-Aviv; f. 1961 by merger of the General Zionist and Progressive Parties; "Includes all strata of Israel's society. Its basic principles are those of the liberal philosophy. It strives for: national unity, political and economic consolidation of the state, safeguarding its security and integrity; unceasing efforts to achieve a durable peace with our neighbours; a community based on democracy and social justice; insuring freedom of the individual and his liberties; stimulation of private enterprise; reform of the tax system; narrowing the social and educational gap between the various strata of the nation; extensive immigration and complete material and social integration of newcomers; equal rights and chances for all citizens of the state."

National Religious Party: f. 1956; stands for strict adherence to Jewish religion and tradition, and strives to achieve the application of the religious precepts of Judaism in everyday life. It is also endeavouring to establish the constitution of Israel on Jewish religious law.

The United Workers' Party—Mapam (*Mifletet Hapoalim Hameuchedet*): P.O. Box 1777, Tel-Aviv; f. January 1948.

Mapam is a left-wing Socialist-Zionist party, participating in the coalition government; membership: urban workers, professionals, 75 *Kibbutzim*; aims: public-owned enterprise, guaranteed real wages, progressive taxation, independence of labour movement from state control,

large-scale Jewish immigration equal rights for Arabs, neutralist foreign policy, atomic demilitarization of Israel-Arab region, a negotiated Israel-Arab peace; branches in North and South America, Europe and Australia; in January 1969 formed an "alignment" with the Israel Labour Party (see above).

The Kibbutz Artzi Federation of collective settlements (affiliated with Mapam) maintains *Hashomer Hatzair*, which educates Jewish youth to pioneer life in Israel, and operates *Sifriat Poalim* (*The Workers' Library*) and *Hadfas Hehadash* (*The New Press*).

Daily newspaper *Al Hamishmar*; weeklies in Arabic, Yiddish, Bulgarian, Persian and Romanian.

Gen. Sec. MEIR YAARI; Political Sec. NAPHTALI FEDER; Organizing Sec. NAPHTALI BEN-MOSHE; International Sec. PERETZ MERHAV.

Independent Liberal Party: set up in 1965 by 7 Liberal Party Knesset members after the formation of the Herut Movement and Liberal Party Bloc; Pres. PINHAS ROSEN.

Ha'olam Hazeh (New Force): 12 Carlebach St., Tel-Aviv; f. 1965; supports an Israeli-Arab federation, separation of religion and state, civil-rights and freedom of speech and the press; Pres. URI AVNERY.

Communist Party of Israel: P.O. Box 1843, Tel-Aviv; f. 1919; previously known as the Palestine Communist Party; anti-Soviet; aims include non-alignment and independence for Israel, and for peace with the Arab States based on mutual recognition of the just national rights of Israeli and Arab peoples. Publishes the Hebrew daily *Kol Haam* and Arabic *Sout el Shaab* (monthly). Other weeklies in Yiddish, Bulgarian, Romanian, Hungarian; monthly in English.

New Communist List of Israel: broke away from the *Communist Party of Israel* in 1965.

The National List: f. 1969 by former members of Rafi.

Agudat Israel and Poalei Agudat Israel are also Orthodox Judaist parties, the membership of the Poalei Agudat Israel being drawn largely from wage-earners.

The official organ of Agudat Israel is the daily *Hamodia*; that of the Poalei Agudat Israel is the daily *Shearim*.

Pres. of Poalei Agudat Israel Dr. K. KAHANA.

Co-operation and Fraternity Party: an Arab party associated with the *Mapai* party; has two seats in the 7th Knesset.

Progress and Development Party: an Arab party associated with the *Mapai* party; has two seats in the 7th Knesset.

THE JEWISH AGENCY

P O B 92, Jerusalem

Chairman, Executive Committee ARYZ LOUIS PINCUS
Director General MOSHE RIVLIN

History

Article Four of the League of Nations Mandate provided for the establishment of a Jewish Agency to co-operate with the administration in the economic and social development of the Jewish national home. The Zionist Organisation served as this agency until 1929 when the Jewish Agency was finally constituted with the admission of non Zionists as well as Zionists to its Council. The Zionist Congress of 1925 bound the Agency to the following inviolable principles: a continuous increase in the volume of Jewish immigration; the recovery of the land as Jewish public property; agricultural colonisation based on Jewish labour; and the promotion of the Hebrew language and Hebrew culture.

When the State of Israel was established in 1948 the provisional Government was formed from the members of the Executive of the Va ad Leumi (the representative organ of Palestinian Jewry) and members of the Jewish Agency Executive resident in Palestine at the time. The division of tasks between the Jewish Agency and the Government was defined in a law of 1952 and in a Covenant entered into in 1954.

In March 1970 the Executive of the Jewish Agency was authorized to enter into agreements with the United Israel Inc. representing the American Jewish Community and other appropriate fund raising organisations through

out the world for the purpose of assuring the broadest representation of world Jewry in carrying out the work of the Jewish Agency.

Functions

Under the Covenant the functions of the Jewish Agency included the promotion of interest in and the organization of emigration to Israel of Jews abroad; the transportation of immigrants and their belongings to Israel; assistance in absorbing the immigrants in Israel and participation in the cost care of youth and children among the immigrants; agricultural settlement; land amelioration and afforestation by the Jewish National Fund; participation in development projects and the raising of funds to finance all these activities.

Revenue and Expenditure

The Jewish Agency's chief source of revenue are the voluntary fund raising campaigns throughout the world. Approximately two thirds of the campaign income is derived from the U I A Inc. in the United States and the rest from campaigns conducted under the auspices of or in cooperation with the Foundation Fund (Keren Hayesod). The Agency also received 18 per cent of German Reparations from 1952-66.

Expenditure abroad apart from debt service includes transport of immigrants; aid to Jewish education and cultural activities as well as purchases of equipment and stocks for the new settlements established by the Agency.

Budget (1969-70) IL£1 154 927 000 (1970-71) IL£1 338 572 000

JUDICIAL SYSTEM

The law of Israel is composed of Ottoman law, British law, Palestine law, applicable in Palestine on May 14th, 1948, when the independence of the State of Israel was declared, the substance of the common law and doctrines of equity in force in England, as modified to suit local conditions, and religious law of the various recognized religious communities as regards matters of personal status, in so far as there is nothing in any of the said laws repugnant to Israeli legislation and subject to such modifications as may have resulted from the establishment of the State of Israel and its authorities, and also of the laws enacted by the Israeli legislature of which there are already over 1,000. The pre-1948 law is increasingly being replaced by original local legislation.

CIVIL COURTS

The Supreme Court is the highest Civil Court in Israel. It has jurisdiction as an Appellate Court from the District Courts in all matters, both civil and criminal (sitting as a Court of Civil Appeal or as a Court of Criminal Appeal), and as a Court of First Instance (sitting as a High Court of Justice) in matters in which it considers it necessary to grant relief in the interests of justice and which are not within the jurisdiction of any other court or tribunal. This includes applications for orders in the nature of *habeas corpus*, *mandamus*, prohibition and *certiorari*, and enables the court to supervise the legality of acts of administrative authorities of all kinds.

President of the Supreme Court: S. AGRANAT.

Permanent Deputy President of the Supreme Court: M. SILBERG.

Justices of the Supreme Court: Y. SUSSMAN, M. LANDAU, Z. BERINSON, A. WITKON, H. COHN, E. M. MANNY, I. KISTER.

The District Courts: Jerusalem, Tel-Aviv-Jaffa, Haifa, Beersheba. They have unlimited jurisdiction as Courts of First Instance in all civil and criminal matters not within the jurisdiction of a Magistrates' Court, all matters not within the exclusive jurisdiction of any other Court or tribunal, and matters within the concurrent jurisdiction of any other Court or tribunal so long as such Court or tribunal does not deal with them, and as an Appellate Court in appeals from judgments and decisions of Magistrates' Courts and judgments of Municipal Courts and various administrative tribunals.

Magistrates' Courts: There are 25 Magistrates' Courts, having criminal jurisdiction to try contraventions and misdemeanours, and civil jurisdiction to try actions concerning possession or use of immovable property, or the partition thereof, and other civil actions where the amount of the claim, or the value of the subject-matter, does not exceed I£ 3,000.

Municipal Courts: There are 5 Municipal Courts, having criminal jurisdiction over any offences against municipal regulations and by-laws and certain other offences, such as town planning offences, committed within the municipal area.

RELIGIOUS COURTS

The Religious Courts are the Courts of the recognized religious communities. They are competent in certain defined matters of personal status concerning members of their community. Where any action of personal status involves persons of different religious communities the President of the Supreme Court will decide which Court shall have jurisdiction. Whenever a question arises as to whether or not a case is one of personal status within the exclusive jurisdiction of a Religious Court, the matter must be referred to a Special Tribunal composed of two Justices of the Supreme Court and the President of the highest court of the religious community concerned in Israel.

The judgments of the Religious Courts are executed by the process and offices of the Civil Courts.

Jewish Rabbinical Courts: These Courts have exclusive jurisdiction in matters of marriage and divorce of Jews in Israel who are Israeli citizens or residents. In all other matters of personal status they have concurrent jurisdiction with the District Courts with the consent of all parties concerned.

Muslim Religious Courts: These Courts have exclusive jurisdiction in matters of marriage and divorce of Muslims who are not foreigners, or who are foreigners subject by their national law to the jurisdiction of Muslim Religious Courts in such matters. In all other matters of personal status they have concurrent jurisdiction with the District Courts with the consent of all parties concerned.

Christian Religious Courts: The Courts of the recognized Christian communities have exclusive jurisdiction in matters of marriage and divorce of members of their communities who are not foreigners. In all other matters of personal status they have concurrent jurisdiction with the District Courts with the consent of all parties concerned. But neither these Courts nor the Civil Courts have jurisdiction to dissolve the marriage of a foreign subject.

Druze Courts: These Courts, established in 1963, have exclusive jurisdiction in matters of marriage and divorce of Druze in Israel, who are Israeli citizens or residents, and concurrent jurisdiction with the District Courts in all other matters of personal status of Druze with the consent of all parties concerned.

MILITARY COURTS

Courts-Martial: A Court-Martial is competent to try a soldier within the meaning of the Military Justice Law, 1955, who has committed an act constituting a military offence, without prejudice to the power of any other Court in the State to try him for that act if it constitutes an offence under any other law. A Court-Martial is also competent to try a soldier for any offence which is not a military offence, but the Attorney General may order that he be tried by another Court if he is of the opinion that the offence was not committed within the framework of the Army or in consequence of the accused's belonging to the Army.

RELIGION

JUDAISM

Judaism the religion evolved and followed by the Jews is the faith of the great majority of the population although certain features of Jewish traditional ritual and observance are less rigidly maintained by sections of the community than in European Jewish life of former centuries. Its basis is a belief in an ethical monotheism.

There are two main Jewish communities the Ashkenazim and the Sephardim. The former are the Jews from Eastern Central or Northern Europe while the latter originate from the Balkan countries North Africa and the Middle East. Although they have separate synagogues and differ somewhat in their ritual and pronunciation of Hebrew there is no doctrinal distinction. The prevailing influence is that of the Ashkenazim Jews who are more modern and westernized but the recent Hebrew revival has been based on the Sephardi pronunciation of the ancient Hebrew tongue.

The supreme religious authority is vested in the Chief Rabbinate which consists of the Ashkenazi and Sephardi Chief Rabbis and the Supreme Rabbinical Council. It makes decisions on interpretation of the Jewish law and supervises the Rabbinical Courts. There are 8 regional Rabbinical Courts and a Rabbinical Court of Appeal presided over by the two Chief Rabbis.

According to the Rabbinical Courts Jurisdiction Law of 1953 marriage and divorce among Jews in Israel are exclusively within the jurisdiction of the Rabbinical Courts. Provided that all the parties concerned agree other matters of personal status can also be decided by the Rabbinical Courts.

There are 135 Religious Councils, which maintain religious services and supply religious needs and about 350 religious committees with similar functions in small settlements. Their expenses are borne jointly by the State and the local authorities. The Religious Councils are under the administrative control of the Ministry of Religious Affairs. In all matters of religion the Religious Councils are subject to the authority of the Chief Rabbinate. There are 365 officially appointed rabbis. The total number of synagogues is about 4,000.

Head of the Ashkenazi Community The Very Rev. The Chief Rabbi **ISRAH UNTERMYAN** (elected March 1964)

Head of the Chief Rabbinate of Israel, President of the Rabbinical Supreme Court and Head of the Sephardic Community The Very Rev. The Chief Rabbi **YITZCHAK NISSIM** Balfour St. 7 Jerusalem

Two Jewish sects still loyal to their distinctive customs are

The Karaites, a sect which recognizes only the Jewish written law and not the oral law of the Mishna and Talmud. The community of about 4,500 many of whom live in or near Haifa has been augmented by immigration from Egypt.

The Samaritans, an ancient sect mentioned in 2 Kings xvii 24. They recognize only the Torah and the Book of Joshua. The community in Israel numbers about 100 they live in Holon where a Samaritan synagogue is now being built. Their High Priest lives in Nablus near Mt. Gerizim, which is sacred to the Samaritans.

ISLAM

The Muslims in Israel are in the main Sunnis and are divided among the four rites of the Sunni school of Muslim thought: the Shafii the Hanbali the Hanafi and the Maliki. Before June 1967 they numbered approximately 175,000.

CHRISTIAN COMMUNITIES

The Greek Catholic Church, P.O.B. 279 Haifa numbers about 35,000 and Haifa is the seat of the Archbishop of Acre Haifa Nazareth and all Galilee Archbishop **JOSEPH M. RAYA** publ. *Ar Rabita* (Arabic monthly circ. 4,000).

The Greek Orthodox Church in Israel has approximately 16,000 members. The Patriarch of Jerusalem is His Beatitude **BENEDICTOS**.

The Latin (Roman Catholic) Church has about 7,000 native members in Israel plus about 3,000 Polish and Hungarian Catholic refugees. The Latin Patriarch of Jerusalem is His Beatitude **ALBERTO GORI**.

The Maronite Community, with approximately 3,000 members has communal centres in Haifa Nazareth and Jaffa. The Maronite Patriarch resides in the Lebanon.

The Evangelical Episcopal Church in Israel, which belongs to the Anglican Communion has 1,000 members and was officially recognised by Israel in April 1970. It comes under the jurisdiction of the Archbishop in Jerusalem (The Most Rev. **GEORGE APPLETON** St. George's Close Jerusalem).

Other denominations include the *Armenian Church* (900 members) the *Coptic Church* (700 members) the *Russian Orthodox Church* which maintains an Ecclesiastical Mission the *Ethiopian Church* and the *Baptist Lutheran and Presbyterian Churches*.

THE PRESS

With its broad range of political representation and multilingual news coverage the Israeli Press may fairly claim to be one of the most vigorous in the Middle East. Most legislation relating to the press dates from before the founding of the state. The printing and publication of newspapers is governed by the Press Ordinance of 1933, which is carried out by the Minister of the Interior. There is no political censorship though a very close control is exercised over matters affecting public security. The Censorship Laws, which originated in the British emergency regulations of 1945, require all articles dealing with military information and matters of state security to be approved by the military censorship authority, before which the press is represented by the Committee of Editors. If a paper edited by a member of the Committee infringes the censorship regulations, instead of being taken to court the matter is dealt with by a three-man censorship committee composed of one army officer, one editor and the president of the Bar Association. Any editor may lodge an immediate appeal with this committee which, by deciding against the censors, may authorize publication. The Editors' Committee also meets to hear background information from Cabinet members and other leading figures on major national issues and is at times a vehicle for mild government pressure when informal appeals may be made to a pressman to play down a delicate item of news in the national interest.

In July 1965 a Defamation Law was passed to protect organized bodies and communities as well as individuals. Printers, newsvendors and the person supplying defamatory information became liable to prosecution; and the defence of good faith must now demonstrate both the truth and the public interest of the point at issue.

There are twenty-four morning daily papers and two appearing at noon. Seventeen, including these two, are in Hebrew and one each in nine other languages including Arabic, English, French, Polish, Yiddish, Hungarian and German. The total daily circulation is 500,000-600,000 copies, or twenty-one papers per hundred people, although most citizens read more than one daily paper.

Tel-Aviv is the main publishing centre, only three dailies being published in Jerusalem. Largely for economic reasons there has developed no local press away from these cities; hence all papers regard themselves as national. Friday editions, Sabbath eve, are increased to up to twice the normal size by special weekend supplements, and experience a considerable rise in circulation. No newspapers appear on Saturday.

National and international news, politics and finance in particular, receive very good coverage; local news has received growing attention since the establishment in 1950 of ITIM, the national news agency. Though there is no lack of journalistic vitality, the press is characterized by restraint in the presentation and appearance of material; photographs are few, sensationalism rare. There is no tabloid press.

The venerable *Ha'aretz* and the newly established *Hayom* are politically independent. Otherwise except for the sports and financial papers all Hebrew morning dailies have strong political or religious affiliations. *Lamerhav* is affiliated to Achdut Ha'avoda, *Al Hamishmar* to Mapam, *Hatzofeh* to the Religious National Party—World Mizrahi. *Davar* is the long-established organ of the Histadrut. Mapai publishes the weekly *Hapoel Hatzair* but no daily. Although the revenue from advertisements is increasing,

very few dailies are economically self-supporting; most depend on subsidies from political parties, religious organizations or public funds. The limiting effect on freedom of commentary entailed by this party press system has provoked repeated criticism.

The Jerusalem Arabic daily *Al Anba* has a small circulation (8,000) but an increasing number of Israeli Arabs are now reading Hebrew dailies. A new daily, *Al Quds*, was founded in 1968 for Arabs in Jerusalem and the West Bank; the small indigenous press of occupied Jordan has largely ceased publication or transferred operations to Amman.

There are 400 other newspapers and magazines including 50 weekly and 150 fortnightly; 260 of them are in Hebrew, the remainder in eleven other languages.

The most influential and respected dailies, for both quality of news coverage and commentary, are *Ha'aretz*, characterized by its sober but proudly independent editorials, and the Union paper, *Davar*, which frequently has articles by government figures. With circulations of 50,000 and 40,000 respectively these are the widest read of the morning papers, exceeded only by the popular afternoon press, *Ma'ariv* (160,000) and *Yediot Aharonot* (85,000), whose circulations rise on Fridays to 210,000 and 102,000. The *Jerusalem Post* (27,000) gives detailed and sound news coverage in English.

The Israeli Press Council, established in 1963, deals with matters of common interest to the Press such as drafting the recently published code of professional ethics which is binding on all journalists.

The Daily Newspaper Publishers' Association represents publishers in negotiations with official and public bodies, negotiates contracts with employees and purchases and distributes newsprint, of which Israel now manufactures 75 per cent of her needs.

DAILIES

Al-Anba: P.O.B. 428, Hachavazelet St., Jerusalem; f. 1968; published by Jerusalem Publications Ltd.; Editor YA'ACOV HAZMA; circ. 8,000.

Al Hamishmar (*The Guardian*): Hamishmar House, 4 Ben Avigdor St., Tel-Aviv; f. 1943; morning; organ of the United Worker's Party (Mapam); Editor YA'AKOV AMIR; circ. 25,000.

Al Quds (*Jerusalem*): Jerusalem; f. 1968; Arabic; Editor ABU ZALAF.

Ghadshot Hasport: Tushia St., 2, P.O.B. 20011, Tel-Aviv; f. 1954; sports; independent; circ. 30,000.

Davar (*The Word*): P.O.B. 199, 45 Sheinkin St., Tel-Aviv; f. 1925; morning; official organ of the General Federation of Labour (Histadrut); Editor HANNAH ZEMER; circ. 50,000.

Ha'aretz (*The Land*): 56 Mazeh St., Tel-Aviv; f. 1918; morning; Liberal, independent; Editor GERSHON G. SCHOCKEN; circ. 50,000 (week-days), 70,000 (week-ends).

Hamodia: Kikar Hacheruth, P.O.B. 1306, Jerusalem; organ of World Agudats Israel Org.; morning; Editor YEHUDA L. LEVIN; circ. 8,000.

Hatzofeh: 66 Hamasger St., Tel-Aviv; f. 1938; morning; organ of the National Religious Front; Editor S. DANIEL; circ. 11,000.

- L'Information d'Israel** 52 Harakeveth St. Tel Aviv f 1957 supports Israel Labour Party daily French Editor NATHANIEL GRYN circ 8 000 also overseas weekly selection circ. 10 000
- Israelski Far Tribuna** 113 Givat Herzl St. Tel Aviv became daily in 1959 Bulgarian
- Jerusalem Post** (formerly *Palestine Post*) POB 81 Hachavazelet St. Jerusalem f 1932 morning daily except Saturdays independent English Editor TUD R. LURIE circ. 26 000 (weekdays) 35 000 (weekend edition) there is also a weekly overseas edition
- Lamerhav** x Nahal Ayalon St. Tel Aviv f 1954 morning socialist Chief Editor DAVID PEDAZUR circ 18 000
- Leitz Nyess** (Late News) 52 Harakevet St. Tel Aviv f 1949 Yiddish morning Editor M. TSANTZ circ. 23 000
- Ma'ariv** Ma'ariv House POB 20010 Tel Aviv f 1948 evening independent Editor ARIZ DISSENTSHIK circ daily 160 000 Friday 210 000
- Nowiny i Kurier** 52 Harakevet St. Tel Aviv f 1952 Polish morning Editor S. YEDIMYAN circ 10 000
- Omer** 45 Sheinkin St. Tel Aviv Histadrut popular voweled Hebrew paper f 1951 Chief Editor MEIR BARZEL circ 10 000
- Shaar** 15 Hatzfira St. Tel Aviv economy and finance Hebrew
- Shearim** 114 Allenby St. Tel Aviv organ of Poalei Agudat Israel Ed tor YEHUDA YAKIMOVICH circ 5 000
- Ujkelet** 52 Harakevet St. Tel Aviv f 1918 morning Hungarian independent Editor Dr G. MARTON circ 20 000
- Viata Noastra** 52 Harakevet St. Tel Aviv f 1950 Romanian supports the Israel Labour Party morning Editor MEIR ZAIT circ. 30 000
- Yediot Aharonot** 5 Yehudit Mozes St. Tel Aviv f 1939 evening independent Editor Dr H. ROSENBLUM circ. 120 000 Friday 170 000
- Yediot Hadashot** POB 1585 66 Harakevet St. Tel Aviv f 1935 morning German independent Editor Dr I. LILIENTHAL circ. 18 000
- Yom Yom** Tel Aviv f 1964 morning economy and finance Editor P. MEERSTEN
- WEEKLIES AND FORTNIGHTLIES**
- A Tarwun** POB 303 Tel Aviv f 1961 published by the Arab Worker's Dept. of the Histadrut and the Co-operatives Dept. of the Ministry of Labour co-operatives quarterly Editor TUVIA SHAMOSH
- Advarul** 21 Hasharon St. Tel Aviv f 1949 Romanian weekly Ed tor IEHUDA MAERSON SEVERIN
- Al Harriya** 35 King George St. Tel Aviv Arabic weekly of the Herut Party
- Al Ikhid** POB 104 Haifa f 1944 Arabic journal of the Israeli Communist Party Chief Editor EMIL TSOMA
- Al Marsad** POB 1598 Haifa Mapam Arabic
- Bama alah** POB 303 Tel Aviv journal of the young Histadrut Movement Editor N. AMALY
- Bamahana** Military POB 1013 Tel Aviv f 1948 military illustrated weekly of the Israel Army Editor in-Chief ISRAEL LYVIN
- Biton Keyl Ha'avir** (Air Force Magazine) Doar Zwal 2704 f 1948 Editor M. HADAR Managing Editor Y. OTER circ 33 000
- Business Diary** 37 Harbour St. Haifa f 1947 twice a month English news digest trade finance economics shipping Editor G. ALON
- Dvar Hashavua** 45 Sheinkin St. Tel Aviv f 1946 popular illustrated weekly published by Histadrut General Federation of Labour Editor O. ZMORA circ. 42 000
- Economic Review** POB 7033 Tel Aviv Editor T. LOEVI
- Elhaz** 75 Einstein Street Tel Aviv twice weekly Editor NATHAN YALIN MOR.
- Frei Israel** Elath Street POB 1427 Tel Aviv Yiddish progressive weekly publ. by Asscn. for Popular Culture Editor I. LERSKI
- Glasul Populului** Elath Street POB 2675 Tel Aviv weekly of the Communist Party Romanian Editor M. HARSGOR
- Hamla har** (Commerce) POB 852 Tel Aviv f 1932 Hebrew economic and commercial Chamber of Commerce Tel Aviv Yafo Editor Dr E. W. KLIMOWSKY circ. 39 000
- Haolam Hazeh** POB 136 12 Carlebach St. Tel Aviv f 1937 independent illustrated news magazine weekly Man Editor URI AVNERY Editor ELI TAVOR.
- Ha peol Hatzair** 110 Hayarkon St. Tel Aviv f 1907 weekly organ of the Israel Labour Party Editor ISRAEL COHEN
- Hed Hahinukh** 8 Ben Saruk Street Tel Aviv f 1926 weekly educational published by the Israeli Teachers Union Editor ZVI ARAD circ. 26 000
- Illustrirte Weltwoch** POB 2571 Tel Aviv f 1956 Yiddish weekly, Editor M. TEANIN
- Israel Digest of Press and Events** POB 92 Jerusalem f 1957 independent fortnightly circ. 30 000 Editor PINCHAS LAPIDE
- Jerusalem Post Overseas Weekly** POB 81 Hachavazelet Street Jerusalem f 1959 English Overseas edition of the *Jerusalem Post* (qv) circ. 30 500
- Kol Ha'am** (Voice of the People) Lilath St. POB 2675 Tel Aviv f 1947 organ of the Communist Party of Israel Editor MOSHE S. KHI
- Lalitha** POB 109 7 Ein St. Tel Aviv f 1946 Hebrew women's magazine Editor DAVID KARASSIK.
- Lilavladina** Arabic Publishing House POB 28049 Tel Aviv f 1960 children's fortnightly Chair and Editor E. AGHASSI
- Maariv Lanoar** 2 Carlebach St. Tel Aviv f 1956 weekly for the youth Editor YANAI REUBEN circ 25 000
- MB** (formerly *Mittellungblatt*) POB 1480 Tel Aviv f 1932 German journal of the Irgun Olei Merkaz Europa Editor Dr HANS TRAMER
- Min Hayesod** Tel Aviv fortnightly Hebrew news and political commentary
- Reshumot** Israel Government Printer Jerusalem f 1948 Hebrew and Arabic official Government gazette edited by the Ministry of Justice
- Sada A-Tarbia** (The Echo of Education) published by the Histadrut and Teachers Assoc at on POB 28049 Tel Aviv f 1952 Arabic educational fortnightly Editor TUVIA SHAMOSH
- El Tiempo** POB 671 Tel Aviv weekly Ladino

MONTHLY AND QUARTERLY PERIODICALS

- Al-Bushra:** P.O.B. 6088, Haifa; f. 1935; monthly; Arabic; organ of the Ahmadiyya movement; Editor FAZL ILAHI BASHIR.
- Al Hamishmar:** 20 Yehuda Halevy Street, Tel-Aviv; Bulgarian monthly of United Workers' Party.
- Al Jadid:** P.O.B. 104, Haifa; Arabic; literary monthly; Editor HANA NAKARA.
- Ariel:** Cultural and Scientific Relations Division, Ministry for Foreign Affairs, Jerusalem; f. 1962; quarterly review of the arts and letters in Israel; Editor YEHUDA HANEGBI.
- Avoda Ubituach Leumi:** P.O.B. 915, Jerusalem; f. 1949; monthly review of the Ministry of Labour, and the National Insurance Institute, Jerusalem; Editor Z. HEYN; circ. 2,500.
- Christian News from Israel:** 23 Shlomo Hamelech St., Jerusalem; issued by the Ministry of Religious Affairs; in English, French, Spanish; Editor Dr. Y. MALACHY; circ. 20,000.
- Dapim Refuim:** 101 Arlosoroff St., P.O.B. 16250, Tel-Aviv; f. 1935; eight times a year; medical; Hebrew with English and French summaries; circ. 5,000; Editor Dr. M. DVOR-JETSKI.
- Divrei Haknesset:** c/o The Knesset, Jerusalem; f. 1949; records of the proceedings of the Knesset, published by the Government Printer, Jerusalem; Editor D. NRV; circ. 300.
- Dvar Hapoelet:** P.O.B. 303, Tel-Aviv; f. 1934; monthly journal of the Council of Women Workers of the Histadrut; Hebrew; Founder and Past Editor Mrs. RACHEL SHAZAR; Editor SHULAMIT OR; circ. 11,000.
- Folk un Zion:** P.O.B. 92, Jerusalem; f. 1950; monthly; current events relating to Israel and World Jewry; circ. 6,000; Editor MOSHE HORVITZ.
- Gazit:** 8 Zvi Brook St., P.O.B. 4190, Tel-Aviv; f. 1932; monthly; Hebrew and English; art, literature; Publisher G. TALPHIR.
- Goldene Keit, Die:** 16 Beery Road, Tel-Aviv; f. 1949; Yiddish; literary quarterly; published by the Histadrut; Editor A. SUTZKEVER; Co-Editor E. PINES; Man. Editor M. KARPINOVITZ.
- Hameshek Hahaklai:** 21 Melchett St., Tel-Aviv; f. 1929; agricultural; Editor ISRAEL INBARI.
- Hamizrah Mehadash:** (*The New East*): The Hebrew University of Jerusalem; f. 1949; quarterly of the Israel Oriental Society; Hebrew with English summary; Middle Eastern, Asian and African Affairs; Editor YEHOShUA PORATH.
- Hamilonai** (*The Hotelier*): 13 Montefiore Street, P.O.B. 2032, Tel-Aviv; f. 1962; monthly of the Israel Hotel Association; Hebrew and English; Editor Dr. K. LICHT.
- Hapraklit:** P.O.B. 788, Tel-Aviv; f. 1943; quarterly; published by the Israel Bar Association; Editor A. POLONSKY; Editorial Sec. J. GROSS; circ. 5,000.
- Harefuah:** 39 Shaul Hamelech Blvd., Tel-Aviv; f. 1920; with English summary; fortnightly journal of the Israeli Medical Association; Editor I. SUM, M.D.; circ. 6,000.
- Hassadeh:** 25 Lilienblum St., Tel-Aviv; f. 1920; monthly; review of mixed farming; Editor J. M. MARGALIT; circ. 10,000.
- Hataassiya** (*Israel Industry*): 13 Montefiore St., P.O.B. 2032, Tel-Aviv; f. 1941; monthly review of the Manufacturers' Assn. of Israel; Man. Dir. Z. PELTZ.
- Hed Hagan:** 8 Ben Saruk St., Tel-Aviv; f. 1935; educational; Editor Mrs. ESTHER RABINOWITZ; circ. 3,500.

- International Monetary Issues:** P.O.B. 1313, Haifa; f. 1969; monthly; English; monetary theory for investment and economic policy decision; Editor G. ALON.
- Israel Annals of Psychiatry:** Jerusalem Academic Press, Givat Saul, P.O.B. 2390, Jerusalem; f. 1963; three numbers yearly; Editor-in-Chief Prof. H. Z. WINNIK.
- Israel Economist:** 16 King George Ave., Jerusalem; f. 1945; monthly; English; political and economic; Independent; Editor J. KOLLEK, M.JUR.; also publishes *The Tel-Aviv Stock Exchange Information Card Service*.
- Israel Exploration Journal:** P.O.B. 7041, Jerusalem; f. 1950; quarterly; Editor Prof. M. AVI-YONAH; circ. 2,000.
- Israel Export and Trade Journal, The:** 13 Montefiore Street, P.O.B. 2032, Tel-Aviv; f. 1949; monthly; English; commercial and economic; published by Israel Periodicals Ltd.; Editor YOANNE YARON; Man. Dirs. F. A. LEWINSON and ZALMAN PELTZ.
- Israel Industry and Commerce:** P.O.B. 1199, Tel-Aviv; English; monthly; serves Israeli exporters; Editor SH. YEDIDYAH.
- Israel Journal of Medical Sciences:** P.O.B. 2296, Jerusalem; incorporating *The Israel Journal of Experimental Medicine* and *The Israel Medical Journal*; f. 1965; monthly; Editor-in-Chief Dr. M. PRYWES; circ. 5,500.
- Israel Labour Party Bulletin:** 110 Ha'yarkon St., Tel-Aviv; monthly; published by the International Department of the Israel Labour Party; English.
- Israels Aussenhandel:** 13 Montefiore Street, Tel-Aviv; f. 1967; monthly; German; commercial; Editor N. PELTZ.
- Iyyun:** Jerusalem Philosophical Society, c/o The Hebrew University, Jerusalem; f. 1945; quarterly; Hebrew (English summaries); Editors EDWARD I. J. POZNANSKI, Dr. JACOB SCHLAUGER, ARIEH ALOR.
- Kalkalan:** 8 Akiva St., P.O.B. 7052, Jerusalem; f. 1952; monthly; Hebrew commercial and economic; independent; Editor J. KOLLEK, M.JUR.
- Kirjath Sepher:** P.O.B. 503, Jerusalem; bibliographical quarterly of the Jewish National and University Library, Jerusalem; f. 1924.
- Labour in Israel:** 93 Arlosoroff St., Tel-Aviv; periodic bulletin of the Histadrut; English, Swedish, French, Portuguese and Spanish.
- Leshonenu:** Academy of the Hebrew Language, P.O.B. 3449, Jerusalem; f. 1929; quarterly; for the study of the Hebrew language and cognate subjects; Editor Y. E. KUTSCHER.
- Leshonenu La'am:** Academy of the Hebrew Language, P.O.B. 3449, Jerusalem; f. 1945; popular Hebrew philology; Editors E. ETAN, M. MEDAN.
- Ma'arachot:** Ha'Kirya, 1 Rechov Gimmel, Tel-Aviv; f. 1939; military; Editor Col. GERSHON RIVLIN.
- Mada:** Weizmann Science Press, P.O.B. 801, Jerusalem; f. 1956; popular scientific bi-monthly in Hebrew; Editor-in-Chief KAPAI PINES; circ. 10,000.
- Mibifnim:** Ein-Harod, Hakibbutz Hameuchad; f. 1924; quarterly of the United Collective Settlements (Hakibbutz Hameuchad); Editor ZERUBAVEL GILEAD; circ. 8,000.
- Molad:** P.O.B. 1165, Jerusalem; f. 1948; bi-monthly; independent political and literary review; Hebrew; published by Miph'ale Molad Ltd.; Editor EPHRAIM BROIDO.

ISRAEL—(THE PRESS)

Monthly Bulletin of Statistics: Israel Central Bureau of Statistics, Jerusalem; f. 1949, monthly.

Monthly Statistics of the Administered Territories: f. Jan 1971, Hebrew and English

Foreign Trade Statistical Quarterly: f. 1969; Hebrew and English

Moznayim (Balance) P.O.B. 7098, Tel-Aviv; f. 1929; literature and culture; monthly; circ. 2,500; Editor K. A. BERTINI.

Ner: Ihud, P.O.B. 451, Jerusalem; f. 1948, monthly on political and social problems, advocates Arab-Jewish reconciliation; Hebrew, English, Arabic, circ. 1,500.

New Outlook: 8 Karl Netter Street, Tel-Aviv, f. 1957, monthly, circ. 10,000, Editor SIMAN FLAPAN

Proche-Orient Chrétien: B.P. 19079, Jerusalem; f. 1951, quarterly.

Quarterly Review of the Israel Medical Association (Mif'al Haverim Huat—Overseas Fellowship of the Israel Medical Association): 1 Heftman St., Tel-Aviv; English; also published in French and Spanish; quarterly; Editor Dr V. RESNEKOV.

Refuah Veterinaria: 25 Lihenblum Street, P.O.B. 4, Tel-Aviv, f. 1943, quarterly review of veterinary surgery, Editor Dr. F. G. SULMAN.

La Revue de l'A.M.I.: (non resident members' section of the Israeli Medical Association), 1 Heftman St., Tel-Aviv, Editor Dr S. ZALUD

Scopus: Hebrew University of Jerusalem; f. 1946, published by Department of Information and Public Affairs, Hebrew University of Jerusalem twice yearly, English, Editor D. A. SCESMAN

Shituf (Co-operation): 24 Ha'arba St., Tel-Aviv, P.O.B. 7151, monthly, Hebrew co-operative journal, published by the Central Union of Industrial, Transport and Service Co-operative Societies, Editor L. LOSIT

Sinai: P.O.B. 642, Jerusalem, Torah, science and literature, Editor Dr YITZCHAK RAPHAEL.

Sinbad: P.O.B. 28049, Tel-Aviv; f. 1969, children's monthly, Chair WALID HUSSEIN, Editors ELIAHU AGHASSI, JAWAD UTHMAN

Sion: P.O.B. 14901, Jerusalem; f. 1866; bi-monthly of religion, literature and philology, official organ of the Armenian Patriarchate of Jerusalem, circ. 1,200, Editor His Beatitude Patriarch Y. DERPERIAN

Sulam: 2 Ben Yehuda St., Jerusalem, political, monthly, Editor Y. SHAIB

Tarbiz: Magnes Press, the Hebrew University, Jerusalem; f. 1929, quarterly, for Jewish studies, Editor E. E. URBACH, circ. 750

Terra Santa: P.O.B. 186, Jerusalem, f. 1920, monthly; published by the Custody of the Holy Land (the official custodians of the Holy Shrines), Italian, Spanish, French and Arabic editions published in Jerusalem, by the Franciscan Printing Press, English edition in Washington, German edition in Vienna, Maltese edition in Valletta

Teva Vaazet: 25 Lihenblum Street, P.O.B. 4, Tel Aviv, f. 1958, monthly, review of agriculture, nature and geography, Editor N. TERADYON.

Ymuroth: 48 Hamelech George St., P.O.B. 23076, Tel-Aviv, f. 1960, organ of the Liberal Labour Movement; monthly; Editor D. SIKLOMI

Ur'im La-Or'im: 93 Arlosoroff St., P.O.B. 303, Tel Aviv; educational problems in the family; monthly; Editor N. GIVTON

Vilner Pinkas: P.O.B. 28006, Tel-Aviv; f. 1968, periodical review of current affairs for Vilna-Jews the world over, Yiddish, Editor M. KARPOVITZ

WIZO Review: Women's International Zionist Organization, 38 Sderoth David Hamelech, Tel Aviv; English, French, Spanish and German editions, Editor VIOLET C. RYCVS, circ. 50,000

Work: 93 Arlosoroff St., Tel-Aviv, illustrated magazine; published by the Histadrut, English, French, Spanish

Yam: Israeli Maritime League, P.O.B. 706, Haifa, f. 1937, review of marine problems, Editor Z. LSHIZI; Pres. S. TOLKOWSKY; circ. 10,000.

Zion: P.O.B. 1062, Jerusalem; f. 1935; research in Jewish history, quarterly; Hebrew and English, Editors I. F. BAER, B. DINUR, H. H. BEN-SASSON, S. ETTINGER, I. HALPERN.

Zraim: 7 Dubnov Street, P.O.B. 20126, Tel-Aviv; f. 1935; (journal of the Bnei Akiva (Youth of Hapoel Hamizrachi) Movement; Editor MENACHEM MICHELSON.

The following are all published by Weizmann Science Press Israel, P.O.B. 801, Jerusalem; Exec. Editor L. LESTER.

Israel Journal of Botany: f. 1951; Editor Prof. LEONORA REYNOLD; quarterly.

Israel Journal of Chemistry: f. 1951; Editor Prof. G. STEIN, bi-monthly.

Israel Journal of Earth-Sciences: f. 1951; quarterly.

Israel Journal of Mathematics: f. 1951; Editor Prof. Y. LINDENSTRAUSS; quarterly.

Israel Journal of Technology: f. 1951; Editor Prof. D. ANZI; bi-monthly.

Israel Journal of Zoology: f. 1951; quarterly.

PUBLISHERS' ASSOCIATION

Daily Newspaper Publishers' Association of Israel: P.O.B. 2251, 4 Kaplan St., Tel-Aviv, safeguards professional interests and maintains standards, supplies newspaper to dailies, negotiates with trade unions, etc.; mems. all daily papers except *Ha'aretz*; affiliated to International Federation of Newspaper Publishers

NEWS AGENCIES

Jewish Telegraphic Agency (JTA): Israel Bureau, "Post" Building, 9 Ha'azelet Street, Jerusalem; Dir. AMOS BEN-VERZD.

Israeli News Agency (INA): Israel Affiliate of JTA; 59 Sheinkin St., Tel-Aviv; 9 Ha'azelet St., Jerusalem; London Office: 182 Fleet St., London, E.C. 4; f. 1923, Dir. A. SCHWARTZ; publ. *Hebrew News Bulletin* (daily).

ITIM, News Agency of the Associated Israel Press: 70 Tuomkin Street, Tel Aviv; f. 1950; co-operative news agency; Dir. and Editor HAYIM BALTSAN.

FOREIGN BUREAUX

Agence France-Presse: 7 Schderot Kheu, Tel-Aviv; Chief NATHAN GURDUS

ANSA: 20 29th November Street, Jerusalem; Bureau Chief REPHAZEL MIGDAL

Jewish Telegraphic Agency: Jerusalem Post Bldg. Jerusalem.

The following are also represented: AP, DPA, North American Newspaper Alliance, Reuters, Tass

PUBLISHERS

- Achiasaf Ltd.:** 13 Yosef Hanassi St., Tel-Aviv; f. 1933; general; Man. SH. ACHIASAF.
- Am Hassefer Ltd.:** 9 Bialik St., Tel-Aviv; f. 1955; Man. Dir. DOV LIPETZ.
- "Am Oved" Ltd.:** 22 Mazah Street, Tel-Aviv; fiction, scientific, sociology, textbooks, children's books; Manager EL. PERI.
- Amichai Publishing House Ltd.:** 5 Yosef Hanassi St., Tel-Aviv; f. 1948; Man. Dir. YEHUDA ORLINSKY.
- Arabic Publishing House:** 17A Hagra Street, P.O.B. 28049, Tel-Aviv; f. 1960; established by the Histadrut (trade union) organization; periodicals and books; Dir. and Gen. Editor ELIAHU AGHASSI.
- Bialik Institute, The:** P.O.B. 92, Jerusalem; f. 1935; classics, encyclopaedias, criticism, history, archaeology, art, reference books, Judaica.
- Carta:** Mazie St., P.O.B. 2500, Jerusalem; f. 1958; the principal cartographic publisher; Man. Dir. EMANUEL HAUSMAN.
- Cosmopolite:** 57 Yehuda Halevy St., P.O.B. 1643, Tel-Aviv.
- Dvir Ltd.:** 58 Mazeh St., Tel-Aviv; literature, science, art, education; Man. Dir. A. BROIDO.
- Eked Publishing House:** 29 Bar-Kochba St., Tel-Aviv; f. 1959; poetry; Dirs. ITAMAR YAOZ-KEST, MARITZA ROSMAN.
- Ever:** 56 Jaffa St., Jerusalem; general and sport; Dir. M. ROLNIK.
- Franciscan Printing Press:** P.O.B. 186, Jerusalem; f. 1847; archaeology, theology.
- Gazit:** 8 Zvi Brook St., Tel-Aviv, P.O.B. 4190; art publishers; Editor GABRIEL TALPHIR.
- Haifa Publishing Co. Ltd.:** 9 Habroshim Avenue, Haifa; f. 1960; fiction.
- Hakibutz Hameuchad Publishing Co.:** P.O.B. 16040, Pumbadita St., Tel-Aviv; f. 1945; Gen. Dir. SENED ALEXANDER.
- Hamenorah Publishers Ltd.:** 24 Zangwill St., Tel-Aviv; f. 1958; books in Hebrew and Yiddish; Dir. MORDECHAI SONNSCHEIN.
- Israel Program for Scientific Translations Ltd.:** Kiryat Moshe, P.O.B. 7145, Jerusalem; f. 1958; original and translated works in all fields of science and humanities, published in English; publishing imprints: Israel Universities Press, Keter Books, Encyclopaedica Judaica; Man. Dir. YITZHAK RISHIN.
- Israeli Music Publications Ltd.:** 105 Ben Yehuda St., P.O.B. 6011, Tel-Aviv; f. 1949; books on music and musical works; Dir. Dr. PETER E. GRADENWITZ.
- Israel Periodicals Co. Ltd.:** Tel-Aviv.
- Izrael Publishing House Ltd.:** 76 Dizengoff St., Tel-Aviv; f. 1945 Man. ALEXANDER IZREEL.
- Jerusalem Academic Press:** Shattner Industrial Centre, P.O.B. 2390, Jerusalem; f. 1959; science publications; Dir. ITZHAK LAHAD.
- Jerusalem Publishing House:** 17 Abravanel St., Jerusalem; f. 1967; traditional works; Dir. SHLOMO S. GAFNI.
- Jewish Agency Publishing Department:** P.O.B. 704; Jerusalem; f. 1945; Palestinology, Judaism, scientific, classics, and publicity brochures; Dir. M. SPITZER.
- Karni Publishers Ltd.:** 11 Yehuda Halevi St., Tel-Aviv; f. 1951; children's and educational books; Dir. SAMUEL KATZ.
- Kiryath Sepher Ltd.:** 15 Arlosorov St., Jerusalem; f. 1933; dictionaries, text books, maps, scientific books; Dir. SHALOM SIVAN (STEPANSKY).
- Lewin-Epstein Ltd.:** P.O.B. 61, 27 Rothschild St., Bat Yam; f. 1930; Man. Dir. YAACOV SALMON.
- Magnes Press, The:** The Hebrew University, Jerusalem; f. 1929; general studies; Dir. CHAIM TOREN.
- Mass, Rubin:** P.O.B. 990, Jerusalem; Tel-Aviv branch: Allenby 62; f. 1927; Hebraica, Judaica; Dir. MR. MASS.
- Massada Ltd.:** 21 Jabotinsky St., Ramat Gan; f. 1931; art, encyclopaedias, literature; Dirs. B. PELI, A. PELI, Y. BARASH, S. BARACH; Chair. BRACHA PELI.
- Ministry of Defence Publishing House:** Hakiriya, Tel-Aviv; f. 1939; military literature; Dir. AHARON NIV.
- Mizrachi, M. Publishers:** 67 Levinsky St., Tel-Aviv; f. 1960; children's books; Dir. MEIR MIZRACHI.
- Orim Ltd.—The Israeli Publishing Institute:** Mount Scopus Rd., P.O.B. 7065 Sheik Jarrah, Jerusalem; f. 1958; historical; Pres. ORI MAZAR; Dir. GAALYAHU CORNFELD.
- Otsar Hamoreh:** 8 Ben Saruk, Tel-Aviv; f. 1951; educational; Dir. MENACHEM LEVANON.
- I. L. Peretz:** 31 Allenby Rd., Tel-Aviv; f. 1956; Man. Dir. SCHLOMO SCHWEITZER.
- Rabbi Kook Foundation:** P.O.B. 642, Jerusalem; religious and scientific; Dir. Z. BLUMENZWEIG.
- Schocken Publishing House Ltd.:** P.O.B. 2316, Tel-Aviv; f. 1938; general; Dir. J. HERRMANN.
- Sifriat-Ma'Ariv, Ltd.:** Ma'ariv House, 2 Carleback St., Tel-Aviv; f. 1954; general; Man. YAKIR WEINSTEIN.
- Sifriat Poalim Ltd. (Hashomer Hatzair):** 73 Allenby Road, Tel-Aviv; f. 1947; general; Man. ZVI MARKMANN.
- Samuel Simon Publishing House:** 100 Yehuda Halevi St., Tel-Aviv; f. 1946; children's books; Man. Dir. SAMUEL SIMSON.
- Sinai Bookstore and Publishers:** 72 Allenby Rd, Tel-Aviv; Hebrew books and religious articles; Dir. MR. SCHLESINGER.
- Tarbut Ve'Hinuch Publishers:** 93 Arlozorov St., Tel-Aviv; educational; Man. IZAAK KOTUNSKY.
- Tarshish Publishers:** 14 Hakeshet St., Jerusalem; f. 1940; plays, poetry, bibliophile, classics; Man. Dir. Dr. MOSHE SPITZER.
- Weidenfeld and Nicholson:** 19 Herzog St., P.O.B. 7545, Jerusalem; branch of the London publishing company; established in Israel 1969; Man. Dir. ASHER WEILL.
- Weizmann Science Press of Israel:** 33 King George Ave., P.O.B. 801, Jerusalem; f. 1951; publishes scientific books and periodicals; Exec. Editor L. LESTER.
- Yachdav United Publishers Co. Ltd.:** 64 Rothchild Blvd., Tel-Aviv; f. 1960; educational; Dir. MENAHEM BLOCH.
- Yavneh Publishing House Ltd.:** 4 Mazeh St., Tel-Aviv; f. 1930; general; Dir. YEHOSHUA ORENSTEIN.
- S. Zack and Co.:** 2 King George St., Jerusalem; f. c. 1930; reference books; Dirs. DAVID and MICHAEL ZACK.
- Israel Book Publishers Association:** 64 Rothschild Blvd., Tel-Aviv; f. 1939; mems.: 70 publishing firms; Dir. MORDECHAI BERNSTEIN.
- Jerusalem International Book Fair:** P.O.B. 1508, Jerusalem; takes place in alternate years; 1,000 publishing firms from 25 countries were represented in 1969; next fair April 19-25th, 1971.

RADIO AND TELEVISION

RADIO

I.B.A., the Israel Broadcasting Authority, *f* 1948 station Jerusalem with studios in Tel Aviv and Haifa. Dir-Gen S. ALMOG. I.B.A. broadcasts on fifteen wave lengths (eleven medium and four short) in eleven languages: Hebrew, Arabic, English, Yiddish, Ladino, Romanian, Hungarian, Moghrabit, Persian, French and Russian.

Receivers (1970) 655 000

TELEVISION

Programmes for schools started in spring 1966 and programmes for the general public run by the Israel Broadcasting Authority, began in 1967.

Instructional Television Centre: Ministry of Education and Culture. Tel Aviv, *f* 1963 by Hanadiv (Rothschild Memorial Group) as Instructional Television Centre, began transmissions in 1966 now broadcasts on a national scale to 1 300 schools with 540 000 pupils 70 per cent of the high school population. The programmes form an integral part of the syllabus in a wide range of subjects.

Receivers (1970) approximately 200 000

FINANCE

(cap = capital, p u = paid up, dep = deposits, m. = million
If = Israeli £)

BANKING

CENTRAL BANK

Bank of Israel: Mirpach Building, Jerusalem, P O B 780 *f* 1954 as the Central Bank of the State of Israel (Dec. 1970) cap 1£10m., Gov D HOROWITZ, Mans M HETH Y J TAUB J MILO Dr E SHEFFER Z SUSSMAN, publs *Annual Report Bulletin*

ISRAELI BANKS

Arab Israel Bank Ltd: 2 Shuvot Zion Street, Haifa, *f* 1960 to serve primarily the Arab sector of the economy, cap p u 1£3 5m., dep 1£26m., Gen. Man S MOAULLEN

Bank Hapoalim B.M.: 50 Rothschild Boulevard, Tel Aviv, *f* 1921 cap p u 1£42 06m dep 1£3 700m (Dec 1970) Chair of Board of Dirs A ZABARSKY, Man Dirs J LEVINSON (Chair) E AVNEYON A DICKENSTEIN A HALPERIN, E MARGALIT, B RABINOW SH ZAK

Bank Lemelacha Ltd.: 9 Carlebach St. Tel Aviv *f* 1954 cap p u 1£85m, dep 1£71m (Dec 1971) Chair CHAIM STOUSSSEL, Gen Man A FEIN

Bank Leumi le-Israel B.M.: 24 32 Yehuda Halevy Street, Tel Aviv *f* 1902, cap p u 1£37 4m., dep 1£4 453m (1969), Chair E LEHMANN, Gen Man E I JAPHET (publ. *Review of Economic Conditions in Israel* (quarterly))

Foreign Trade Bank Ltd, The: 39 Rothschild Blvd., P O B 2110, Tel Aviv, *f* 1955 cap p u 1£7 2m., dep 1£243 3m.; Chair A FRIEDMANN, 29 brs

Israel American Industrial Development Bank Ltd: 50 Rothschild Blvd., Tel Aviv, *f* 1956 cap p u 1£12m dep 1£115m. (Dec 1970) Chair A DICKENSTEIN Gen Man H DOVSHANI

Israel Bank of Agriculture Ltd: 83 Hashmonayim Street, Tel Aviv, *f* 1951 cap p u 1£104 2m dep 1£266m (March 1970) Chair Prof H HALPERIN

Israel British Bank Ltd.: 20 Rothschild Boulevard Tel Aviv *f* 1930 cap p u 1£11 3m dep 1£452 7m (Dec 1969) Chair W N WILLIAMS

Israel Discount Bank Ltd.: 27-29 Yehuda Halevy St., Tel Aviv, *f* 1935 as Palestine Discount Bank Ltd., name changed 1957, cap p u 1£37m., dep 1£3 935m (Dec 1969), Chair DANIEL RECANATI, brs throughout Israel and in New York and Nassau

Affiliated Bank: Mercantile Bank of Israel Ltd.: 24 Rothschild Boulevard, Tel Aviv, cap p u 1£2 0m. dep 1£62 6m (Dec. 1970)

Israel Industrial Bank Ltd.: 13 Montefiore St., Tel Aviv, *f* 1933 cap 1£8 6m., dep 1£60m (Dec 1970), Man Dir A D KINCH

Israel Loan and Savings Bank Ltd: 21 Herzl St., Tel Aviv cap 1£10 3m Chair E AVEYON Man Dir I GAFNY

Jacob Japhet and Co. Ltd.: 11 Rothschild Boulevard, Tel Aviv, *f* 1933, Chair D DUBSKY, Man Dir I KLAUSNER

Kupat Am Bank Ltd: 13 Ahad Haam Street P O B 352 Tel Aviv, *f* 1918, cap p u 1£11 8m., Chair O BEN-AMI, Gen. Man SIMCHA GAFNY

Mercantile Bank of Israel Ltd.: 24 Rothschild Blvd., Tel Aviv, cap p u 1£1m., dep 1£39 800m (Dec 1969)

Trade Bank Ltd.: 42 Lilienblum St., Tel Aviv, *f* 1937, cap p u 1£1m., dep 1£4 5m (Dec 1967), Mans M KAPLAN, M STERN

Union Bank of Israel Ltd: 6-8 Ahuzat Bait St., P O B 2428, Tel Aviv, *f* 1951, cap p u 1£11 0m, dep 1£665 6m (Dec 1970) Chair (vacant) Gen Mans W HAUKE, M MAYER, publ *Newsletter* (monthly)

United Mizrahi Bank Ltd.: 48 Lilienblum St., Tel Aviv, *f* 1923 cap p u 1£22 7m., dep 1£436 7m (Dec 1970), Chair Dr JOSEF BURG

MORTGAGE BANKS

General Mortgage Bank Ltd: 13 Ahad Haam Street, Tel Aviv, *f* 1921, cap p u 1£12 1m, dep 1£358m (1969), Chair (vacant) Vice-Chair E LEHMANN

Housing Mortgage Bank Ltd: Tel Aviv, *f* 1951, subsidiary of Bank Hapoalim B.M., cap p u 1£12 0m dep 1£187 1m (Dec 1970), Chair A OFFER

Israel Development and Mortgage Bank Ltd: Tel Aviv, subsidiary of Israel Discount Bank Ltd

Tefahot, Israel Mortgage Bank Ltd.: 9 Heleni Hamalka St., Jerusalem; f. 1945; cap. p.u. 1,287m.; Chair. DAVID TANNE; Man. Dir. MOSHE MANN.

Unico Mortgage and Investment Bank Ltd.: Shalom Tower, 9 Ahad Ha'am Street, Tel-Aviv; f. 1961.

FOREIGN BANKS

Barclays Bank D.C.O.: London, E.C.3; 103 Allenby Rd., Tel-Aviv (Head Office); brs. throughout Israel.

Exchange National Bank of Chicago: Tel-Aviv; f. 1970; Gen. Man. AVIEZER CHELOUCHE.

STOCK EXCHANGE

Tel-Aviv Stock Exchange: 113 Allenby Rd.; Chair. Dr. E. LEHMANN; Exec. Dir. D. OTENSOOSER; Publs. *Official Quotations* (daily, monthly, annually), *Financial Structure and Performance of Companies Listed on the Tel-Aviv Stock Exchange* (annual).

INSURANCE

Ararat Insurance Company Ltd.: Ararat House, 32 Yavneh St., Tel-Aviv; f. 1949; Man. Dir. PHILIP ZUCKERMAN.

Argus, the National Insurance Company Ltd.: 37 Jaffa-Tel-Aviv Road, Tel-Aviv; br. in Haifa; f. 1948; Gen. Manager SORIN RAND.

Aryeh Insurance Co. Ltd.: Shalom Tower, Tel-Aviv; f. 1948; Chair. JUDAH M. TOCATLY.

Hassneh Insurance Company of Israel Ltd.: 27 Montefiore St., Tel-Aviv; f. 1929; Chair. ABRAHAM ZABARSKI; Man. Dir. MORDECHAI ZILIST.

Israel Phoenix Assurance Company Ltd., The: 30 Levontin St., Tel-Aviv; f. 1949; Chair. of Board and Man. Dir. DAVID J. HACKMEY.

Israel Reinsurance Company Ltd., The: 7 Shadal St., P.O.B. 29163, Tel-Aviv; f. 1951; Chair. Board of Dirs. A. SACHAROV; Man. S. JANNAI.

Maoz Insurance Company Ltd.: 113 Allenby Rd., Tel-Aviv; f. 1945; formerly Binyan Insurance Co. Ltd.; Chair. M. W. ERHARD.

Mazada Insurance Service Ltd.: 3 Ahuzat Bait St., Tel-Aviv; f. 1932; Mans. S. SPIGELMAN, A. SPIGELMAN.

Menorah Insurance and Reinsurance Company Ltd.: Menorah House, 73 Rothschild Boulevard, Tel-Aviv; f. 1935; Gen. Man. DAVID HIRSCHFELD.

Migdal-Binyan Insurance Company Ltd.: 53 Rothschild Blvd., Tel-Aviv; f. 1934; Chair. M. W. ERHARD; Man. Dir. J. GRUENGARD.

Palglass Palestine Plate Glass Insurance Co. Ltd.: 30 Achad Ha'am Street, Tel-Aviv; f. 1943; Gen. Manager AKIVA ZALZMAN.

Sahar Insurance Company Ltd.: Sahar House, 23 Ben-Yehuda St., Tel-Aviv; f. 1949; Chair. and Managing Dir. AHARON SACHAROV; Manager MOSHE KEREN.

Samson Insurance Co. Ltd.: 27 Montefiore St., P.O.B. 29277, Tel-Aviv; f. 1933; Gen. Man. S. RUDA.

Sela Insurance Company Ltd.: 6 Ahuzat Bait St., Tel-Aviv; f. 1938; Gen. Man. J. N. DANON.

Shiloah Company Ltd.: 2 Pinsker St., Tel-Aviv; f. 1933; Gen. Man. R. S. BAMIRAH; Man. Mme BAMIRAH.

Yardenia Insurance Company Ltd.: 22 Maze Street, Tel-Aviv; f. 1948; Gen. Man. S. LEBANON, H. LEBANON.

Yivtakh Ltd.: 19 Lilienblum Street, Tel-Aviv; f. 1945; Gen. Man. GEORGE SHAPIRO; Man. ZIGFRIED JACOBSON.

Yuval Insurance Company of Israel: Tel-Aviv; f. 1962; Dir. J. KAPLAN.

Zigug Glass Insurance Company Ltd.: 34 Sheinkin Street, Tel-Aviv; f. 1952; Gen. Manager CARL WOLFSON, Manager Z. ZALHAIMER.

Zion Insurance Company Ltd.: 120 Allenby Rd., Tel-Aviv; f. 1935; Chair. HAIM TAIBER.

THE HISTADRUT

Hahistadrut Haklalit shel Haovdim Be'etx Israel, 93 Arlosoroff Street, Tel-Aviv.

(GENERAL FEDERATION OF LABOUR IN ISRAEL)

Secretary-General: YITZHAK BEN-AMARON

The General Federation of Labour in Israel, usually known as the Histadrut, is the largest voluntary organization in Israel, and the most important economic body in the State. It is open to all workers, including members of co-operatives and of the liberal professions, who join directly as individuals. The Histadrut engages in four main fields of activity: trade union organization, economic development; social insurance based on mutual aid, and educational and cultural activities. Dues—between 3 per cent and 4.5 per cent of wages (up to IL700)—cover all its trade union, health and social services activities. The Histadrut was founded in 1920.

ORGANIZATION

In 1970 the Histadrut had a membership of 1,120,000 including over 275,000 in collective, co-operative and private villages (*kibbutzim*, *moshavim* and *moshavot*), affiliated through the Agricultural Workers' Union, and 279,400 wives (who have membership status); 41,000 of the members were Arabs. In addition some 110,000 young people under 18 years of age belong to the Organization of Working and Student Youth, a direct affiliate of the Histadrut. The main religious labour organizations, *Histadrut Hapoel Hamizrachi* and *Histadrut Poalei Agudat Israel*, belong to the trade union section and welfare services, which thus extend to 90 per cent of all workers in Israel.

All members take part in elections to the Histadrut Convention (*Vaada*), which elects the General Council (*Mosha*) and the Executive Committee (*Vaada Hapoel*). The latter elects the 19 member Executive Bureau (*Vaada Mizrachi*), which is responsible for day-to-day implementation of policy. The Executive Committee also elects the Secretary-General, who acts as its chairman as well as head of the organization as a whole and chairman of the Executive Bureau. Nearly all political parties are represented on the Histadrut Executive Committee. Throughout Israel there are 63 local Labour Councils.

The Executive Committee has the following departments: Trade Union, Arab Affairs, Mutual Aid, Organization, International, Finance, Legal, Employment, Vocational Training, Absorption and Development, Academic Workers, Pensions, Religious Affairs and Higher Education.

TRADE UNION ACTIVITIES

Collective agreements with employers fix wage scales, which are linked with the retail price index; provide for social benefits, including paid sick leave and employers' contributions to sick and pension and provident funds, and regulate dismissals. Dismissal compensation, until recently fixed by collective agreements, is now regulated by law. The Histadrut actively promotes productivity through labour management boards and the National Productivity Institute, and supports incentive pay schemes.

There are unions for the following groups: clerical workers, building workers, teachers, engineers, agricultural workers, technicians, textile workers, printing workers, diamond workers, metal workers, food and bakery workers, wood workers, government employees, seamen, nurses, civilian employees of the armed forces, actors, musicians and variety artists, social workers, watchmen, cinema technicians, institutional and school staffs, pharmacy employees, medical laboratory workers, X-ray technicians, physiotherapists, social scientists, microbiologists,

psychologists, salaried lawyers, pharmacists, physicians, occupational therapists, truck and taxi drivers, hotel and restaurant workers, workers in Histadrut-owned industry, garment, shoe and leather workers, painters and sculptors and industrial workers.

OFFICERS AND PUBLICATIONS

The principal officers engaged in the Histadrut are as follows:

Secretary-General YITZHAK BEN-AMARON.
Deputy Secretary-General S G YERUHAM MESHUL.
Secretary of Labour Economy (Hevrat Odim): ASHER YADLIN.
Chairman of Trade Union Department URIEL ABRAHAMOVICZ.
Chairman of Mutual Aid and Insurance: AMARON LEFRAT.
Chairman of Culture and Education Department: RAPHAEL BASH.
Chairman of Sports and Youth Department: ISRAEL KEISAR.
Treasurer, YEHOASHA LEVI.
Chairman of Organization Department: AMARON HAREL.

The principal newspapers and periodicals published by the Histadrut are as follows:

Davar (The Word) (daily), *Al-Yaum* (Arabic, daily), *Omer* (daily), *Davar Haikarua* (illustrated weekly), *Davar Lyladim* (children's weekly), *Bahisadrut* (monthly review), *Davar Hapoel* (women's monthly), *Israel au Travail* (French, monthly), *Labour in Israel* (English, monthly), *Trabajo en Israel* (Spanish, monthly), *Work* (English, illustrated quarterly), *Trabajo* (Spanish, quarterly) (See also Press section).

ECONOMIC ACTIVITIES

General Co-operative Association of Labour in Israel (*Hevrat Odim*). Every member of the Histadrut is simultaneously a member of Hevrat Odim, and therefore a part-owner in its economy, whether or not he works within its framework. This labour economy includes a variety of structural forms, falling into two main types: co-operative societies run by their own members, such as all *kibbutzim* and *moshavim* and the producer, service, transport and consumer co-operatives; and the collectively-owned enterprises which are initiated by Hevrat Odim. The following are among the enterprises controlled by Hevrat Odim:

Industry and Production

Koor Industries Ltd.: 99 Ben Yehuda St., Tel-Aviv; f. 1944; a group of 43 plants, including chemical works, engineering works, foundries, cement factories, rubber products, plastics, plywood, and light industry, electronic plants, vehicles, cardboard containers; Gen. Man. General MEIR AMIT.

Hamashbir Hamerkazi I'Ta'asiah (Co-operative Society for Industry): 60 Salame Road, Tel-Aviv.

Tiyyus (Establishment of Industries in Development Areas): 33 Lilienblum Street, Tel-Aviv.

The Co-operative Centre of Producers, Transport and Public Services: 24 Ha'azba St., Tel-Aviv.

Agriculture

YAKHIN Agricultural Company Ltd.: 2 Kaplan St., P.O.B. 332, Tel-Aviv.

Nir Ltd.: 28 Rothschild Boulevard, Tel-Aviv P.O.B. 1294.

Nachson Ltd.: 1 Nathan St., Haifa; fishing company.

Yona Ltd.: 1 Nathan St., Haifa; fishing company.

Marketing and Services

Hamashbir Hamerkazi Co-operative Wholesale Soc. Ltd.: 76 Giborey-Israel Rd., Tel-Aviv; main supplier of the *kibbutzim* and *moshavim*.

Hamashbir Latzarchan Consumers' Co-operative Association: 58 Salame Rd., Tel-Aviv; department store chain company with 18 branches throughout Israel.

Tnuva, Co-operative Centre for Marketing of Agricultural Produce in Israel Ltd.: 17 Yehuda Halevi St., P.O.B. 265, Tel-Aviv; f. 1927; markets two-thirds of all farm produce in Israel, and is increasingly active in exports.

Histour: 32 Ben Yehuda St., P.O.B. 3341, Tel-Aviv; travel and tourism agency.

Finance and Insurance

Bank Hapoalim B.M.: 50 Rothschild Blvd., Tel-Aviv (*see* entry under banks).

Ampal, American Israel Corporation: 17 East 71st St., New York, U.S.A.

Hassneh Insurance Co. Ltd.: 27 Montefiore St., Tel-Aviv; f. 1929; Chair. ABRAHAM ZABARSKI.

Co-operative Savings and Loan Society: 5 Hehoshmal St., Tel-Aviv.

Building and Housing

Solel Boneh Company for Building and Public Works Ltd.: and **Solel Boneh Overseas and Ports Works Ltd.:** Solel Boneh House, Solel Boneh Square, Haifa. This is the largest Histadrut concern, the Building and Public Works Company, and the Overseas and Ports Works Company, which has carried out important works in Africa, Asia and the Middle East.

Shikun Ovdim Ltd.: 21 Leonardo da Vinci Street, Tel-Aviv; Workers' Housing.

Transport and Haulage

Arkia Israel Inland Air Lines Ltd.: 88 Ha'hashmonaim St., Tel-Aviv.

Ophir Fishing Society Ltd.: 19 Jaffa Rd., Haifa.

Tarshish Navigation Co. Ltd.: 60 Atzmaut Street, Haifa.

Egged Ltd.: 3 Finn Street, Tel-Aviv; road transport.

Dan Ltd.: 17 Arlosoroff Street, Tel-Aviv; road transport.

The Centre for Producers, Service and Transport Co-operatives: 24 Arbrazal St., Tel-Aviv.

Special Services

Mekorot: f. 1937; for exploration for water and the exploitation of discovered sources for large scale irrigation.

The Histadrut is also an important partner in *Zim*, the Israel Navigation Company, and in *El Al*, Israel Air Lines.

SOCIAL WELFARE

All the Histadrut's social welfare institutions are based on the principle of mutual aid, and over 75 per cent of membership dues is allocated to them.

Kupat Holim (The Workers' Sick Fund): 14 Ben Ami Street, Tel-Aviv; the largest health organization in Israel; over 850 clinics, 14 hospitals, 17 convalescent homes; also conducts preventive health services; serves 77 per cent of the population.

Mishan: 27 Bloch St., Tel-Aviv; grants loans to needy members and maintains old-age homes and children's institutions.

Dor I'Dor: 27 Bloch St., Tel-Aviv; assists elderly workers, in particular those not covered by a regular pension scheme.

Matsiv: 93 Arlosoroff Street, Tel-Aviv; assists dependents of deceased members.

Seven central pension and provident funds operate within the Histadrut framework, with contributions coming from both their members and the employers. In addition to providing a wide range of benefits, these funds constitute the principal source of savings of the population. These long-term savings are directed to the development of the economy; moreover, by absorbing monies, they also act as an anti-inflationary influence. Accumulated funds total £2,150 million.

EDUCATION AND CULTURE

The Centre for Education and Culture: 93 Arlosoroff Street, Tel-Aviv; initiates, plans and co-ordinates activities on a national scale, among them immigrant education courses, evening courses for adults, a theatre company, and numerous choirs, folk-dance groups and popular art circles; arranges theatrical performances and concerts in rural centres, supplies films weekly to agricultural villages and produces its own documentary films.

Amal: 93 Arlosoroff Street, Tel-Aviv; a special Histadrut department to operate and co-ordinate a network of 32 technical high schools.

The Organization of Working and Student Youth: 91 Hachashmonaim St., Tel-Aviv; for young people under the age of 18 who have commenced work or are still at secondary school; 110,000 mems.

Hapoel: 8 Haarba St., P.O.B. 7170, Tel-Aviv; f. 1926; the Histadrut sports organization; 600 hrs. with 92,500 mems.

The Women Workers' Council (Moetzot Hapoalot) and Union of Working Mothers (Irgun Imahot Ovdot): 93 Arlosoroff Street, Tel-Aviv; cover both women workers and women members who do no paid outside work but actively help in the absorption of immigrants, the welfare of children of members, the promotion of education programmes for women, including the eradication of illiteracy, good citizenship courses and consumers' activities, etc.; 700 summer camps for 20,000 children; vocational and agricultural training for 6,500 boys, girls and women; over 100 women's club rooms for both Jewish and Arab women.

ISRAEL—(THE HISTADRUT)

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

The Histadrut is affiliated to the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions is active in the International Labour Organization and the International Co-operative Alliance and has active and friendly relations with labour movements all over the world. Most of its national unions are affiliated to their respective International Trade Secretariats

Afro-Asian Institute for Labour Studies and Co-operation, 1960 has conducted courses for over 1 000 participants from 77 countries.

Centre for Labour and Co-operative Studies for Latin America 1962 has conducted courses for some 400 participants from all the countries of Latin America and from the Caribbean

BUDGET OF THE HISTADRUT EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

(1)

EXPENDITURE	1968	1969*
Local Labour Councils	24 065 000	25 350 000
Executive Committee	1 635 000	1 607 000
Properties and Investments	999 000	990 000
Hevrat Ovdim Secretariat	750 000	803 000
Workers Participation	62 500	93 000
Trade Union Department	4 753 000	4 962 000
Organization	541 000	570 500
Activities Among Arab Workers	1 302 500	1 398 000
Mutual Aid and Social Welfare	217 000	222 500
Education and Culture	3 978 000	4 745 000
Vocational Training	1 695 000	1 785 000
Encouragement of Study and Research	331 000	303 000
Higher Education	330 000	341 000
Youth and Sports	4 179 000	4 872 000
"Hechaluts" Youth in Diaspora	497 000	504 000
Immigrant Absorption and Development	519 000	519 000
Internal Relations	1 532 000	1 475 000
Judiciary and Control	1 485 500	2 156 000
Administration and Maintenance	2 366 000	2 525 000
General and Special Expenditure	258 500	978 000
Total	51 515 000	56 203 000
Less Savings and Reductions in Expenditure	—	1 000 000
TOTAL	51 515 000	55 203 000

REVENUE	1968	1969
Membership Dues	45 170 000	46 350 000
Institutions and Enterprises	5,400 000	6 300 000
Fund for Encouragement of Study and Research	37 500	—
Dividends and Miscellaneous Services	111 500	600 000
Income from Funds and Interest	420 000	853 000
Deficit	—	1 100 000
	376 000	—
TOTAL	51 515 000	55 203 000

* Provisional.

TRADE AND INDUSTRY

CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE

Joint Representation of the Israeli Chambers of Commerce: P.O. Box 501, Tel-Aviv; co-ordinates the Tel-Aviv, Jerusalem and Haifa Chambers of Commerce; Sec. F. B. WAHLE.

Jerusalem Chamber of Commerce: P.O.B. 183, 10 Hillel St., Jerusalem; f. 1908; about 300 mems.; Pres. M. H. ELIACHAR; publ. *Bulletin* (Hebrew and English).

Haifa Chamber of Commerce and Industry (Haifa and District): P.O.B. 176, 53 Haatzmaut Rd., Haifa; f. 1921; 700 mems.; Pres. M. LUNCZ; Gen. Sec. A. MEHOULAL.

Chamber of Commerce, Tel-Aviv-Jaffa: P.O.B. 501, 84 Hachashmonaim St., Tel-Aviv; f. 1919; Pres. A. BENYAKAR; Secs. D. GRAJCAR, F. B. WAHLE; publ. *Hamishar*.

Association of Bi-National Chambers of Commerce in Israel: 82 Allenby Road, Tel Aviv; incorporates the following bi-national chambers of commerce: Israel-America Chamber of Commerce and Industry; Anglo-Israel Chamber of Commerce; Australia-Israel Chamber of Commerce; Camara de Comercio e Industria Israel-Brasil; Canada-Israel Chamber of Commerce and Industry; Israel-Danish Chamber of Commerce; Chambre de Commerce Israel-France; Camera di Commercio Israel-Italia; Israel-Japan Chamber of Commerce; Israel-Latin America Chamber of Commerce; Netherlands-Israel Chamber of Commerce; Israel-Sweden Chamber of Commerce; Chambre de Commerce Israel-Belgique; Israel-Cyprus Chamber of Commerce; and Israel-Germany Chamber of Commerce; Chair. E. IZAKSON; Exec. Dir. H. ZUCKERMAN, O.B.E. and also incorporates Bi-National Chambers of Commerce existing in 22 foreign countries with Israel.

Anglo-Israel Chamber of Commerce (Israel): 82 Allenby Rd., Tel-Aviv, P.O.B. 1127; f. 1951; 320 mems.; Pres. Dr. A. S. ARNON, C.B.E.; Chair. A. S. COHEN, C.B.E.; Gen. Sec. H. ZUCKERMAN, O.B.E.; publs. *Anglo-Israel Trade Journal* (monthly).

TRADE AND INDUSTRIAL ORGANIZATIONS

Agricultural Union, The: Tchlenov 20, Tel-Aviv; consists of more than 50 agricultural settlements and is connected with marketing and supplying organizations, and Bahan Ltd., controllers and auditors.

Central Union of Artisans and Small Manufacturers: P.O.B. 4041, Tel-Aviv; f. 1907; has a membership of 40,000

divided into 70 groups according to trade; the union is led by a seven-man Presidium; publ. *Hamlakha*.

Citrus Control and Marketing Boards: 69 Haifa Road, Tel-Aviv; the government-established institution for the control of the Israel citrus industry; Boards made up of representatives of the Government and the Growers. Functions: Control of plantations, supervision of picking and packing operations; marketing of the crop overseas and on the home markets; shipping; supply of fertilisers, insecticides, equipment for orchards and packing houses and of packing materials; technical research and extension work; long-term financial assistance to growers.

Diamond Exchange of Israel: Tel-Aviv; f. 1968; production, export and finance facilities; estimated exports (1968) U.S. \$200m.

Farmers' Federation: P.O. Box 209, Tel-Aviv; has a membership of 7,000 independent farmers and citrus growers; Pres. ZVI IZACKSON; Dir.-Gen. ITZHAK ZIV-AY; publ. *The Israeli Farmer* (monthly).

General Association of Merchants in Israel: 6 Rothschild Boulevard, Tel-Aviv; the organization of retail traders; has a membership of 30,000 in 60 hrs.

Histadrut: 93 Arlosoroff Street, Tel-Aviv; f. 1920; membership of the Histadrut is open to all self-employed persons with no staff under them; Chair. of Employment Dept. BERL REPETUR (Achdut Ha'avoda); Sec. for Economic Enterprises ZEEV ONN (Mapai); (see also above, *The Histadrut* section.)

Israel Journalists' Association Ltd.: Tel-Aviv; Sec. MOSHE RON.

Manufacturers' Association of Israel: 13 Montefiore St., P.O.B. 29116, Tel-Aviv; Pres. MARK MOSEVICS; Gen. Man. Col. PELEG TAMIR; Gen. Sec. A. Z. CRYSTAL, F.C.C.S.; publ. *News Bulletin* (every two months).

TRADE UNIONS

Histadrut: (see *The Histadrut* section above).

Histadrut Haovdim Haleumit (National Labour Federation): 23 Sprinczak St., Tel-Aviv; f. 1934; 84,000 mems.; publs. *Hazit Ha'Oved*, *Lapid*.

Histadrut Hapoel Hamizrahi (Mizrahi Workers' Organization): 108 Ahad Haam St., Tel-Aviv; has 55,000 members in 75 settlements.

Histadrut Poalei Agudat Israel (Agudat Israel Workers' Organization): Geula Quarter, Corner Yehezkel St., Jerusalem; has 19,000 members in 12 settlements.

TRANSPORT

RAILWAYS

Israel Railways: P.O. Box 44, Haifa, a department of the Ministry of Communications. All its lines are managed and operated from Haifa. The total length of track in operation is 733 km. Traction is wholly diesel. Construction has begun on a railway to Eilat.

All lines in operation are standard gauge (4 ft 8½ in.).

The main flow of traffic is from Haifa Port and from the oil installations and industrial centres in the vicinity of Haifa and of minerals from Beersheba and Dimona to the north. Most of the citrus destined for export is shipped by rail to Haifa Port. The bulk of freight traffic consists of grain, provisions, cement and building materials, heavy bulk imported commodities, citrus minerals and oils. Passenger traffic is operated between the main towns Jerusalem, Tel Aviv, Haifa and Beersheba.

Gen. Man A. ZWICK, Principal Asst. M. ESHEL.

ROADS

Ministry of Labour, Public Works Dept., Jerusalem

There are 3,270 km of metalled main roads not including roads in towns and settlements. Under a five-year plan ending in 1975 the following works will be completed.

Two hundred km new roads to be built. 60 km additional two-lanes for existing roads, 500 km widening and improving existing roads.

In addition a 150 mile long first class road has been built between Eilat and Sharm el Sheikh during 1970-71.

Automobile and Touring Club of Israel (ATCI): 19 Petah Tikva Road, P.O. Box 2877, Tel Aviv, f 1949, over 11,000 mems, Sec-Gen Mrs C. NAHMAS, publ. *Mems* (monthly).

SHIPPING

The Israel Ports Authority: f 1961, to plan, build, develop, administer, maintain and operate the ports. In 1968/69 investment amounted to 1,118.7 m in expanding facilities in Haifa, Ashdod and Eilat Ports. Cargo traffic in 1970-71 amounted to 7.7 m tons (oil excluded).

ZIM Israel Navigation Co., Ltd.: 209 Hamegunim Blvd., Haifa, f 1945, runs cargo services in the Mediterranean and to N. Europe, N. and S. America, Far East, Africa and Australia. Chair. M. TZUR, Gen. Man. M. KASHTI.

Atid Cargo Lines Ltd.: P.O. Box 416, Haifa, f 1955, runs a small freighter fleet in the Mediterranean and to the U.K.

Cargo Ships "El-Yam" Limited: P.O. Box 2303, Tel Aviv, P.O. Box 182, Haifa, f 1953. Man. Dir. RAPHAEL RECANATI, a world wide cargo tramp service.

Mediterranean Seaways Ltd.: P.O. Box 1755, Haifa, br P.O. Box 409, Tel Aviv, f 1956.

Tanker Services Ltd.: 6 Achusat Bayit St., Tel Aviv, Man. Dir. E. RACINE, Man. A. MAYRON.

Haifa and Ashdod are the main ports in Israel. The former is a natural harbour, enclosed by two main breakwaters and dredged to 37 ft below mean sea level. An auxiliary harbour was opened in 1955. In 1965 the new deep water port was completed at Ashdod which has a capacity of about 4 million tons per year. The Tel Aviv/Jaffa ports were closed down in 1965 as their facilities were no longer adequate for Israel's needs.

Israel had (in 1966) a merchant fleet of 100 ships, with a displacement of approximately 1,000,000 tons.

The port of Eilat is Israel's gate to the Red Sea. It is a natural harbour, operated from a wharf. A new port, to the south of the original one, started operating in 1965.

CIVIL AVIATION

EL AL Israel Airlines Ltd.: Lod Airport, Tel Aviv, f 1949, daily services to Europe over twenty flights weekly to New York, services to Johannesburg, Teheran, Nairobi, Addis Ababa, Nicosia. Istanbul fleet consists of two Boeing 720-558B, three Boeing 707-458, two Boeing 707-320B. Pres. M. BEN ARI.

Arkia, Israel Inland Airlines Ltd.: 88 Ha Hashmonaim St., Tel Aviv, f 1950, daily services between Tel Aviv and Eilat, Tel Aviv and Jerusalem, Tel Aviv and Galilee, Tel Aviv and Massada, Tel Aviv and Abu Rodes, Tel Aviv and Sharm el Sheikh, Eilat and Sharm el Sheikh, Haifa and Eilat, Jerusalem and Eilat, Jerusalem and Galilee. Man. Dir. L. BRON.

The following airlines also serve Israel: Air France, Alitalia, AUA, BEA, BOAC, Cyprus Airways, KLM, Lufthansa, Olympic Airways, Sabena, S.A.S., Swissair, Tarom (Romania), THY (Turkey), TWA.

TOURISM

Ministry of Tourism: Hakirya, P.O. Box 1018, Jerusalem, information offices at Jerusalem, Tel Aviv, Haifa, Nazareth, Safad, Lod, International Airport, Beersheba, Tiberias, Ashkelon, Arad, Bethlehem, Acre, Netanya, Nahariya and Eilat, Minister of Tourism MOSHE KOL, Dir. Gen. H. GIVON, publ. *Annual Report, Statistical Year Book*.

There are also offices in the following countries: England (London), France (Paris), German Federal Republic (Frankfurt), Italy (Rome), Netherlands (Amsterdam), Switzerland (Zürich), Sweden (Stockholm), U.S.A. (New York, Chicago, Boston, Beverly Hills, Atlanta), Argentina (Buenos Aires), Canada (Montreal), Denmark (Copenhagen), Belgium (Brussels), South Africa (Johannesburg), Brazil (São Paulo), Australia (Sydney).

CULTURAL ORGANIZATIONS

Israel Festival Association: Migdal Shalom, Tel Aviv, P.O. Box 29874, organizes the Israel Festival which takes place in August in Caesarea and Jerusalem. Dir. A. Z. PROPPS.

Israel Music Institute: P.O. Box 11233, Tel Aviv, f 1961, publishes and promotes Israeli music and musicological works abroad, member since 1966 of International Music Information Centre. Chair. ELIEZER PERI, Dir. WILLIAM ELLIAS.

The National Council of Culture and Art: Hadar Daphna Bldg., Shaul Hamelech Blvd., Tel Aviv.

PRINCIPAL THEATRES

Cameri Theatre: Tel Aviv, f 1914, actor members co-operative, tours abroad.

Habimah National Theatre of Israel: P.O.B. 222, Tel-Aviv; f. 1918 in Russia, moved to Palestine 1928; Jewish, classical and modern drama.

Israel National Opera and Israel National Opera Ballet: 1 Allenby St., Tel-Aviv; f. 1947 by Edis de Philippe (Dir.); classical and modern opera and ballet; open 50 weeks of the year.

PRINCIPAL ORCHESTRAS

Haifa Symphony Orchestra: 50 Pevsner St., Haifa; Music Dir. AVI OSTROWSKY.

Israel Chamber Orchestra: 103 Ibn Gvirol St., Tel-Aviv; f. 1965; 35 mems.; Artistic Dir. GARY BERTINI.

Israel Philharmonic Orchestra: Frederic R. Mann Auditorium, Tel-Aviv; f. 1936 by Bronislaw Huberman; 106 mems.; frequent tours abroad; 35,000 subscribers. Concert Masters CHAIM TAUB, URI PIANKA.

The Israel Broadcasting Symphony Orchestra: Israel Broadcasting Authority, P.O.B. 1082, Jerusalem; f. 1938; 65 mems.; Dir. SHALOM RONLY-RIKLIS; Chief Conductor MENDI RODAN.

DANCE TROUPES

Bat-Dor Dance Company: 30 Ibn Gvirol St., Tel-Aviv; Dir. BATSHEVA DE ROTHSCHILD.

Batsheva Dance Company: 9 Sderoth Hahaskala, Tel-Aviv; Dir. BATSHEVA DE ROTHSCHILD.

Inbal Dance Theatre: Tel-Aviv; f. 1949; modern Israeli dance theatre specializing in their traditional folk art, with choreographic themes from the Bible; frequent tours abroad; Founder and Artistic Dir. SARA LEVI-TANAI.

FESTIVALS

Israel Festival: Caesarea; international festival; of music, dance and drama; f. 1961; one month annually July-August; organized by Israel Festival Association.

Ein Gev Music Festival: Kibbutz Ein Gev, Kinneret; international festival; annually for one week at Passover.

Zimriya: World Assembly of Choirs, comprising Israeli and international choirs; f. 1952; triennial; next assembly 1970.

ATOMIC ENERGY

Israel Atomic Energy Commission: 26 Rehov HaUniversita, Ramat Aviv, Tel-Aviv; also P.O.B. 7056 and P.O.B. 17120, Tel-Aviv; f. 1952; advises the Government on policies in nuclear research, supervises the implementation of approved policies and represents Israel in its relations with scientific institutions abroad and international organizations engaged in nuclear research and development (Israel is a member of IAEA); Chair. The PRIME MINISTER; Dir.-Gen. Prof. ISRAEL DOSTROVSKY.

The Atomic Energy Commission has two research and development centres: the Soreq Nuclear Research Centre and the Negev Nuclear Research Centre near Dimona. The main fields of research are: nuclear physics and chemistry, reactor physics, reactor engineering, radiation research and applications, application of isotopes, metallurgy, electronics, radiobiology, nuclear medicine, nuclear power and desalination. The centres also provide national services: health physics including film badge service, isotope production and molecule labelling, activation analysis, irradiation, advice to industry and institutions, training of personnel, technical courses, documentation.

Soreq Nuclear Research Centre: Yavne; f. 1952; equipped with a swimming pool type research reactor IRR-1 of 5MW thermal; Dir. SHALHEVETH FREIER.

Negev Nuclear Research Centre: Dimona; equipped with

a natural uranium fuelled and heavy water moderated reactor IRR-2 of 26 MW thermal; Dir. JOSEPH TULIPMAN.

Weizmann Institute of Science: Rehovoth; in the field of atomic energy, the Institute's equipment includes a 15 MeV Van de Graff accelerator and a production-scale plant for the separation of O_{17} and O_{18} from O_{16} ; the institute engages in research and teaching in physics, applied mathematics, chemistry, biology, chemical physics and electronics; Dirs. PETER HILLMAN, PH.D. (Nuclear Physics), ISRAEL DOSTROVSKY (Isotope Research), MICHAEL FELDMAN (Cell Biology).

The Hebrew University of Jerusalem: Jerusalem; engages in atomic research and teaching in chemistry, physics biology and medicine.

Technion: Israel Institute of Technology: Haifa; the Dept. of Physics engages in teaching and research in experimental and theoretical nuclear physics, elementary particle and high energy physics; the Dept. of Nuclear Science undertakes teaching and graduate work in applied nuclear science and engineering; research groups work in the fields of theoretical and experimental nuclear reactor physics, neutron physics, nuclear desalination, heat transfer, nuclear chemistry and technology and applications of nuclear radiations; Head, Nuclear Science Dept. Prof. N. H. SHAFRIR.

EDUCATION

The present day school system is based on the Compulsory Education Law (1949) the State Education Law (1953) and on some provisions of the 1933 Education Ordinance dating back to the British Mandatory Administration. The former introduced free compulsory primary education for all children between the ages of 5 and 14 (one kindergarten eight years elementary schooling) in addition those aged 14-18 who have not completed their elementary schooling have to attend special evening classes until they reach the necessary standard.

The State Education Law abolished the old complicated Trend Education System and vested the responsibility for Primary Education in the Government thus providing a unified State-controlled elementary school system. The law does however recognise two main forms of Primary Education—(a) State Education (b) Recognised Non State Education. State Education may be sub-divided into two distinct categories of schools—State Schools and State Religious Schools for Jews and State Schools for Arabs. Schools and kindergartens of the State system are in the joint ownership of the State and the Local Authorities while the recognised non State institutions are essentially privately owned although they are subsidised and supervised by the State and the Local Authorities. The standard curriculum for all elementary schools is laid down by the Ministry of Education and Culture but supplementary subjects comprising not more than 25 per cent of the syllabus may be included at the discretion of the school authorities subject to prior approval by the Minister.

The two largest non State school systems are the Agudat Israel Schools (of an ultra orthodox religious character) and the boarding schools mostly agricultural for young immigrants run by various voluntary bodies. The tendency is to strengthen the State System at the expense of the private schools the possibility of opting out of the State System existing out of deference to the democratic rights and liberties of the citizen.

State Primary Education is financed by a partnership of the Central Government and the Local Authorities. Since 1953 the salaries of all teachers and kindergarten mistresses of State Schools have been paid by the Central Government whilst the cost of maintenance and of maintenance services and the provision of new buildings and equipment have been the responsibility of the Local Authorities. The State does not impose an Education Tax but local authorities may with the Ministry's approval levy a rate on parents for special services.

School supervision is the prerogative of the Ministry of Education and Culture through the Director General of the Ministry and there are six District Inspectors and a varying number of School Inspectors. No supervision is carried out by the Local Authorities except over property and supplies. Two Pedagogical Secretariats one for primary and one for post primary schools co-ordinate educational work and deal with problems arising in the various branches of the Educational System.

The State provides different schools for the Jewish and Arab children because of the distribution of population and the language difference. Nevertheless many Arab children attend Jewish primary secondary vocational agricultural and even teacher training colleges. In the Jewish sector there is a distinct line of division between the secular State schools and the Religious State Schools which are established on the demand of parents in any locality provided that a certain minimum number of pupils have first been enrolled. In the Arab Schools all

instruction is in Arabic and there is a special department for Arabic Education in the Ministry of Education and Culture. Some 90 per cent of the Arab children attend school regularly but while almost all the boys attend school there is still reluctance on the part of some Arab parents to send girls to school. This reluctance has been overcome to a great extent by dividing the girls into separate classes and schools and the number of girls attending in 1966-67 was 70 per cent.

Particular attention is paid to retarded children and special classes are provided for them in the ordinary schools besides the moderate sized schools for backward and handicapped children which have been established by the Ministry.

Working Youth Schools are provided for boys and girls between the ages of 14 17 who have not completed their primary education. These schools provide a four year course their grades corresponding to grades 5-8 in the primary schools but there are also two preparatory classes for beginners mostly for the children of new immigrants.

Post Primary Education is of three main types. Secondary Vocational and Agricultural Secondary Education is under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education and Culture. The other two categories were administered by the Ministries of Labour and Agriculture respectively but passed over to the Ministry of Education in September 1960.

Secondary Schools In 1968-69 the Ministry of Education and Culture had under its supervision 193 Hebrew and 11 Arab secondary schools with 59 000 and 3 000 pupils respectively. No direct financial aid is given by the State to secondary schools except building loans. On the other hand the central government and local authorities assist children who have passed a preliminary test to pay their school fees. This assistance is given on a sliding scale according to the parents' means and obligations and may even cover the total cost. An official proposed syllabus has been published by the Ministry for use in these schools.

Vocational Training. There are three types of training available in this section of the Education System. Vocational Schools Apprenticeships and Vocational Training Courses for Adults.

In the school year 1968-69 there were 224 Hebrew and 5 Arab vocational schools with 43 600 and 370 pupils respectively. Almost all the courses extend over a period of three or four years and the students are boys and girls between the ages of 14 and 18. The curriculum consists of some 20 hours practical training and 24 hours instruction on industrial and general subjects each week.

Apprenticeship is regulated by the Apprenticeship Act of 1933 and all apprentices must attend apprenticeship schools one day a week. In 1961 there were 13 000 apprentices in industrial trades and crafts. There is no apprenticeship in agriculture most trades require 3-4 years apprenticeship which normally applies to youths from 14 18 years of age.

A programme of Pre Vocational Training for pupils in the last two grades of the Government Primary Schools was launched in 1955. This programme includes training in various trades hand crafts and agriculture and was intended to enable pupils continuing in the Vocational Schools to begin their studies in the second year of those schools. In fact they are now absorbed in the two year secondary schools and thus get four years of a mixed general and vocational education. The training is given in addition to the Primary School curriculum.

Vocational training for adults is divided into two sections: basic trade courses (day courses) which are intended for persons who have had no previous vocational training or have to change their occupation (mostly new immigrants), and supplementary training courses (evening classes), intended for the further education of already skilled workers. The courses are from 3–18 months; in 1960–61 there were 4,700 trainees in the basic courses and 3,800 in the supplementary training, not including training for commerce and office work.

Agricultural Schools: there are various kinds of schools offering training in agriculture, ranging from the Faculty of Agriculture of the Hebrew University, and the Rupin Institute courses for adults to the agricultural secondary schools and other training centres for youth.

In 1968–69 there were 31 agricultural schools of which one was for Arab pupils, including a fishing school, a school of horticulture, and an agricultural technical institute providing a diploma-course. Five of these (including the fishing school and the technical institute) are government schools; the others are financed by various organizations such as the Women Workers' Council, Women's International Zionist Organization, etc.

In 1968–69 there were over 8,000 Hebrew and 400 Arab pupils. Most schools have well-developed farms in which the pupils work for 3–4 hours a day. A 3-year course is usual and only a few have a 4-year course. Some 2-year courses are being opened in regional schools for farm-youth.

Teachers' Training. As the enrolment in schools throughout the country increases by about 20,000 pupils each year, the need for additional teachers is keenly felt. There are

59 Hebrew and one Arab teacher training colleges with 10,000 Hebrew and 370 Arab students respectively. To qualify as a teacher the student must have taken 14 years of study. Pupils normally complete the 12-year secondary school course and then go to a teachers' training college for a further two years. In these two years the student has practical teaching experience before sitting for the examination of the Ministry of Education and Culture.

Adult Education. Numerous facilities for adult education are offered both by institutions of higher learning and by various organizations. Special attention is being paid to the study of the Hebrew language and new immigrants have the opportunity to study Hebrew in intensive 5–6 month courses (*ulpanim*) some of which are conducted in agricultural settlements where students work for half the day to cover their living expenses. In 1966–67 the average number of regular students in all subjects was some 37,000.

The Occupied Territories. The educational system in the occupied parts of the adjacent Arab countries has been taken over with few changes. In the west bank 830 schools (200 run by UNRWA) had 6,200 teachers and 170,000 pupils. In the Gaza strip were 80 state and 100 UNRWA schools with 2,700 teachers and an enrolment of approximately 100,000, while there were 8 schools with 40 teachers and 1,000 pupils in Golan. Many of the textbooks have been replaced where material critical of Jews, Zionism or the State of Israel was discovered; at first, teachers and students refused to return to schools under Israeli control, but this school strike gradually lost force and within a year of the occupation most schools in the occupied territories were operating more or less normally.

ACADEMY

ISRAEL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES AND HUMANITIES

P.O.B. 4040, JERUSALEM

The Academy promotes work in the sciences and humanities, advises the government on scientific problems and maintains international contacts.

President: GERSHOM SCHOLEM.

Vice-President: ARYEH DVORETZKY.

Director-General: MOSHE AVIDOR.

Publications: *Proceedings* and occasional publications.

CHAIRMEN OF SECTIONS:

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Sciences: ERNST DAVID BERGMANN.

MEMBERS:

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AYALON, DAVID
BACHI, ROBERTO
BAER, YITZHAK FRITZ
BEN-HAYIM, ZEEV
BERGMAN, SHMUEL HUGO
BLAU, JOSHUA
DINUR, BEN-ZION
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PATINKIN, DAN
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SHIRMAN, HAYIM
TALMON, JACOB L.
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TUR-SINAI, NAPHTALI HERZ
URBACH, EFRAYIM E.
WIRSZURSKI, CHAIM
YADIN, YIGAL

Sciences:

AGMON, SAMUEL
AMITSUR, SHIMSHON
BAR-HILLEL, JOSHUA
BERENBLUM, ISAAC
BERGMANN, ERNST DAVID
BERGMANN, FELIX
BLOCH, MOSHE RUDOLF
COHEN, SOLLY GABRIEL
DVORETZKY, ARYEH
HAAS, GEORG
KATCHALSKY, EFRAIM
KATZIR-KATCHALSKY, AHARON
KOGAN, ABRAHAM
LIPKIN, ZVI HARRY
MICHAELSON, ISAAC CHESAR
NE'EMAN, YUVAL
OLLENDORFF, FRANZ
PEKERIS, CHAIM LEIB
PICARD, YEHUDA LEO
REINER, MARCUS
ROSEN, NATHAN
SABIN, ALBERT B.
TALMI, YIGAL
WERTHEIMER, HAYIM ERNST
ZOHARY, MICHAEL
ZONDEK, HERMAN

LEARNED SOCIETIES AND RESEARCH INSTITUTES

(see also under Universities)

Academic Circle of Tel Aviv P O Box 2425 Tel Aviv f 1956 to encourage all branches of scientific research and to promote co-operation between scientists in Israel and abroad Pres MOSHE T HURVITZ

Academy of the Hebrew Language P O Box 3419 Jerusalem and P O Box 7105 Tel Aviv f 1953 by Academy Law of the Knesset studies the vocabulary structure and history of the Hebrew language and is the official authority for its development is compiling an historical dictionary of the Hebrew language Pres Prof N H TUR SINAI Vice-Pres. Prof Z BEN HAYIM publs *Zikhronot Leshonenu Leshonenu La am* studies dictionaries

ACUM Ltd (Authors, Composers and Music Publishers Society) Acum House 118 Rothschild Blvd Tel Aviv (POB 11201) f 1936 750 mems Dir Gen M AVIDON F.I.A.L.

American Institute of Holy Land Studies Mount Zion Jerusalem, P.O.B. 1276 f 1939 independent educational corporation controlled by private board of directors in U.S.A Pres in Jerusalem G DOUGLAS LOUGHLIN

American School of Oriental Research Herod's Gate Jerusalem P O B 1910095 f 1900 2 000 mems library of 45 000 vols research projects in Semitic languages literatures and history archaeological surveys and excavations Pres G ERNEST WRIGHT Room 102 6 Divinity Ave Cambridge Mass. U.S.A. Dir (1968-69) KENNETH SCHNOOROVER s j publs *Annual Bulletin* (quarterly) *Biblical Archaeologist* (quarterly) *Journal of Cuneiform Studies* (quarterly)

Architectural Association of Israel P O Box 2425 Tel Aviv f 1952 aims to secure and define the legal and professional status of architects and to promote planning education offers its members an information service on all planning matters Pres Arch. JOSEPH HURVITZ Sec S D H KRIS

Association for the Advancement of Science in Israel P O B 7266 Jerusalem f 1953 4 000 mems Chair Prof D ABIR Sec. D KORN publ *Proceedings of Congress of Scientific Societies*

Association of Engineers and Architects in Israel 200 Duengoff Road Tel Aviv f 1922 bns Jerusalem Haila Nathanya Beersheba circa 5 000 mems Chair Arch. ARIEH SHARON Dir Gen ELHANAN PELLER library sec Libraries publs *Journal* (no issue annually) *Bulletin* (monthly) in Hebrew and English

Association of Hebrew Writers P O B 4151 Tel Aviv publ. *Motnayim* (monthly)

Association of Religious Writers Jerusalem P O B 7032 f 1936 Pres Rabbi S Y ZEVI Chair Rabbi Dr ZVI HARKAVY publs periodicals literary collections books

Atomic Energy Commission 26 Rm Hauniversita Ramat Aviv P O B 17120 Tel Aviv f 1952 advises the government on long term policies priorities and the advancement of nuclear research and development supervises the implementation of approved policies represent Israel in relations with scientific institutions and organizations abroad Chair The PRIME MINISTER Dir Gen Prof ISRAEL DOSTROVSKY

There are two research establishments Soreq and Negev Nuclear Research Centres

The Ben-Zvi Institute The Hebrew University Jerusalem f 1948 sponsors research in the history of Jewish communities from the tenth century to the present day maintains a large collection of MSS and other historical documents and photographic reproductions from the archives of libraries all over the world publs numerous books and documents

Belz Gordon Agriculture and Nature Institute Deganya A Emeq Ha Yarden f 1935 inaugurated 1941 regional and research centre and museum in natural sciences and agriculture Dir and Curator S LULAV (see library)

Biochemical Society of Israel c/o Weizmann Institute of Science Rehovoth f 1958 200 mems Chair N SHARON PH D Sec. S H KINDLER PH D

Botanical Society of Israel c/o The Volcani Institute of Agricultural Research Bet Dagan aims to promote the advancement of the fundamental and applied branches of botanical science conducts research organizes lectures and field work Pres R M SAMISHA Sec O REUVEN

British Council 140 Hayarkon St P O B 3302 Tel Aviv Rep R TWITE libraries in Tel Aviv (see Libraries) Jerusalem (15 300 vols) Jerusalem Old City (8 00 vols)

Centre de Recherches Préhistoriques en Israël P O B 1502 Jerusalem f 1958 Sec Dr M W PRAUSNITZ

Centre for Public Libraries P O B 7067 Jerusalem established by the Israel Library Assn Ministry of Education and Culture and Graduate Library School of the Hebrew University publs *Catalogue of New Books published in Israel* *Yad la Kof* (The Reader's Aid)

Central Institute for Cultural Relations with Ibero America, Spain and Portugal 6 Sokolow St Jerusalem f 1955 120 mems in Israel 2 000 mems in Latin America library of 5 000 vols Dr Y GOVRIK Exec Sec RACHEL TOV publs *Artel Activities Bulletin*

Department of Antiquities and Museums (Ministry of Education and Culture) Israel Museum compound, Ruppel Rd Rockefeller Building East Jerusalem (Store Rooms 25 Shelomo Hamelekh St. Jerusalem P O B 586) f 1948 engages in archaeological excavations and surveys inspection and preservation of antiquities and ancient sites scientific publications *See also* Israel Museum Research Archives and Library of the Dept of Antiquities Dir of Antiquities Dr A BIRAN

The Harry Fischel Institute for Research in Talmud and Jewish Law Israel Aharon Fischel St Jerusalem f 1932 seminary for Rabbis and Rabbinical Judges legislation and research publications codification of Jewish law Jewish adult education centre 80 mems affiliated with Herzog World Academy of Jewish Studies Pres Rabbi Dr HERBERT S GOLDSTEIN Dir Rabbi SHEAR YASHUV COHEN M JUR ADV

Hechal Shlomo (Seat of Chief Rabbinate) King George St Jerusalem f 1958 centre for Rabbinic Research and religious information contains Central Rabbinical Library of Israel museum and Rabbinical Law Courts Hechal Shlomo is governed by a Committee which includes Rabbi ISSER YEHUDAH UNTERMAN and Rabbi YITZCHAK NISSIM the Chief Rabbis of Israel Dir M A JAFFE LL B

- Henrietta Szold Institute—National Institute for Research in the Behavioural Sciences:** Ruth Bressler Center for Research in Education, Columbia St., Kiryat Menachem, Jerusalem; f. 1941; non-profit organization to undertake research on human behaviour, with special emphasis on children and youth; Dir. CHANAN RAPAPORT, PH.D.; publs. *Megamot* (quarterly), *Be'ad, Ve-Neged* (Pro and Con) pamphlet series for teachers and youth leaders.
- Herzog World Academy of Jewish Studies:** P.O.B. 5199, Jerusalem.
- Historical Society of Israel, The:** P.O.B. 1062, Jerusalem; f. 1925 to promote the study of Jewish history and general history; 850 mems.; Pres. Prof. B. DINUR; publ. *Zion* (quarterly), containing summaries in English.
- Institut Français:** 111 Hayarkon St., Tel-Aviv.
- Institute for International Sociological Research:** P.O.B. 7025, Tel-Aviv; f. 1964; Arts and Literature, Diplomatic and International Affairs, Moral and Behavioural Sciences, Social and Political Sciences; Dir.-Gen. Dr. EDWARD S. ELLENBERG; publs. *Quarterly Newsletter*, *Annual Report*, etc.
- Institute for Petroleum Research and Geophysics:** P.O.B. 269, Holon; f. 1957; activities devoted chiefly to the exploration of petroleum, water and mineral resources and to engineering studies in Israel and abroad; documentation unit; data processing centre; Dir. Dr. A. GINZBURG.
- Israel Association of Archaeologists:** P.O.B. 586, Jerusalem; f. 1955; a professional organization; Sec. Dr. M. W. PRASUNITZ.
- Israel Bar Association:** P.O.B. 1881, Tel-Aviv; 4,300 mems.; Pres. J. ROTENSTREICH; Sec.-Gen. B. GEICHMAN; Exec. Dir. M. SZATMARY; publ. *Haprahliit* (quarterly).
- Israel Chemical Society:** 30 Yehuda Halevy St., Tel-Aviv; a scientific and professional association; holds two conventions each year and organizes lectures and symposia in various parts of Israel; the society represents Israel in the International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry; Chair. Exec. Council Dr. HERBERT BERNSTEIN; Gen. Sec. Dr. I. BLANK.
- Israel Exploration Society:** 3 Shemuel ha-Nagid St., P.O.B. 7041, Jerusalem; f. 1913; aims: (a) to engage in excavations and allied research into the history and geography of Israel; (b) to publish the results of such research; (c) to educate the public in these matters by means of congresses, general meetings, etc.; 2,500 mems.; Chair. of Exec. Cttee. Prof. Y. YADIN; Pres. Prof. B. MAZAR; Hon. Sec. J. AVIRAM; publs. *Eretz-Israel* (Hebrew annual), *Qadmoniot* (Hebrew quarterly), *Israel Exploration Journal* (English quarterly).
- Israel Geographical Society:** c/o Dept. of Geography, Hebrew University, Jerusalem; f. 1961; 200 mems.; Pres. Prof. D. H. K. AMIRAN; Sec. Dr. S. REICHMAN; publ. *Alon Geography*.
- Israel Geological Society:** P.O.B. 1239, Jerusalem; f. 1954; 250 mems.; Pres. A. ISSAR, PH.D.; Sec. B. BUCHBINDER, M.Sc.; publ. *Bulletin*.
- Israel Gerontological Society:** P.O.B. 11243, Tel-Aviv; f. 1958; 150 mems.; Chair. S. BERGMAN, M.S., A.C.S.W.; publ. *Information Bulletin* (quarterly).
- Israel Institute for Biological Research:** P.O.B. 19, Ness Ziona; f. 1952; both basic and applied research in public health and preventive medicine; particularly concerned with bacterial and viral infections, epidemiology, insect toxicology, air pollution and the development and testing of new drugs; library of 50,000 vols. and 800 periodicals; affiliated to Tel-Aviv University; 15 departments; Scientific Dir. A. KOHN, PH.D.; publ. *OHOLO Annual Biology Conference*.
- Israel Institute of Applied Social Research:** 19 George Washington St., P.O.B. 7150, Jerusalem; f. 1948; conducts research in social psychology, educational psychology, management, communications and related fields; 60 mems.; library of 2,500 vols.; Scientific Dir. LOUIS GUTTMAN; Exec. Dir. UZI PELED; publs. *Yedion* (Hebrew) quarterly, bi-annual research report in English.
- Israel Institute of Productivity:** 4 Henrietta Szold Street, P.O.B. 33010, Tel-Aviv; publs. *Hamif'al*, *Eichut*.
- Israel Librarian's Association:** P.O.B. 7067, Jerusalem; f. 1952; Information centre for Public Libraries established conjointly by the Ministry of Education and Culture and the Graduate Library School of the Hebrew University of Jerusalem; professional and examining body; 1,300 mems.; Chair. Dr. A. ALSBERG; Vice-Chair. M. Z. BARKAY, M.A.; Sec. I. SLOUTZKY; publ. *Information Bulletin*.
- Israel Mathematical Union:** Dept. of Mathematics, Bar-Ilan University, Ramat-Gan; f. 1953; 170 mems.; Chair. Prof. A. FRAENKEL; Sec. Prof. J. MUSKAT; Treas. Dr. S. FEIGELSTOCK.
- Israel Medical Association:** Central Committee, Hadar Dafna Building, 39 Shaul Hamelech, Tel-Aviv; f. 1912; 18 brs. in Israel; 5,700 mems. in Israel, 10,000 mems. abroad; Pres. Dr. N. KAPLINSKY; publs. *Harefuha*, *Mikhtav Lekhaver* (fortnightly in Hebrew), *Quarterly Review* (English), *Bulletin de L'A.M.I.* (French), *Israel Journal of Medical Science* (bi-monthly in English).
- Israel Meteorological Service:** P.O.B. 25, Bet Dagan; f. 1936; provides general service to public and detailed service to various orgs.; library; various publications; Dir. G. STEINITZ.
- Israel Music Institute:** P.O.B. 11253, Tel-Aviv; f. 1961; publishes and promotes Israeli music and musicological works throughout the world; since 1969 member of the International Music Information Centre; Dir. WILLIAM ELIAS.
- Israel Oriental Society, The:** The Hebrew University, Jerusalem; f. 1949; aims to promote interest in and knowledge of life in the Middle East, Asia and Africa; arranges lectures and symposia to study all aspects of contemporary Middle Eastern, Asian and African affairs; Pres. E. ELATH; publs. *Hamizrah Hehadash (The New East)* (quarterly 1950-70), *Oriental Notes and Studies* (scientific monographs 1951-66); *Asian and African Studies* (annual 1965-).
- Israel Physical Society:** c/o Danciger "B" Bldg., The Hebrew University, Jerusalem; f. 1954; Sec. Dr. N. KAPLAN; 250 mems.; publ. *I.P.S. Bulletin* (annual).
- Israel Political Sciences Association:** c/o Hebrew University, P.O.B. 214, Jerusalem; research and discussions on political and economic problems; the Israel Economic Society (f. 1921) is now incorporated in the Association; Chair. AVRAHAM HARMAN; Hon. Sec. B. KNEI-PAZ.
- Israel Psychological Association:** c/o Department of Psychology, Bar-Ilan University, Ramat-Gan; f. 1958; 400 mems.; Pres. Prof. LOUIS GUTTMAN; Gen. Sec. D. A. KIPPER, PH.D.
- Israel Society of Aeronautics and Astronautics:** Dept. of Aeronautical Engineering, Technion City, Haifa; f. 1951 as Israel Society of Aeronautical Sciences, merged 1968 with Israel Astronautical Society; lectures and conferences to foster the growth of aerospace science;

ISRAEL—(LEARNED SOCIETIES AND RESEARCH INSTITUTES)

- c 400 mems Chair Prof DAVID ABIR Sec N JILACHEVSKY publ *Proceedings*
- Israel Society for Biblical Research** 9 Rehov Brenner Jerusalem affiliated with the World Jewish Bible Society aims to disseminate a knowledge of the scriptures by organizing lectures and meetings 73 hrs throughout the world each with its own study circle of Bible scholars and research workers Chair (World Society) H E Pres ZALMAN SHAZAR Chair (Israel Society) and Exec Dir (World Society) Dr HAIM M I GEVARYAHU Cultural Dir Rabbi Dr S M LEHRMAN publs *Beit Midra* (quarterly) *El Ha ayin Dor L dor*
- Israel Society of Allergology** 23 Balfour Street, Tel Aviv f 1949 about 30 mems Pres Dr N LASS
- Israel Society of Criminology** P O B 1260 Jerusalem 350 mems Pres ZVI BERNSON Sec Dr M HOROWITZ publ *Delinquency and Society*
- Israel Society of the History of Medicine and Science** 68 Shlomo Ha Melekh Tel Aviv f 1947 100 mems Chair Prof J O LEIBOVITZ Hon. Sec D MARGALITH publ *I oroth* (Hebrew and English quarterly)
- Israeli Centre of the World Union of Jewish Students** 19 Reyness St. Huryat Moshe Jerusalem hrs at Techn on Haifa Tel Aviv University and Bar Ilan University international graduate institute for Hebrew and Jewish studies the cultural and educational centre of the W U J S Sec DAN SCHMITZ publ *Hillel*
- Istituto Italiano di Cultura** Via Megiddo 11 Tel Aviv Dir Prof. ELSA GERLINI
- Mekias Nirdamin Society** 22 Hatibonim Street Jerusalem f 1863 the society publishes Hebrew works of the older classical Jewish literature 600 mems Pres S J AGNON Sec. Prof. E E URBACH
- Mosad Harav Kook** P O B 642 Jerusalem f 1937 to educate and train young men for research in the field of Torah Literature and to infuse the original Hebrew culture in all classes of the people Dir I RAPHAEL publs Torah Science books including the printing of MSS of previously unpublished Rishonim works that are still retained in Genizah form
- Museums Association of Israel** P O B 303 Tel Aviv f 1966 35 member museums Pres Dr B KADURY publ list of museums (bi annually)
- National Council for Research and Development** Building No 3 Hakurya Jerusalem attached to the Prime Minister's office formulates national policy for research and development advises the government on the allocation of funds for research and development through its own laboratories conducts research in various fields Dir Dr E TAL publs *Israel Journal of Chemistry Zoology Technology Botany Experimental Medicine Mathematics Earth Sciences* issued by the Weizmann Science Press
- National Physical Laboratory of Israel** Hebrew University Campus Jerusalem f 1950 basic physical standards and applied research in the physical sciences special interest in energy conversion as harnessing of solar energy Dir H TABOR B SC PH D A INST P
- Centre of Scientific and Technological Information** 84 Hachashonaim St P O B 20125 Tel Aviv f 1960 aims to advance and co-ordinate scientific and technological activities in Israel including training professional manpower to provide international contacts in the fields of information Dir C KERN publs *Guides to Sources of Information* (series) *Calendar to Forthcoming Scientific and Technological Meetings in Israel* (semi annual) *Desinat on Abstracts* (quarterly) and *Contents Pages in Electricity and Electronics*
- Negev Institute for Arid Zone Research** P O B 1025 Beer sheva f 1956 engages in research for development and rehabilitation of the Negev and similar arid zones includes aspects of engineering chemistry biology and environmental sciences Dir J SCHECHTER
- Orientalisches Institut der Görres Gesellschaft** (*Oriental Inst tute of the Görres Society*) Jerusalem historical and archaeological studies
- Rogoff-Wellcome Medical Research Institute** Beilinson Hospital P O B 85 Petah Tikva f 1955 Dir Prof A DE VRIES MD PhD
- Sea Fisheries Research Station** P O B 699 Haifa f 1945 division of Department of Fisheries Ministry of Agriculture inshore pelagic and deep sea fisheries and basic oceanographic research Dir Dr O H OREN publ *Bulletin*
- Society of Municipal Engineers of Israel** 200 Dizengoff St Tel Aviv f 1937 110 mems. Pres Ing J KOEN MAEAT Sec Ing M LAOR MAEAT
- Standards Institution of Israel**, The Bney Yisra el St Ramat Aviv Tel Aviv f 1945 tests the compliance of commodities with the requirements of standard specifications conducts technological research, publishes the National Standards Specifications and Codes library of 130 000 vols Dir AARON GILAT MECHZ publ *Misti* (bi monthly)
- Studium Biblicum Franciscanum** P O B 19424 The Flagellation Jerusalem (Old City) f 1927 centre of Biblical studies for the Franciscan order affiliated to the Pontifical *Ateneo Antoniano* Rome publ *Studi Bibli ci Franciscani Liber Annuus Coll Mayor ard Minor Analecta* library and museum (see below)
- US Information Center** 20 Bialik Street Tel Aviv libraries at Tel Aviv Jerusalem and Haifa
- Volcani Institute of Agricultural Research** P O B 6 Bet Dagan f 1921 fundamental and applied research in agriculture numerous scientific projects at 5 experimental stations controlled by Min. of Agriculture and affiliated to the Hebrew University publs *Helvum and The Israeli Journal of Agricultural Research* (both quarterly) Dir Dr YOASH VAADIA
- Weizmann Institute of Science** see under Universities
- Wilfrid Israel House for Oriental Art and Studies** Kibbutz Hazorea Post Hazorea (near Haifa) f 1947 opened 1951 in memory of the late Wilfrid Israel a cultural centre for reading study and art exhibitions houses the Wilfrid Israel collection of Near and Far Eastern art and cultural material local archaeological exhibits from neolithic to Byzantine times science and art library Dr Dr U K BAER Curator E MEIRHOFF
- Zoological Society of Israel** c/o Dept of Parasitology Tel Aviv University Tel Aviv f 1940 100 mems Chair Prof J KUGLER

LIBRARIES AND ARCHIVES

- Amli Central Music Library in Israel:** 1 Huberman St., Tel-Aviv (P.O.B. 11229); f. 1950; 42,000 vols., 12,000 records, Bronislav Huberman collection; Librarian TZVI AVNI.
- Bar-Ilan University Library:** Ramat-Gan; f. 1955; 150,000 vols. and 1,450 current journals; special collections include the Mordecai Margulies collection of rare 16th and 17th century Hebrew books and 700 Hebrew Oriental manuscripts, Abram Spiro collection of philology, Old Testament criticism, material on the Dead Sea Scrolls, and the Samaritans; and a collection of material on the development of Religious Zionism; Dir. I. GOLDBERG.
- Bibliothèque de l'Ecole Biblique et Archéologique Française:** P.O.B. 178, Jerusalem; f. 1890; about 50,000 vols.; Librarian F. L. LEMOINE.
- Borochoy Library:** c/o Haifa Labour Council, P.O. Box 5226, Haifa; f. 1921; number of volumes, 40,000 in central library, 60,000 in twenty-four branches; Chief Librarian EZECHIEL OREN.
- British Council Library:** Tel-Aviv; f. 1950; 17,100 vols.; Librarian T. J. MAUGHAN.
- Central Agricultural Library:** 25 Lilienblum Street, P.O. Box 1575, Tel-Aviv; f. 1938; 32,000 books and 40,000 booklets, in Hebrew, English, Russian, German and French; 6,327 books lent during 1963; Librarian ISRAEL BEN-SHEM.
- Central Rabbinical Library of Israel:** Heichal Shlomo, Jerusalem; f. 1953; 50,000 vols. on Rabbinica and Judaica; Dir. and Chief Librarian Rabbi Dr. Zvi HARKAVY; publ. *Hasefer* (The Book, annual).
- Central Zionist Archives, The:** P.O.B. 92, Jerusalem; f. 1919; number of volumes 62,000, 3,900 m. of files; 4,400 newspapers, 90,000 pictures, 300 private archives and collections; 220 magnetic tapes; 165,000 items of small printed matter; Dir. Dr. M. HEYMANN; Librarian Mrs. H. ABRAHAMI; publs. complete Hebrew edn. of Theodor Herzl's writings; guides to the collections; selected documents; *Zionist Literature* (monthly bibliographic bulletin).
- "Dvir Bialik" Municipal Central Public Library:** Hibat-Zion St. 14, Ramat-Gan; f. 1945; number of volumes, 160,000, including special Rabbinic literature collection; maintains nine branches; Chief Librarian JERACHMIEL SLUZKY.
- General Archives of the City of Tel-Aviv-Yafo:** Municipality Building, Kikar Malkhei Israel, Tel-Aviv; Chief Registrar PINCHAS RASSIS; Archivist Dr. ARYEH YODFAT.
- Gulbenkian Library** (Donated by the late Mr. CALOUSTE GULBENKIAN): Armenian Patriarchate, P.O.B. 14106, Old City, Jerusalem; f. 1929; the library is one of the three great Armenian libraries in the diaspora, the others being the Mekhitarist Father's Library in Venice and another in Vienna; public library circa 60,000 vols. of which 20,000 are Armenian; 521 members; Sec. SAHAG KALAYDJIAN; receives over 300 newspapers, magazines, periodicals (of which more than half are Armenian) from foreign countries; complete collections of newspapers and magazines dating from the 1850's are maintained, and a copy of the oldest and first Armenian newspaper, *Azatar*, published in Madras in 1794; also a library of 3,800 Armenian manuscripts (Manuscripts Librarian Bishop NORAYR BOGHARIAN); publ. *Sion* (monthly) official organ of the Armenian Patriarchate.
- Hirsch German Library:** Tel-Aviv; f. 1967 in memory of Dr. WALTER HIRSCH.
- Jerusalem City (Public) Library:** Beth Ha'am, Jerusalem; f. 1961; 160,000 vols.; 8 hrs. in West and 3 in East Jerusalem, and 1 Bookmobile; Dir. Mrs. RACHEL COHEN.
- Jewish Historical General Archives, The:** P.O.B. 1062; Jerusalem; f. 1940; maintained by the Historical Society of Israel; Dir. D. J. COHEN, PH.D.; this institution is intended to serve as the central archives of Jewish history.
- Jewish National and University Library:** P.O.B. 503, Jerusalem; f. 1884; number of volumes: two million, including those on the Mount Scopus premises; 7,300 MSS. 155 incunabula (70 in Hebrew and 85 in other languages); large medical department with 130,000 bound volumes of periodicals and 35,000 books, to which 21 branch medical libraries are affiliated; special collections include the Dr. Abraham Schwadron Collection of Jewish Autographs and Portraits, the Dr. Harry Friedenwald Collection on the History of Medicine, the private Music Collection of Serge Koussevitsky, the Prof. M. Buber archives, the National Sound Archives and the Jacob Michael Collection of Jewish Music; Dir. Dr. ISRAEL ADLER; publ. *Kirjath Sepher* (quarterly).
- Kfar Giladi Library:** Kfar Giladi, Upper Galilee; f. 1934; number of volumes 35,000, 110 periodicals; maintains reading-room for members of the Kfar Giladi settlement; organises concerts and exhibitions of paintings; collection of classical music records; Librarian M. O. MAYER.
- Library of the Beth Gordon Institute of Agriculture and Natural Sciences:** Deganya A, Emeq Ha Yarden; 50,000 vols. of which 13,000 in Hebrew; also periodicals; Librarian M. ISRAEL.
- Library of the Association of Engineers and Architects in Israel:** 200 Dizgenoff Rd., Tel-Aviv; f. 1939; covers all branches of engineering and chemical technology; open to the general public; 15,000 vols., 280 current periodicals; Librarian Mrs. L. VILENTCHUK, C.E.
- Library of the Central Bureau of Statistics:** P.O.B. 13015, Hakiryia-Jerusalem; f. 1948; approx. 25,000 vols.; Dir. D. NEUMANN; Librarian G. GRAUSE.
- Library of the Israel Department of Antiquities and Museums** (Ministry of Education and Culture): Rockefeller Building, East Jerusalem, P.O.B. 586, Jerusalem; collections mainly on the archaeology, ancient history and civilizations of Israel and the Middle East; Dir. of Antiquities Dr. A. BIRAN; Librarian Dr. M. CASSUTO SALZMANN.
- Library of the Knesset:** Knesset, Jerusalem; f. 1949; principally for members use; 45,000 vols., including books, bound periodicals and collection of all Israeli Government publications and UN publications; Librarian S. WASSERMANN.
- Library of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs:** Hakiryia; f. 1948; 25,000 vols., 6,000 pamphlets, 300 periodicals.
- Library of the Ministry of Justice:** P.O.B. 1087, 21 Jaffa Rd., Jerusalem; f. 1922; including 19 branch libraries, 45,000 vols.; Chief Librarian Dr. A. SILBERFELD.
- Library of the Monastery of St. Catherine:** Mount Sinai; f. A.D. 327; over 3,300 MSS.; the Codex Sinaiticus was discovered in this library in 1856.

ISRAEL—(LIBRARIES AND ARCHIVES)

Library of the National and University Institute of Agriculture P.O.B. 12 Rehovot f 1960 serves the Volcani Institute of Agricultural Research and the Hebrew University's Faculty of Agriculture maintains exchange relations all over the world 85 000 vols 2 600 current periodicals and serials br l library at Beth Dagan regional libraries at Gilath and Yve Ya ar Librarian Mrs N CZARNY

Library of the Pontifical Biblical Institute King David and Botta Streets Jerusalem f 1937 number of volumes 9 500 chiefly on Palestine archaeology and geography also small museum with most of the discoveries from the excavations at Tell elat Ghassul Librarian and Dir Rev Prof Louis SEMKOWSKI S.J

Library of the Seminar Hakibbutzim Tel Aviv 40 000 vols Librarian RACHEL SHACHAR

Library of the Studium Biblicum Franciscanum P.O.B. 19424 Convent of the Flagellation via Dolorosa Jerusalem f 1924 10 000 vols chiefly on archaeology and biblical studies 20 mems Librarian Fr AUG SPIJKERMAN O.F.M. publ *Liber Annus* annually

Library of the Supreme Court Jerusalem f 1949 14 500 vols Librarian J HAI ISAC

Municipal Library 25 King Saul Boulevard Tel Aviv P.O.B. 32 f 1891 number of volumes 165 000 general library in 12 languages with eleven branches comprising 127 823 volumes City Librarian ITZHAK LEXER

Pevsner Public Library 54 Pevsner St. P.O.B. 5345 Haifa f 1934 165 000 vols covering all fields of literature and science in Hebrew English German French Polish and Russian Chief Librarian M TYNER JUNGSTEIN

Public Library in Memory of William and Chia Boorstein Nahariya f 1946 under the professional supervision of the Jewish National and University Library Jerusalem number of volumes 30 000 Dir HAIM ADAR Librarian REUVEN ISRAELI

Rambam Library 22 Mazz Street, Tel Aviv f 1935 40 000 volumes Librarian Rabbi R. MARGALIOY

Research Archives of the Israel Department of Antiquities and Museums (Ministry of Education and Culture) Israel Museum compound Rockefeller Bldg Ruppin

Rd P.O.B. 586 Jerusalem f 1948 written records photographic records maps and plans Dir of Antiquities Dr A. BIRAN Archivist Y. H. LANDAU

Schocken Library Rehavia Jerusalem f 1909 number of volumes 55 000 MSS 200 photostats (Hebrew Liturgy and Poetry) 20 000 etchings and drawings 2 000 Librarian H. J. KATZENSTEIN

Supreme Mosque Library Mosque of Omar Jerusalem f 1931 contains Arabic and Islamic MSS

Technion—Israel Institute of Technology Elyachar Library Technion City Haifa f 1925 centre for scientific and technical information in Israel open to the public 82 000 vols 75 000 vols of bound periodicals 5 500 current periodicals photocopying service Dir A. LEBOVITZ M.Sc.

Tel Aviv University Library P.O.B. 17038 Ramat Aviv Tel Aviv f 1954 250 000 vols incl special collections of Prof F. Bodenheimer (Zoology) the Perelman Collect on (Jewish Studies and Archaeology) the Assaf Simchoni Library (Military History) Dir Dr H. SHAMIR

University of Haifa Library Mount Carmel Haifa f 1951 180 000 vols covering humanities and social sciences Librarian S. SEVER

Weizmann Archives Neveh Weizmann Rehovoth f 1950 contains assembled letters papers and other documents relating to political and scientific activities of late First President of Israel approx 100 000 items Weizmann Exhibition gives graphic depiction of late President's life Dir Archives JULIAN L. MELTZER Asst. Curator Mrs. L. CALER

Weizmann Institute of Science Libraries Rehovoth f 1934 Wax Central Library and five regional libraries number of vols 85 000 Librarian Mrs A. ROSENHECK

Workers' Library New Histradrut Building Jerusalem f 1950 87 300 vols including children's books fiction and popular science special emphasis on Hebrew literature Jewish history and social sciences three branch libraries Chief Librarian SHALOM YORLI

Y.M.C.A. Library P.O. Box 294 David Hamelech Street Jerusalem f 1935 number of volumes 25 000 Librarian Mrs HELEN MYER

MUSEUMS

Akko Municipal Museum: Akko, Old City; f. 1954; housed in an old Turkish bathhouse; collections of local antiquities; medieval and modern Arab and Druze folklore; arms and oriental jewellery section; Crusader excavations; Dir. M. YEHELI.

Archaeological (Rockefeller) Museum: Department of Antiquities and Museums, Ministry of Education and Culture, Rockefeller Bldg., P.O.B. 586, East Jerusalem.

Beit Ha'Omanim (*Association of Painters and Sculptors' Artists' House*): 12 Shmuel Hanagid St., Jerusalem; David Hamelech St., Jerusalem; exhibitions and permanent gallery of works by Jerusalem artists.

Beth Shean Museum: Beth Shean; prehistoric flint, pottery, bronze, etc.; Roman and Byzantine mosaics; remains of the Roman theatre, Canaanite and Israelite culture, Scythopolis and Decapolis coins; Curator NEHEMIA TSORI.

"Bezalel" National Art Museum: P.O.B. 1299, Hakirya; f. 1906; part of the Israel Museum; large collection of Jewish ceremonial art, ethnological objects, paintings, sculptures, drawings and prints; temporary exhibitions; art library; youth art programme; lending library of reproductions; Acting Chief Curator Mrs. ELISHERA COHEN.

Caesarea Museum: Kibbutz Sedot Yam; f. 1950; collection of antiquities from the region of ancient Caesarea; Dir. A. WEGMAN.

Ethnological Museum and Folklore Archives: 19 Arlosoroff St., Haifa; ethnographical material from all countries, with special emphasis on Israel; collection of folk tales from Israel; Dir. Dr. Dov NOY; Curator Dr. EDITH VARGA-BIRO.

Glicenstein Museum: Safad; f. 1953; paintings and sculptures of the late Hanoch Glicenstein; Dir. EMANUEL ROMANO GLICENSTEIN.

Haaretz Museum: nr. Ramat Aviv, Tel-Aviv, P.O.B. 17068; comprises the following collections which are housed in different pavilions and are intended to form a museum of Eastern Mediterranean Cultures; library of approx. 5,000 vols. (including numismatic section); Dir. Dr. B. KADURY; publ. *Bulletin* (annual).

Alphabet Museum: f. 1965; documentary exhibition on the development of writing all over the world, showing emergence of our present alphabets; Dir. Prof. D. DIRINGER.

Ceramics Museum: f. 1966; exhibition showing pottery in service of men and demonstrating the significance of pottery in the study of human history; Curator Dr. PIRHYA BECK.

Glass Museum: f. 1959; contains ancient glass from about 1500 B.C.; Curator GUSTA LEHRER.

Historical Museum of Tel-Aviv: 26 Bialik St., Tel-Aviv; f. 1959; documents, letters, notes and photographs relating to the city's foundation; Dir. Mrs. A. KAPLAN.

Kadman Numismatic Museum: f. 1962; history of coinage from beginnings to present day; Dir. A. KINDLER.

Museum of Antiquities of Tel-Aviv-Yafo: f. 1961; exhibition of archaeological findings excavated in the Yafo-Tel-Aviv area, ranging from Neolithic to Byzantine Period; Dir. Dr. J. KAPLAN.

Museum of Ethnography and Folklore: f. 1963; exhibition of Jewish popular art and costumes; Dir. Ing. D. DAVIDOWITZ.

Museum of Science and Technology: f. 1964; exhibition of applied mathematics, physics, aeronautics, energy; planetarium; Ing. I. MOSCOWITZ.

Tel-Quasila Excavations: f. 1948; findings from excavations of Israelite city, ranging from Period of Monarchy to Islamic Period.

Hayim Sturman House: Museum and regional centre for science and education in Gilboa-Beth-Shean Region; District Council Gilboa, M.P. Gilboa; f. 1941; depts. of archaeology, history, economy, natural history and defence; Dir. S. SEVORAI.

Herzl Museum: Har Herzl, Jerusalem; f. 1960.

Israel Museum: Jerusalem; f. 1965; includes the Samuel Bronfman Biblical and Archaeological Museum, the Art Museum—Bezalel National Museum—the Billy Rose Art Garden, and the Shrine of the Book, which houses the Dead Sea Scrolls, and a Youth Wing; Artistic Adviser and Chair. of Exec. Cttee. Sir PHILIP HENDY; Admin. Dir. DANIEL GELMOND; Curators: Prof. SAUL WEINBERG (Samuel Bronfman Biblical and Archaeological Museum), Mrs. ELISHERA COHEN (Bezalel National Art Museum), MAGEN BROSH (D.S. and R.H. Gottesman Centre for Biblical MSS. at the Shrine of the Book), AYALA GORDON (Youth Wing); Art Library of 30,000 vols.

Jabotinsky Museum: King George Street, Tel-Aviv.

Ma'ayan Baruch Prehistoric Museum of the Huleh Valley: Ma'ayan Baruch, Upper Galilee; f. 1952; regional antiquities including implements from all prehistoric periods and exhibits from Middle Bronze Age tombs and from Roman and Byzantine periods; Dir. A. ASSAF.

Maritime Museum: 2 Hanamal Street, Haifa; f. 1954; large collection of ship models illustrating 5,000 years of navigation and shipbuilding, old maps, undersea archaeology, and ancient coins connected with seafaring; Dir. Lt.-Cdr. A. BEN ELI; publ. *Sefunim* (annual).

Municipal Museum of Antiquities: Tiberias; f. 1953; collection of antiquities from Tiberias and region, mainly of the Roman, Byzantine and Arab periods; Dir. ELISHEVA BALLHORN.

Museum of Ancient Art: Municipality, Haifa; f. 1948; Greek and Roman sculpture and terracottas; archaeological findings from Shikmona (Haifa) from the Bronze Age to the Byzantine period; Biblical terracottas, Greek coins from Palestine, Coptic textiles; collections up to the 6th century A.D.; Dir. Dr. JOSEPH ELGAVISH.

Museum of Modern Art: Municipality, Haifa; f. 1951; collection of contemporary Israeli art, modern European and American painting; drawings and prints, collections of posters from museums and galleries; Dir. GABRIEL TADMOR.

Museum of Prehistory: Sha'ar Ha-golan, Jordan Valley; f. 1950; large number of exhibits from the neolithic Yarmukian culture excavated in the region; Dir. Y. ROTH.

Museum of Prehistory of the Department of Archaeology in the Hebrew University: Crémieux St., Jerusalem; f. 1955; large collection of objects from prehistoric sites in Israel; library.

Museum of the Studium Biblicum Franciscanum: P.O.B. 19424, Convent of the Flagellation, Via Dolorosa, Jerusalem; Curator Rev. Fr. AUGUSTUS SPIJKERMAN, O.F.M.

ISRAEL—(MUSEUMS UNIVERSITIES)

Negav Museum Beersheba f 1954 exhibits from regional excavations mainly from the Chalcolithic Israelite Roman and Byzantine periods Bedouin Folklore collection collection of modern Israeli art Curator JOSEPH DUNI

Shephela Regional Museum Kibbutz Itefar Menahem, Post Emek Sorek f 1950 collection of regional antiquities section of mineralogy and petrology permanent exhibition of Israeli artists' paintings and sculptures Dir M ISRAEL

Tel-Aviv Museum Helena Rubinstein Pavilion 6 Tarat St. Tel Aviv f 1931 also at Dizengoff House 16 Rothschild Blvd paintings of the 18th, 19th and 20th centuries and modern paintings graphic art and sculptures including works by Israeli artists art library containing 8 000 vols weekly chamber music concerts lectures and films on art educational and circulating exhibitions service Dir Dr HAJM GAMBU

Terra Sancta Museum Terra Sancta Monastery P O B 23 Nazareth f 1920 Byzantine (and later) remains coins Roman and Byzantine glass collection of antiquities from excavations made in the monastery compound Vicar of Monastery Rev P José MONTALVERNE DE LANCASTRE OFM

Tikotin Museum of Japanese Art 89 Hanassi Ave Haifa f 1960 5 500 items paintings prints drawings textiles netsuke lacquer work ceramics metalwork library of 2 000 vols Dir ELI LANMAN

Y.M.C.A. "Herbert E. Clark" Collection of Near Eastern Antiquities Y.M.C.A. Building David Hamielech Street Jerusalem f 1933 flint implements pottery glass jewellery cylinder seals coniform tablets scarabs terracotta and bronze figurines Custodian Mrs HELEN MYER

UNIVERSITIES

BAR ILAN UNIVERSITY RAMAT-GAN

Telephone 732103

Founded 1953 Inaugurated 1955

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Rector Prof. A. H. FISCH B.LITT

Director-General M. ADLER, M.A.

Registrar A. POMERANTZ M.JUR.

Librarian I. GOLDBERG M.L.S.

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Number of teaching staff 650

Number of students 5 000

Publications Bar Ilan Annual Research Monographs Annual Catalogue

DEANS

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Faculty of Social Science to be appointed.

Faculty of Natural Sciences and Mathematics Prof M LUBAN PH D

Faculty of Law Prof A ENKER LL.B.

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Institute for the Study of Jews in Islamic Lands incorporates the Rivlin Institute for the study of the Old Yishuv

Director H Z HIRSCHBERG PH D

Institute of Local Government

Dir H HOLCHEIM M.A.

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Founded 1964

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Number of students 4 250

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DEANS

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Social Sciences Prof Z SOREL

THE HEBREW UNIVERSITY OF JERUSALEM (Ha'Universita Ha'Ivrit)

JERUSALEM

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Faculty of Law Prof R. YARON

Faculty of Agriculture Prof S. MONSELISE

Faculty of Social Science Prof M. MICHAELY

AFFILIATED INSTITUTES

The Harry S. Truman International Center for the Advancement of Peace f 1968 library Chair of Trustees ARTHUR GOLDBERG Academic Dir Prof JULIUS STONE Administrator HARRY ZINDER

The National and University Institute of Agriculture P O B 12 Rehovoth f 1960 as supervisory body for the Hebrew University Faculty of Agriculture and the Volcani Institute of Agricultural Research library of 45 000 books Chair M. BEYTRAN Dir of Volcani Institute Dr I. VAADIA

ISRAEL—(UNIVERSITIES)

UNIVERSITY OF THE NEGEV

P.O.B. 2053 BEERSHEBA

Telephone: 057-71241-6

Founded 1965

Rector: HAIM HANANAI.

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Number of teachers: 250.

Number of students: 1,600.

DEANS:

Technology: Prof. HAIM HANANI.

Natural Sciences: Prof. SHIMON KLEIN.

Humanities: HAIM BEINART.

TEL-AVIV UNIVERSITY

RAMAT-AVIV, TEL-AVIV

Telephone: 416111.

Founded 1953; inaugurated 1956.

Language of instruction: Hebrew; Municipal control;

Academic year: October to June (three terms).

President: Dr. GEORGE S. WISE.

Vice-President: Prof. J. JORTNER.

Rector: Prof. A. DE VRIES.

Vice-Rector: Prof. B. SCHARFSTEIN.

Executive Vice-President: Maj.-Gen. A. DORON.

Academic Secretary: J. RAWEAWAY.

University Librarian: M. ALOOF.

Number of teachers: 1,865.

Number of students: 10,588.

Publication: *The University Calendar Hasifrut* (literary quarterly).

DEANS:

Faculty of Humanities: Prof. S. PERLMAN.

Faculty of Social Sciences: Prof. H. BEN-SHAHAR.

The Leon Recanati Graduate School of Business Administration: Dr. Z. HIRSCH (acting).

Faculty of Law: Dr. A. RUBINSTEIN (acting).

Faculty of Science: Prof. A. S. SCHEJTER.

Medical School: Prof. S. GITTER.

Faculty of Continuing Medical Education: Prof. S. SCHORR.

Department of Education: Dr. A. A. RIVLIN (Director of Department).

The Tel-Aviv University Samuel Rubin Academy of Music: Prof. O. PARTOS (Director of Academy).

School of Social Work: Dr. S. SPIRO (Director).

TECHNION

ISRAEL INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY,
HAIFA

Telephone: 04-22 51 11.

Telegraphic Address: Technion, Haifa

Founded 1912; inaugurated 1924

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Jordan

PHYSICAL AND SOCIAL GEOGRAPHY

The Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan (previously Trans Jordan) came officially into existence under its present name in 1947 and was enlarged in 1950 to include the districts of Samaria and part of Judeaea that had previously formed part of Arab Palestine. The country is bounded on the north by Syria, on the north east by Iraq, on the east and south by Saudi Arabia, and on the west by Israel. The total area of Jordan is approximately 37,500 sq. miles (inclusive of the territory west of the Jordan river—some 1265 sq. miles).

PHYSICAL FEATURES

The greater part of the State of Jordan consists of a plateau lying some 2-3,000 ft. above sea level, which forms the north western corner of the great plateau of Arabia (see "Arabia"). There are no natural topographical frontiers between Jordan and its neighbours Syria, Iraq, and Saudi Arabia, and the plateau continues unbroken into all three countries, with the artificial frontier boundaries drawn as straight lines between defined points. Along its western edge, facing the Jordan Valley, the plateau is up-titled to give a line of hills that rise 1-2,000 ft. above plateau level. An old river course, the Wadi Sirhan, now almost dry with only occasional wells, breaks up the plateau surface on the south-east and continues into Saudi Arabia.

The Jordanian plateau consists of a core or table of ancient rocks, covered by layers of newer rock (chiefly limestone) lying almost horizontally. In a few places (e.g. on the southern edge of the Jordan Valley) these old rocks are exposed at the surface. On its western side the plateau has been fractured and dislocated by the development of two strongly marked and parallel faults that run from the Red Sea via the Gulf of Aqaba northwards to the Lebanon and Syria. The narrow zone between the faults has sunk, to give the well known Jordan rift valley, which is bordered both on the east and west by steep-sided walls, especially in the south near the Dead Sea, where the drop is often precipitous. The valley has a maximum width of 14 miles.

The floor of the Jordan Valley varies considerably in level. At its northern end it is just above sea level, the surface of Lake Tiberias (the Sea of Galilee) is 686 ft. below sea level, with the deepest part of the lake 700 ft. lower still. Greatest depth of the valley is at the Dead Sea (surface 1,300 ft. below sea level, maximum depth 1,295 ft.).

Dislocation of the rock strata in the region of the Jordan Valley has had two further effects: firstly, earth tremors are still frequent along the valley (Jerusalem has minor earthquakes from time to time), and secondly, considerable quantities of lava have welled up, forming enormous sheets that cover wide expanses of territory in the State of Jordan and southern Syria and produce a desolate, forbidding landscape. One small lava flow, by forming a natural dam across the Jordan Valley, has impounded the waters to form Lake Tiberias.

The River Jordan rises just inside the frontiers of Syria and the Lebanon—a fruitful source of dispute between the two countries and Israel. The river is 157 miles long, and after first flowing for 60 miles in Israel it lies within Jor-

danian territory for the remaining 95 miles. Its main tributary, the Yarmuk, is 25 miles long and close to its junction with the Jordan forms the boundary between Jordan, Syria, Israel and Syria. A few miles from its source, the River Jordan opened into the former Lake Huleh, a shallow, marsh fringed expanse of water that was for long a breeding ground of malaria—but which has now been drained. Lake Tiberias, also like Huleh in Israel, covers an area of 122 sq. miles and measures 14 miles from north to south, and 16 miles from east to west. River water outflowing from the lake is used for the generation of hydro-electricity.

The river then flows through the barren, inhospitable country of its middle and lower valley, very little of which is actually, or potentially, cultivable, and finally enters the Dead Sea. This lake is 40 miles long and 10 miles wide. Owing to the very high air temperatures at most seasons of the year evaporation from the lake is intense, and has been estimated as equivalent to 8½ million tons of water per day. At the surface the Dead Sea water contains about 250 grams of dissolved salts per litre, and at a depth of 360 feet the water is chemically saturated (i.e. holds its maximum possible content). Magnesium chloride is the most abundant mineral, with sodium chloride next in importance, but commercial interest centres in the less abundant potash and bromide salts.

Climatically, Jordan shows close affinity to its neighbours. Summers are hot, especially on the plateau and in the Jordan Valley, where temperatures up to 120° F. have been recorded. Winters are fairly cold, and on the plateau frost and some snow are usual, though not in the lower Jordan Valley. The significant element of the climate of Jordan is rainfall. In the higher parts (i.e. the uplands of Samaria and Judeaea and the hills overlooking the eastern Jordan Valley) 15 to 25 inches of rainfall occur, enough for agriculture, but elsewhere as little as 8 inches or less may fall, and pastoral nomadism is the only possible way of life. Only about 25 per cent of the total area of Jordan is sufficiently humid for cultivation.

Hence the main features of economic life in Jordan are subsistence agriculture of a marginal kind, carried on in Judeaea, Samaria and on the north eastern edge of the plateau, close to Amman, with migratory herding of animals—sheep, goats, cattle and camels—over the remaining and by far the larger portion of the country. As a result, the natural wealth of Jordan is small and tribal ways of life exist in many parts. Tourism (with which must be included religious pilgrimage, mainly to the Holy Christian places of Jerusalem) had developed into a very important industry which will be seriously jeopardized if the Israeli occupation of the west bank territory, and annexation of Jerusalem, endures.

RACE AND LANGUAGE

A division must be drawn between the Jordanians living east of the River Jordan, who in the main are of pure Mediterranean stock, ethnically similar to the desert populations of Syria and Saudi Arabia, and the Arabs of the Jordan Valley and Samaria, Judeaea. These latter are slightly taller, more heavily built, and have a broader head form. Some authorities suggest that they are des-

cendants of the Canaanites, who may have originated far to the north-east, in the Zagros area. An Iranian racial affinity is thus implied—but this must be of very ancient date, as the Arabs west of the Jordan Valley have been settled in their present home for many thousands of years. Besides the two groups of Arabs there are also small colon-

ies of Circassians from the Caucasus of Russia, who settled in Jordan as refugees during the nineteenth and twentieth centuries A.D.

Arabic is spoken everywhere, except in a few Circassian villages, and owing to the contacts with Britain some English is understood in the towns.

HISTORY

Jordan, as an independent State, is a twentieth-century development. Before then it was seldom more than a rugged and backward appendage to more powerful kingdoms and empires, and indeed never had any separate existence. In Biblical times the area was covered roughly by Gilead, Ammon, Moab and Edom, and the western portions formed for a time part of the kingdom of Israel. During the sixth century B.C. the Arabian tribe of the Nabataeans established their capital at Petra in the south and continued to preserve their independence when, during the fourth and third centuries, the northern half was incorporated into the Seleucid province of Syria. It was under Seleucid rule that cities like Philadelphia (the Biblical Rabbath Ammon and the modern Amman) and Gerasa (now Jerash) rose to prominence. During the first century B.C. the Nabataeans extended their rule over the greater part of present-day Jordan and Syria; they then began to recede before the advance of Rome, and in A.D. 105-6 Petra was incorporated into the Roman Empire. The lands east of the Jordan shared in a brief blaze of glory under the Palmyrene sovereigns Odenathus (Udaynath) and Zenobia (al-Zabba') in the middle of the third century A.D., and during the fifth and sixth centuries formed part of the dominions of the Christian Ghassanid dynasty, vassals of the Byzantine Empire. Finally, after fifty years of anarchy in which Byzantine, Persian and local rulers intervened, Transjordan was conquered by the Arabs and absorbed into the Islamic Empire.

For centuries nothing more is heard of the country; it formed normally a part of Syria, and as such was generally governed from Egypt. From the beginning of the sixteenth century it was included in the Ottoman *vilayet* of Damascus, and remained in a condition of stagnation until the outbreak of the Great War in 1914. European travellers and explorers of the nineteenth century rediscovered the beauties of Petra and Gerasa, but otherwise the desert tribes were left undisturbed. Even the course of the war in its early stages gave little hint of the upheaval that was to take place in Jordan's fortunes. The area was included in the zone of influence allocated to Britain under the Sykes-Picot Treaty of May 1916, and Zionists held that it also came within the area designated as a Jewish National Home in the promise contained in the Balfour Declaration of November 1917. Apart from these somewhat remote political events the tide of war did not reach Jordanian territory until the capture of Aqaba by the Arab armies under Faisal, the third son of King Hussein of the Hijaz, in July 1917. A year later, in September 1918, they shared in the final push north by capturing Amman and Deraa.

The end of the war thus found a large area, which included almost the whole of present-day Jordan, in Arab hands under the leadership of Faisal. To begin with, the territory to the east of the River Jordan was not looked on as a separate unit. Faisal, with the assistance of British officers and Iraqi nationalists, set up an autonomous government in Damascus, a step encouraged by the Anglo-French Declaration of November 7th, 1918, favouring the establishment of indigenous governments in Syria and Iraq.

Arab demands, however, as expressed by Faisal at the Paris Peace Conference in January 1919, went a good deal further in claiming independence throughout the Arab world. This brought them sharply up against both French and Zionist claims in the Near East, and when in March 1920 the General Syrian Congress in Damascus declared the independence of Syria and Iraq, with Faisal and Abdullah, Hussein's second son, as kings, the decisions were denounced by France and Britain. The following month the San Remo Conference awarded the Palestine Mandate to Britain, and thus separated it effectively from Syria proper, which fell within the French share. Faisal was forced out of Damascus by the French in July and left the country.

THE KINGDOM OF TRANSJORDAN

The position of Transjordan was not altogether clear under the new dispensation. After the withdrawal of Faisal the British High Commissioner informed a meeting of notables at Es Salt that the British Government favoured self-government for the territory with British advisers. In December 1920 the provisional frontiers of the Mandates were extended eastwards by Anglo-French agreement so as to include Transjordan within the Palestine Mandate, and therefore presumably within the provisions regarding the establishment of a Jewish National Home. Yet another twist of policy came as the result of a conference in Cairo in March 1921 attended by Winston Churchill, the new British Colonial Secretary, Abdullah, T. E. Lawrence and Sir Herbert Samuel, High Commissioner for Palestine. At this meeting it was recommended that Faisal should be proclaimed King of Iraq, while Abdullah was persuaded to stand down in his favour by the promise of an Arab administration in Transjordan. He had in fact been in effective control in Amman since his arrival the previous winter to organise a rising against the French in Syria. This project he now abandoned, and in April 1921 was officially recognised as *de facto* ruler of Transjordan. The final draft of the Palestine Mandate confirmed by the Council of the League of Nations in July 1922 contained a clause giving the Mandatory Power considerable latitude in the administration of the territory east of the Jordan. On the basis of this clause a memorandum was approved in the following September expressly excluding Transjordan from the clauses relating to the establishment of the Jewish National Home, and although many Zionists continued to press for the reversal of this policy, the country thenceforth remained in practice separate from Palestine proper.

Like much of the post-war boundary delineation, the borders of the new state were somewhat arbitrary. Though they lay mainly in desert areas they frequently cut across tribal areas and grazing grounds with small respect for tradition. Of the three or four hundred thousand inhabitants only about a fifth were town-dwellers, and these confined to four small cities ranging in population from 30,000 to 10,000. Nevertheless Transjordan's early years were destined to be comparatively peaceful. On May 15th, 1923, Britain formally recognised Transjordan as an independent

constitutional State under the rule of the Amir Abdullah with British tutelage, and with the aid of a British subsidy it was possible to make some slow progress towards development and modernisation. A small but efficient armed force, the Arab Legion, was built up under the guidance of Pease Pasha and later Glubb Pasha, this force distinguished itself particularly during the Iraqi rebellion of May 1941 in a lightning dash across the Syrian Desert. It also played a significant role in the fighting with Israel during 1948. Other British advisers assisted in the development of health services, schools and so on.

The Amir Abdullah very nearly became involved in the fall of his father, King Hussein, in 1924. It was in Amman on March 5th, 1924, that the latter was proclaimed Caliph, and during the subsequent fighting with Ibn Sa'ud Wahabi troops penetrated into Transjordanian territory. They subsequently withdrew to the south, and in June 1925 after the abdication of Hussein's eldest son Ali, Abdullah formally incorporated Ma'an and Aqaba within his dominions. The move was not disputed by the new ruler of the Hijaz and Najd, and thereafter the southern frontier of Transjordan has remained unaltered.

TREATY WITH BRITAIN

In February 1928 a treaty was signed with Great Britain granting a still larger measure of independence, though reserving for the advice of a British Resident such matters as financial policy and foreign relations. The same treaty provided for a constitution, and this was duly promulgated in April 1928, the first Legislative Council meeting a year later. In January 1934 a supplementary agreement was added permitting Transjordan to appoint consular representatives in Arab countries and in May 1939 Britain agreed to the conversion of the Legislative Council into a regular Cabinet with ministers in charge of specified departments. The outbreak of war delayed further advances towards independence, but this was finally achieved in name at least by the Treaty of London of March 22nd, 1946. On the following May 25th Abdullah was proclaimed king and a new constitution replaced the now obsolete one of 1928.

Transjordan was not slow in taking her place in the community of nations. In 1947 King Abdullah signed treaties with Turkey and Iraq and applied for membership of the United Nations. This last, however, was thwarted by the Russian veto and by lack of American recognition of Transjordan's status as an independent nation. In March 1948 Britain agreed to the signing of a new treaty in which virtually the only restrictive clauses related to military and defence matters. Britain was to have certain peace-time military privileges, including the maintenance of airfields and communications, transit facilities and co-ordination of training methods. She was also to provide economic and social aid.

Transjordan had, however, not waited for independence before making her weight felt in Arab affairs in the Middle East. She had not been very active before the war, and, in fact her first appearance on the international scene was in May 1939 when Transjordanian delegates were invited to the Round Table Conference on Palestine in London. Transjordan took part in the preliminary discussions during 1943 and 1944 that led finally to the formation of the Arab League in March 1945 and was one of the original members of that League. During the immediately following years it seemed possible that political and dynastic differences would be forgotten in this common effort for unity. Under the stresses and strains of 1948 however, the old contradictions began to reappear. Abdullah had long favoured the project of a 'Greater Syria', that is, the union of Transjordan, Syria and Palestine, as a step towards the final unification of the Fertile Crescent by the inclusion of Iraq

This was favoured on dynastic grounds by various parties in Iraq, and also by some elements in Syria and Palestine. On the other hand it met with violent opposition from many Syrian nationalists, from the rulers of Egypt and Saudi Arabia—neither of whom were disposed to favour any strengthening of the Hashemite house—and of course from the Zionists and the French. It is in the light of these conflicts of interest that developments subsequent to the establishment of the State of Israel must be seen.

FORMATION OF ISRAEL

On May 14th-15th, 1948, British troops were withdrawn into the port of Haifa as a preliminary to the final evacuation of Palestine territory, the State of Israel was proclaimed, and Arab armies entered the former Palestinian territory from all sides. Only those from Transjordan played any significant part in the fighting, and by the time that major hostilities ceased in July they had succeeded in occupying a considerable area. The suspicion now inevitably arose that Abdullah was prepared to accept a *fait accompli* and to negotiate with the Israeli authorities for a formal recognition of the existing military boundaries. Moreover, whereas the other Arab countries refused to accept any other move that implied a tacit recognition of the *status quo*—such as the resettlement of refugees—Transjordan seemed to be following a different line. In September 1948 an Arab government was formed at Gaza under Egyptian tutelage, and this was answered from the Transjordanian side by the proclamation in December at Jericho of Abdullah as King of All Palestine. In the following April the country's name was changed to Jordan, and three Palestinians were included in the Cabinet. In the meantime armistices were being signed by all the Arab countries, including Jordan, and on January 31st, 1949, Jordan had at last been recognised by the United States.

On the three major problems confronting the Arab States in their dispute with Israel, Jordan continued to differ more or less openly with her colleagues. She refused to agree to the internationalisation of Jerusalem, she initiated plans for the resettlement of the Arab refugees, and she showed a disposition to accept as permanent the armistice frontiers. In April 1950, after rumours of negotiations between Jordan and Israel, the Arab League Council in Cairo succeeded in getting Jordan's adherence to resolutions forbidding negotiations with Israel or annexation of Palestinian territory. Nevertheless in the same month elections were held in Jordan and Arab Palestine, the results of which encouraged Abdullah formally to annex the latter territory on April 24th, 1950. This step was immediately recognised by Britain.

At the meeting of the Arab League that followed, Egypt led the opposition to Jordan, who found support however, from Iraq. The decisions reached by the Council were inconclusive, but thereafter Jordan began to drift away from Arab League policy. Jordan supported the United Nations policy over Korea, in contradistinction to the other Arab states, and signed a Point Four agreement with the United States in March 1951. Though there was at the same time constant friction between Jordan and Israel, the unified opposition of the Arab States to the new Jewish State seemed to have ended, and inter-Arab differences were gaining the upper hand.

ABDULLAH ASSASSINATED

On July 20th, 1951, King Abdullah was assassinated in Jerusalem. Evidence brought out at the trial of those implicated in the plot showed that the murder was as much as anything a protest against his Greater Syria policy, and it was significant that Egypt refused to extradite some of those convicted. Nevertheless the stability of the young Jordan-

ian State revealed itself in the calm in which the King's eldest son Talal succeeded to the throne, and the peaceful elections held shortly afterwards. In January 1952 a new constitution was promulgated. Even more significant, perhaps, was the dignity with which, only a year after his accession, King Talal, whose mental condition had long been giving cause for anxiety, abdicated in favour of his son, Hussein, still a minor. In foreign policy Talal had shown some signs of a reaction against his father's ideas in favour of a *rapprochement* with Syria and Egypt, one step being Jordan's signature of the Arab Collective Security Pact which she had failed to join in the summer of 1950.

This policy was continued during the reign of his son, King Hussein, notably by the conclusion of an economic and financial agreement with Syria in February 1953, and a joint scheme for the construction of a dam across the Yarmuk River to supply irrigation and hydro-electric power. At the same time Hussein maintained the family ties with Iraq, state visits being exchanged with King Faisal II immediately after the former's formal accession in May 1953.

During the year there was a recrudescence of trouble along the frontier with Israel. A temporary agreement reached under U.N. auspices in June seemed to have eased matters, but in October an Israeli attack on the Jordanian village of Qibya aroused violent emotions in the Arab countries. In March, 1954, the position was reversed with an Arab attack on an Israeli bus in the Scorpion Pass, an incident that led to a temporary breakdown in the truce arrangements and to a series of further frontier violations. Another problem that still remained unsolved was the elaborate scheme sponsored by the United States for the sharing of the Jordan waters between Jordan, Iraq, Syria and Israel, which could make no progress in the absence of political agreement. In May, amid mounting tension, the cabinet of Fawzi al-Mulqi resigned, and a new government was formed by Tawfiq Abu'l-Huda, which was reorganised on October 25th, 1954, after the elections of October 16th.

During December a financial aid agreement was signed in London with the United Kingdom, and the opportunity was taken to discuss the revision of the Anglo-Jordanian Treaty of 1946. Agreement over this was not possible owing to British insistence that any new pact should fit into a general Middle East defence system. In May 1955 Abu'l-Huda was replaced by Sa'id al-Mufti, while an exchange of state visits with King Sa'ud hinted at a *rapprochement* with Saudi Arabia. Nevertheless, in November Jordan declared its unwillingness to adhere either to the Egyptian-Syrian-Saudi Arabian bloc or to the Baghdad Pact.

DISMISSAL OF GLUBB PASHA

On December 15th, following a visit to General Sir. G. Templer, Chief of the Imperial General Staff, Sa'id al-Mufti resigned and was replaced by Hazza al-Majali, known to be in favour of the Baghdad Pact. The following day there were violent demonstrations in Amman, and on December 20th Ibrahim Hashim became Prime Minister, to be succeeded on January 9th by Samir ar-Rifa'i. In February 1956 the new Prime Minister visited Syria, Lebanon, Iraq, Egypt and Saudi Arabia, and shortly after his return, on March 2nd, King Hussein announced the dismissal of Glubb Pasha, commander-in-chief of the Jordanian armed forces, and replaced him by Major-General Radi 'Annab. The Egyptian-Syrian-Saudi Arabian bloc at this juncture offered to replace the British financial subsidy to Jordan; but the latter was not in fact withdrawn, and King Hussein and the Jordanian government evidently felt that they had moved far enough in one direction, and committed themselves to a policy of strict neutrality. In April,

however, the King and the Prime Minister paid a visit to the Syrian President in Damascus, and in May Major-General Annab was replaced by his deputy, Lt.-Colonel Ali Abu Nuwar, generally regarded as the leader of the movement to eliminate foreign influence from the Jordanian army and government. This coincided with the reappointment of Sa'id al-Mufti as Prime Minister. During the same period discussions culminated in agreements for military co-operation between Jordan and Syria, Lebanon and Egypt, and in July Jordan and Syria formed an economic union. At the beginning of the same month al-Mufti was replaced by Ibrahim Hashim.

RELATIONS WITH ISRAEL

Meanwhile relations with Israel, including the problem of the Arab refugees, the use of Jordan waters, the definition of the frontier, and the status of Jerusalem, continued to provide a standing cause for anxiety. Early in July there was a further series of frontier incidents, which lasted well into the autumn. October saw the development of military relations with Iraq; however a plan to move Iraqi troops into Jordan was stopped by the stiff reaction of the Israeli government. Tension between Jordan and Israel was further increased after the Israeli, British and French military action in Egypt. A new cabinet, headed by Suleiman Nabulsi, had taken office early in October, and new elections were followed by the opening of negotiations for the abrogation of the Anglo-Jordanian Treaty of 1948, and the substitution of financial aid from the Arab countries. At a conference held in Cairo on January 18th and 19th, 1957, between King Sa'ud, King Hussein, President Nasser and the Syrian and Jordanian Prime Ministers, an agreement was signed providing for an annual payment of £E 12,500,000 (£12,800,000 sterling) to Jordan over the next ten years. Saudi Arabia and Egypt were each to contribute £E 5,000,000 and Syria £E 2,500,000. Owing to subsequent political developments, however, the shares due from Egypt and Syria were not paid. On March 13th, 1957, an Anglo-Jordanian agreement was signed abrogating the 1948 treaty, and by July 2nd the last British troops had left. In the meantime Nabulsi's evident leanings towards the Soviet connection, clashing with the recently-enunciated Eisenhower doctrine, led to his breach with King Hussein and his resignation on April 10th. Two weeks of cabinet crises, demonstrations and riots preceded the formation of a new government under Ibrahim Hashim. All political parties were suppressed, and plans to establish diplomatic relations with Russia were dropped. Gen. Ali Abu Nuwar was removed from the post of Commander-in-Chief, and the United States announced its determination to preserve Jordan's independence—a policy underlined by a major air-lift of arms to Amman in September in response to Syria's alignment with the Soviet Union. In May Syrian troops serving under the joint Syro-Egypto-Jordanian command were withdrawn from Jordanian territory at Jordan's request, and in June there was a partial rupture of diplomatic relations with Egypt.

On January 18th, 1958, an agreement was reached between Israel and Jordan for the implementation of the 1948 agreement on the Mount Scopus demilitarised zone.

On February 14th, the merger of the Kingdoms of Iraq and Jordan in a federal union to be known as the Arab Federation was proclaimed in Amman by King Faisal of Iraq and King Hussein. This new federation, made in response to the formation of the United Arab Republic a fortnight before, was dissolved by decree of King Hussein on August 2nd, following the revolution in Iraq. Samir Rifai became Prime Minister of Jordan in May, on the resignation of Ibrahim Hashim who took up the appointment of Vice-Premier in the short-lived Arab Federation.

On July 22nd Hashim was assassinated by the mob in Baghdad during the rioting that followed the revolution. On August 11th Bedouin tribesmen from all parts of Jordan pledged their loyalty to King Hussein at a parade in Amman following the discovery of an armed conspiracy against the King and his government. Thirteen persons were condemned to death by a military court in Amman for their part in the conspiracy.

British troops were flown to Amman from Cyprus on July 17th in response to an appeal by King Hussein. They had all been withdrawn by the beginning of November—under U.N. auspices—and in the two years that followed Jordan settled down to a period of comparative peace. Hazza al Majali succeeded al Rifai as Prime Minister on May 6th 1959. Firm measures were taken against communism and subversive activities (defence and internal security accounted for rather more than half of the 1960-61 budget) and collaboration with the West was if anything encouraged by the country's isolation between Iraq, Israel and the two halves of the United Arab Republic. American loans continued to arrive at the rate of about \$50,000,000 a year and there was also technical aid of various kinds from Britain, Western Germany and other countries. An important development was the official opening of the port of Aqaba on the Red Sea—virtually Jordan's only outlet.

King Hussein visited the Far East, the United States and Britain in the spring of 1959 and was in Europe in the following November. In April and May 1960 he toured Iran, Turkey, Morocco and West and East Africa. Relations with Jordan's Arab neighbours continued to be uneasy though diplomatic relations with the United Arab Republic broken off in July 1958 were resumed on August 16th 1959. Incidents on the Syrian border were almost as frequent as on the Israeli and there were no signs of a rapprochement with Iraq. In January 1960 both the King and the Prime Minister condemned the Arab leaders' approach to the Palestine problem and in February Jordanian citizenship was offered to all Arab refugees who applied for it. On the other side of the balance sheet, King Hussein paid a flying visit to King Saud in February 1960 and in March strongly anti-Zionist statements appeared in the Jordanian press. Nevertheless there seemed to be no change in the general position that Jordan wished for formal recognition of her absorption of the Palestinian territory west of the Jordan while the United Arab Republic and other Arab countries favoured the establishment of an independent Palestine Arab government.

On August 29th 1960 the Jordanian Prime Minister, Hazza al Majali, was assassinated by the explosion of a time-bomb in his office. Jordan was quick to attribute the outrage to persons in the United Arab Republic. A curfew was imposed but after a cabinet re-shuffle comparative stability was restored with Bahjat Talhouni as Prime Minister.

In the last few months of 1960 relations between Jordan and Iraq gradually improved, culminating in December in the resumption of diplomatic relations between the two countries.

There were also signs of some relaxing of the tension between Jordan and the United Arab Republic with an exchange of letters between King Hussein and President Nasser during the first half of 1961. In September however Jordan was quick to recognise the independent status of Syria and in the following month relations with the United Arab Republic were broken off.

United States aid continued to reach Jordan on a substantial scale and relations with the United States were further strengthened by the visit of King Hussein to New York in October 1960 when he addressed the United

Nations Assembly and talked with President Eisenhower and by a trade agreement in February 1961.

INTERNAL DEVELOPMENTS

The calm and even enthusiasm with which the King's marriage to an English girl in May 1961 was received by the Jordanian population was generally seen as a sign of the strength of the Throne.

The King visited Morocco and Saudi Arabia in the summer of 1962 and subsequently conversations were begun with the latter with a view to improving relations. Meanwhile in January 1962 Wasfi al Tall had taken over the premiership and in December after the completion of elections the formation of political parties was once again permitted.

Mr al Tall's government was short-lived. In March 1963 he was replaced by Samir Rifai, a nominee of the King. But shortly after the news of a plan to federate Egypt, Syria and Iraq rioting broke out against Mr Rifai who resigned on April 20th after only twenty-three days in office. A transitional government was appointed by the King with the task of dissolving the Lower House and holding new elections: these were duly held in July when the caretaker government of Sharif Husayn bin Nasir—the King's great uncle—was confirmed in office. The relaxing of tension at home was followed by a conciliatory policy abroad. In January 1964 King Hussein himself represented Jordan at the Cairo conference held to discuss joint Arab measures to deal with the Jordan waters dispute which had flared up again with the rumour of Israeli plans to take unilateral action in the continued absence of any international agreement. The opportunity was taken to resume diplomatic relations between Jordan and the United Arab Republic.

In July 1964 King Hussein demonstrated his personal control over the government when Husayn bin Nasir resigned and Bahjat Talhouni was asked to take over once again. Talhouni—who had previously been head of the Royal Cabinet and the official representative of the King since the Arab summit conference in January 1964—stated that his government would work in accordance with the spirit of the Arab summit conference and based on King Hussein's instruction. Also in July Jordan recognised the Republican regime in the Yemen and relations with the United Arab Republic were improved by an exchange of visits between the U.A.R. First Vice President Abdul Hakim Amer and King Hussein. In August Jordan signed the Arab Common Market agreement and in September the King attended the Arab Summit Conference in Alexandria at which the problem of the Jordan waters was one of the main topics of discussion. Talhouni resigned in February 1965 and was replaced by Wasfi al Tall, some relaxation of political restrictions was to be noted. In April a constitutional uncertainty was resolved with the nomination of the King's brother Hassan as Crown Prince, the infant son of the formerly British Princess Muna was thus excluded.

Economic and commercial developments were the key note of these years with contacts of various kinds with the United Kingdom, the U.S.A., France, Italy, Denmark, Yugoslavia, Japan, Pakistan and Ethiopia. During 1965 plans were drawn up for the reactivation of the Hiyaz Railway with British contractors. A contract for the construction of the Mukhaiba dam on the Yarmuk River was awarded in September 1965 to an Egyptian firm. The main problem of the Jordan waters remained unsolved as did relations in general with Israel. In May 1965 Jordan in common with nine other Arab states broke off diplomatic relations with West Germany as a protest against the latter's establishment of relations with Israel.

WAR WITH ISRAEL

During the latter part of 1966 Jordan's foreign relations became increasingly worsened by the widening breach with Syria. Charges and counter-charges were made of plots to subvert each other's governments, and while the U.A.R. and the U.S.S.R. supported Syria, Jordan looked for backing to Saudi Arabia and the U.S. This situation made it increasingly difficult for Jordan's relations with Israel to be regularized. In July 1966 Jordan suspended support for the Palestine Liberation Organization, accusing its secretary Shukairy of pro-Communist activity, and this move was copied by Tunisia in October. In November an Israeli reprisal raid aroused bitter feeling in Jordan and elsewhere. While Jordan introduced conscription and Saudi Arabia promised military aid, Syria and the Palestine Liberation Organization called on the Jordanians to revolt against King Hussein. Negotiations to implement the resolution of the Supreme Council for Arab Defence that Iraqi and Saudi troops should be sent to Jordan to assist in her defence broke down in December. This was followed by clashes on the Jordan/Syria frontier, by P.L.O.-sponsored bomb outrages in Jordan (resulting in the closure of the P.L.O. headquarters in Jerusalem), and by worsening relations between Jordan and the U.A.R. and a ban by the latter on aircraft carrying British and American arms to Jordan. In retaliation Jordan withdrew recognition of the Sallal regime in Yemen, and boycotted the next meeting of the Arab Defence Council. On March 5th Wasfi al-Tall resigned and was succeeded by Sharif Hasan b. Nasir at the head of an interim government. In May, King Hussein paid a state visit to Iran.

As the prospect of war with Israel drew nearer, King Hussein composed his differences with Egypt, and personally flew to Cairo to sign a defence agreement. Jordanian troops, together with those of the U.A.R., Iraq and Saudi Arabia, went into action immediately on the outbreak of hostilities in June. By the end of the six days' war, however, all Jordanian territory west of the River Jordan had been occupied by Israeli troops, and a steady stream of west-bank Jordanians began to cross the River Jordan to the east bank. Estimated at between 150,000 and 250,000 persons, they swelled Jordan's refugee population and presented the government with intractable social and economic problems. In August, although Jordan had reached no settlement with Israel, a small percentage of the refugees were enabled to return to the west bank under an agreement mediated by the International Red Cross. By June 1968 about 105,000 of the new refugees remained in temporary camps. Jordan had so far refused to ask UNRWA to extend its mandate to the refugees of the June war.

King Hussein formed a nine-man Consultative Council in August 1967, composed of former premiers and politicians of varying sympathies, to meet weekly and to participate in the "responsibility of power". Later a Senate was formed consisting of fifteen representatives from the inhabitants of the West Bank area, and fifteen from eastern Jordan. Several changes of government took place. Saad Jumaa had succeeded as Prime Minister on April 23rd, 1967, after general elections, and on July 15th, after first resigning, was entrusted with the formation of a new cabinet. On October 7th, however, he resigned again, and was succeeded by Bahjat Talhouni; a feature of this reconstruction was that the King took over personal command of the country's armed forces. King Hussein was also active in the diplomatic field, visiting Britain, the United States, France, Italy, Turkey, Pakistan and the U.S.S.R. to gain sympathy and support for his country's cause. U.S. arms shipments to Jordan were resumed on February 14th, 1968.

Meanwhile the uneasy situation along the frontier with

Israel persisted, aggravated by the deteriorating economic situation in the country. Reprisal actions by Israel after numerous commando raids directed against her authority in Jerusalem and the West Bank and operating from Jordanian territory culminated in a major attack in March with the object of destroying an alleged guerrilla camp at Karameh. Further major attacks were made at Irbid and Essalt in June and August respectively; following the latter attack, Jordan appealed for United Nations intervention. In June 1969 Israeli commandos blew up the diversion system of the Ghor Canal, Jordan's principal irrigation project.

THE GUERRILLA CHALLENGE

The instability in Amman is reflected in the short life of all Jordanian cabinets since the 1967 war—it is rare for one to remain unchanged for more than three months. A careful balance has to be struck between the Palestinians and the King's traditional supporters; in the new cabinet announced after the June 1970 crisis, Palestinians were given more of the key ministries, including that of the Interior; Abdul Moniem Rifai, Jordan's senior diplomat, became Prime Minister for the second time. The Jordanian army remains loyal to the King and his government, but it is mainly recruited from the Bedouin who have little in common with the Palestinians.

The main factor in Jordan's internal politics since the war has been the rivalry between the official government and the guerrilla organizations, principally Al Fatah. These organizations have gradually assumed effective control of the refugee camps and command widespread support amongst the Palestinian majority of Jordan's present population; they are also thought to receive arms and training assistance from other Arab countries, particularly Syria, and finance from the oil-rich Gulf states. Some camps have become commando training centres; the younger occupants of these, almost all unemployed, welcome the sense of purpose and relief from idleness and boredom that recruitment into a guerrilla group offers. The fedayeen movement has virtually become a state within a state. Its leadership has stated that "We have no wish to interfere in the internal affairs of Jordan provided it does not place any obstacles in the way of our struggle to liberate Palestine"; in practice, however, its popularity and influence represent a challenge to the government, whilst its actions attract Israeli reprisals that do serious damage to the East Bank, now the only fertile part of Jordan, and generally reduce the possibilities of a peace settlement on which Jordan's long-term future depends.

A major confrontation between the two forces occurred in November 1968, after massive demonstrations in Amman on the anniversary of the Balfour Declaration. Extensive street fighting broke out between guerrillas and the army, and for a short period a civil war seemed possible, but both sides soon backed down. Some sources attributed the trouble to the government's attempt (subsequently abandoned) to disarm the refugee camps; others pointed out that small extremist groups had led the fighting, which was discouraged by the more responsible Al Fatah leadership. Similar confrontations followed in February and June 1970, and on both occasions the government was forced to yield to Palestinian pressures. In February the cabinet soon had to abandon an attempt to restrict the carrying of arms by guerrillas; the most serious crisis took place in June, when a week's fighting in Amman and the surrounding district resulted in an estimated 100 deaths, an assassination attempt on the King and a partial evacuation of the Western community in the capital. King Hussein and Yassir Arafat, the Al Fatah leader (whose own position was threatened by the rise of small

extremist groups in Jordan) jointly drew up and signed an agreement re-defining their respective spheres of influence. The guerrillas appear to have granted little or nothing but Hussein was forced to dismiss his Commander in Chief and a cabinet minister—both relatives—who were regarded as the leaders of the anti-fedayeen faction which remained strong amongst the Bedouin sheikhs. Despite the agreement the tension between the government and the guerrillas continued aggravated by opposition to the government's concessions from hard line army officers.

A new and dangerous stage in the relations between the two sides in Jordan was reached in July with the acceptance by the government of the American peace proposals for the Middle East. The guerrilla groups, with few exceptions rejected these and as the cease-fire between the U.A.R. and Israel came into operation on August 7th it was clear that the Jordanian Government was preparing for a full scale confrontation with them. The top command of the army was strengthened and measures were taken to bolster the defences of Amman. At the same time there was fighting between some of the guerrillas themselves over attitudes to the Rogers plan.

Bitter fighting between government and guerrilla forces broke out at the end of August. In the first part of September the violence was increased by two factors, the assassination attempt on King Hussein and the hijackings by P.L.F.P. of four Western airliners. The threat of intervention on the side of the commandos by Iraq and Syria, the transference of Libyan aid from the Jordanian government to the guerrillas, a succession of cease-fire agreements between the two sides, the release of all but 54 hostages taken from the aircraft to secure the release of Palestinian commandos held by Western governments, none of these developments were enough to prevent the escalation into full civil war in the last half of the month and thousands of deaths and injuries (Estimates of deaths up to the first week in October vary between 500 and 3,500). The continued detention of any hostages by the P.L.F.P. was a direct challenge to the government's authority. On September 16th a military cabinet was formed under Brig. Muhammad Daoud—in any case martial law had been in force since the end of the June 1967 war—and immediately Field Marshal Habis Majali replaced as Commander in Chief Lt. Gen. Mashour Haditha who had been sympathetic to the commandos and had tried to restrain their severest opponents in the army.

In the fighting that followed the guerrillas claimed full control in the north aided by Syrian forces and it was later revealed three battalions of the Palestine Liberation Army sent back by President Nasser from the Suez front. The Arab states generally appealed for an end to the fighting. Libya threatened to intervene and later broke off diplomatic relations. Kuwait stopped its aid to the government but the Iraqi troops stationed on the Eastern front against Israel notably failed to intervene. On the government side talks were held with the U.S.A. about direct military assistance—on what scale is not known but there were rumours of a plan for joint American and

Israeli intervention if Hussein looked in danger of being overthrown. In the event such a dangerous widening of the Palestinian confrontation was avoided by the scale of the casualties in Jordan and by the diplomacy of Arab heads of state (reinforced by President Nasser's reported threat to intervene on the guerrillas' behalf) who prevailed upon King Hussein and Yassir Arafat to sign an agreement in Cairo on September 27th ending the war. A follow up committee of three members was established under the Tunisian premier Bahi Ladgham to oversee the implementation of the agreement. The previous day a civilian cabinet had been restored under Ahmed Touqan. Five military members were retained.

A definitive agreement very favourable to the liberation organizations was signed by Hussein and Arafat on October 13th but this proved to be simply the beginning of a phase of sporadic warfare between the two parties, punctuated by new agreements during which the commandos were gradually forced out of Amman and driven from their positions in the north back towards the Syrian frontier. At the end of October a new government still containing three army officers was formed under Wasfi Tal. By January 1971 army moves against the Palestine guerrillas had become so blatant that Ladgham threatened to resign from the follow up committee and the U.A.R., Syria and Algeria all issued strong protests at the Jordanian Government's attempt to liquidate the liberation movements. All but two brigades of Iraqi troops were however withdrawn from Jordan.

By April the Jordanian Government seemed strong enough to set a deadline for the guerrillas' withdrawal of their remaining men and heavy armaments from the capital. Later in the month King Hussein was able to state that 'security' had been restored and to ban trade unions, student unions and other organizations backed by the guerrillas. Isolated outbreaks of fighting between government and commando forces were still being reported from the north however. More important was the declaration issued on June 5th by seven commando organizations including even the more moderate I.A.H. calling for the overthrow of Hussein. However it was the Jordanian authorities who in July moved first to resolve the contest for political power in Jordan and the Jordanian army had destroyed the remaining guerrilla bases by the end of the month. Many guerrillas were imprisoned others sought refuge in Israeli-occupied territory. Other Arab states regarded the latest Jordanian moves critically and a conference was held in Tripoli to discuss the situation.

Since the disastrous losses in the June war the Jordanian armed forces have been largely re-equipped by Britain and the U.S. (an offer of Soviet aid was refused). The most important items were jet fighters, tanks and anti aircraft missiles designed to protect Jordan's airfields from the Israeli Air Force which had hitherto enjoyed the freedom of the Jordan skies—and used this freedom frequently in its raids on guerrilla camps and other installations. Early in 1971 King Hussein was promised a large increase in American military assistance during the year.

L.P.E.S.

ECONOMIC SURVEY

The fundamental fact about Jordan's economy is that, like the country's political life, it has twice been completely disrupted by war between the Arabs and the Israelis, first in 1948, and then in 1967. It is true that as one of the results of the war of 1948 Jordan acquired some 2,165 square miles of new territory—the vast salient which juts out into Israel west of the River Jordan—but, in a matter of a few months, the country's population increased more than threefold. In 1948, before the war broke out, the country's population was perhaps 400,000. According to the latest estimate given by the United Nations Monthly Bulletin of Statistics, the population at the middle of 1969 was 2,217,000. Similarly, the population of Amman, the capital, about 30,000 before the war of 1948, is according to the latest estimate in 1968, of the order of 450,000. The number of those living on the West Bank of the River Jordan in the territory acquired in 1948 was well over 800,000. Most of this territory was occupied by the Israelis in 1967, but perhaps 200,000 of the inhabitants fled to non-occupied Jordan. The absorption of the refugees of 1948 and of 1967 into Jordan's economy has presented the country with problems for which few precedents could be found in modern times.

The problem was accentuated by racial and other differences. The original inhabitants of Jordan before 1948 were racially homogeneous, being mainly Bedouin from the desert, and were occupied for the most part in pastoral and even nomadic pursuits. The Palestinians were racially far more mixed, and many had a totally different background. Most of the 100,000 who then succeeded in establishing themselves in Jordan were traders and professional men, and had few affinities with the men of the desert. Then again, even if the many refugees were excluded, no less than 450,000 of Jordan's population, or rather more than the country's total population in 1948, were described as townsmen. Moreover, whereas an overwhelming majority of Jordan's original population were Sunni Muslims, there were till 1967 180,000 Christians in the country. The diversity of the population therefore did not make it any easier to find a solution.

All the same, as the result of stable government and a higher level of foreign aid per head of the population than that of any other country, Jordan had gone a long way towards adapting her economy to these difficulties before war broke out again in 1967, and the country's gross domestic product had increased between 1959 and 1967 from J.D. 97 million to J.D. 194 million. But the loss of the west bank of the Jordan to Israel in the summer of 1967 created a whole series of new problems. For the result was the loss not only of some of Jordan's richest agricultural land, but also of the important and growing tourist industry, and of the large sums in foreign exchange received from the people who annually visited the old city of Jerusalem and Bethlehem, till 1967 in Jordanian territory. Some of the immediate problems brought by the war of 1967 were met by aid from Arab countries, but Jordan's economic future in the long run will obviously depend on the nature of any settlement which may be reached with Israel.

The area of the country till 1967, including the 2,165 square miles of the West Bank territory, was about 25,000 square miles, or about three-quarters of the size of England without Wales, and almost exactly that of the state of Indiana. A large part of it however consisted of desert which spreads eastwards from a narrow, fertile strip of country running south from the Syrian frontier to Ma'an, and probably no more than about 5 per cent of the country's total area was cultivable. East of the Jordan

river the country is mostly plateau, averaging about 2,000 ft. above sea level. The climate is of the Mediterranean variety, but, owing perhaps to the height above sea level, the extremes of heat and cold are greater than on the Levantine littoral. West of the Hejaz railway there is an abundant and fairly regular rainy season, beginning in October or November and ending in April, and following the same pattern as in Israel. East of the railway line the annual rainfall tends to decrease very rapidly. From May to September there is generally no rainfall at all.

AGRICULTURE

A great deal of work has been done recently by the statistical department of the Ministry of Economy to improve the country's statistical services, including the publication of quarterly bulletins and a yearbook of statistics. Nevertheless, the confusion into which the country's economic life was thrown by the effects of the war of 1948 made it hazardous to assess progress during the best part of the two decades which followed. The effects of the war of 1967 were similar. As a result, there are large gaps in the statistical apparatus. A census of agriculture was carried out in the autumn of 1953 by the government as a joint project with the United States Technical Co-operation Service of Jordan, and from the published results of this work it was possible to form some idea of the country's current agricultural structure. According to the census, there were, for instance, only 92,000 agricultural holdings of 4 acres or more. Of these nearly half were between four and twenty acres, and nearly a quarter of the rest were between twenty and forty acres; there were only 22 holdings of 2,000 acres or more. It will therefore be seen that the size of the average holding was exceedingly small.

A sharp distinction must be drawn between agricultural conditions on the two sides of the River Jordan. On the west, the land is poor but well farmed, and, largely because of the training the farmers received in the time of the British mandate, every effort was made by terracing and similar means to prevent erosion or to diminish its effects. Most of the cultivable land was cultivated, and about a third of the area was sown to fruit and vegetables. On the East Bank, methods of farming have been less developed, and much of the land has suffered severely from erosion. The shortage of capital has been an obstacle to extensive irrigation and even to terracing, and, though there is evidence that in ancient times the land supported a much larger population than it does today, further development depends on the realization of international schemes of irrigation such as those referred to below. Generally speaking, stock-raising by the Bedouin is the principal occupation, and the overwhelming majority of settled farmers follow the hard life of subsistence agriculture.

In the early 1960s there were noteworthy improvements in crop raising. At the end of 1966, for instance, there were over 2,000 tractors in use by the farmers, twice as many as in 1962, and five times as many as in 1956. Similarly in 1966 the farmers bought a total of about 10,000 tons of inorganic fertilizers, compared with 3,000 tons in 1962. The early 1960s saw a series of poor cereal harvests caused by bad weather, but in good years the wheat harvest could be well over 200,000 tons, that of barley being about 70,000 tons or about 500,000 and 200,000 acres respectively. At the same time, a cereal crop of this size was far too small to feed the country, as the bulk of the grain needed by Jordan always had to be imported, the value of flour and grain imported amounting, in some years, to more

than the value of the whole of Jordan's exports. On the other hand much success was achieved between 1948 and 1964 in the growing of fruit and vegetables particularly on the West Bank and tomatoes especially became an important article of export. Other important crops were chickpeas lentils kerseneh peas and sesame. On the West Bank there were many olive groves and olive oil became another important export.

The loss of the West Bank had a disastrous effect on Jordan's agriculture and the almost continuous guerrilla warfare in 1969 and 1970 has made matters worse. Thus according to statistics published by the Central Bank the wheat crop in 1970 has fallen to 54 000 tons barely a quarter of what might have been expected in a normal year before 1967. The barley crop in 1970 was less than half. The fall in the production of fruit and vegetables which were grown as stated mainly on the West Bank was equally severe. According to the same source the production of tomatoes fell between 1967 and 1970 from 179 000 to 107 000 tons and that of other vegetables from 282 000 tons to 55 000 tons. Water melons from 118 000 tons to 36 000 tons. Citrus fruit from 61 000 tons to 18 000 tons. Grapes from 72 000 tons to 19 000 tons and olives from 64 000 tons to 28 000 tons. It is significant that the volume of artificial fertilizers bought by the farmers in 1968 was 2 800 tons compared with 10 000 tons in 1962.

Sheep and goats are the basis of Bedouin stockfarming and the number of cattle is a good deal smaller. No doubt the importance of the goat to the Arab economy accounts for the deforestation of the country though there has been a great deal of uncontrolled felling particularly during World War I. There are however still several important forests particularly in the north around Ajlun and near Ma'an and since 1948 the government has attached special importance to their preservation and to reforestation.

INDUSTRY

As far as is known the country's mineral wealth is small though according to a recent survey there are possibilities of finding useful deposits of copper iron ore nickel and manganese. An associated company of the Iraq Petroleum Company held a concession to prospect for oil but found none of any commercial importance. When the concession was relinquished the government entered into an arrangement with Mr. Edwin Pauley an independent United States oil producer which permitted him to undertake exploration covering a third of the country's area. Mr. Pauley subsequently sold his rights to Phillips Petroleum Co. though retaining a royalty interest in net profits. Phillips Petroleum however withdrew in 1960 and in 1964 a concession was granted to an American Mr. John Mecom to prospect for oil. During 1964 several wells were sunk though apparently without finding oil in commercial quantities and in 1966 the concession was surrendered. In March 1968 a concession to explore for oil in the Wadi Surhan area near the frontier with Saudi Arabia was granted to I.N.A. a Yugoslav state oil concern and to the National Resources Authority (N.R.A.) a Jordanian state organization. The two groups had equal shares in the concession. In 1969 I.N.A. sold 30 per cent of its holding to Deminex a consortium of independent West German oil companies. In January 1971 I.N.A. and N.R.A. announced that the exploration and drilling of the Wadi Surhan area had shown encouraging indications of the presence of oil.

Over half the shore of the Dead Sea lay in Jordan's territory and so did the factory of the Palestine Potash Company which was destroyed in the war of 1948. If capital could have been found to rebuild the plant valuable

deposits of potash and bromine in the Dead Sea could have been exploited by Jordan as well as by Israel. In 1963 the IBRD and the U.S. AID in conjunction with an American company agreed to make a loan of \$60 million available for a project to develop these resources. Rich beds of phosphates exist at Rusafa a few miles north east of Amman and have been exploited since 1963 by a local company financed partly by the government phosphates constituting an important export. A new deposit of phosphates estimated to amount to about 30 million tons was discovered in 1963 south of Amman in the Wadi Hasa area. In 1966 a contract for the exploitation of these deposits was awarded to American and Italian interests. In 1970 the country's total production of natural phosphates was 939 000 tons nearly five times the production of 1956. The Wadi Hasa valley which leads into the southern end of the Dead Sea appears to be comparatively rich in other minerals. Gypsum is found in this area also manganese ore and here again the government has participated in a company formed to exploit the deposits and plans to build a new plant there.

The absence of local fuel has restricted the development of industry and for many years local industries hardly existed except for a few small concerns manufacturing cigarettes and processing foodstuffs for instance, the clarified butter known as *samneh*. The government has attempted to develop a small manufacturing industry in order to find work for the refugees from Palestine and with the help of the United Nations Relief and Works Agency (UNRWA) established a Development Bank in 1951 to finance suitable enterprises and a good deal of progress has recently been made. A cement factory was set up and the country's production increased from a monthly average of 31 000 tons in 1966 to 40 000 tons in 1969 but fell back to 32 000 tons in 1970. There are now small concerns canning fruit and vegetables making soap and matches and refining olive oil. The government also established a mineral oil refinery which came into operation in 1960 and is believed to have saved the country a large sum in foreign exchange producing about 446 000 tons of petroleum products in 1970. The Gulf of Aqaba abounds in fish and during the British mandate fish landed at Aqaba found a ready sale in Jerusalem and throughout Palestine in spite of transport difficulties. The war of 1948 put an end to this but if capital were available a flourishing fishing industry might be developed.

One of the major obstacles to the development of Jordan's economy is the difficulty of communication. The only railway is the single-track Hejaz line running from Damascus to Naqab Ishtar via Amman which is not of great economic importance. Arrangements were made by the government for a Polish concern to repair and reconstruct this railway, but political objections were raised and in 1956 the arrangements were cancelled. However in 1963 a contract worth \$10 million was awarded by the governments of Saudi Arabia Jordan and Syria for the reconstruction of the railway. Before the outbreak of war in 1967 it was hoped that repairs would be completed some time in 1968. Work has been resumed since the war.

The only port in the country is at Aqaba over 200 miles by road from the capital and though there is a good road through Syria to Beirut the cost of taking goods by this route is heavy. The government has therefore paid special attention to the improvement of such communications as there are. A programme for the improvement of facilities at the port of Aqaba was completed in 1960. By 1966 the port was handling an average of about 100 000 tons a month. As a result of the war the monthly average has fallen year by year to 62 000 tons in 1969 and 34 000 tons in 1970. However Aqaba is being extended to stimulate the entrepôt trade. In 1958 a road from Amman to Jeru-

salem was opened and in recent years much money has been spent on other roads, notably those from Aqaba to Ma'an and from Aqaba to Amman. Further road and rail development and the establishment of a ferry to Taba on the Egyptian side of the Gulf of Aqaba should increase the importance of the port. In 1966 Saudi Arabia exchanged a strip of shoreline south of the town for an equal area inland, and a UN consultant's study recommended the development of this area for tourism, and the setting-up of a free port at Aqaba.

EXTERNAL TRADE

Bearing in mind the nature of the economic upheaval which overtook the country in 1948 and 1967, and the absence of any local industrial raw materials, it is hardly surprising that Jordan's economy should have required heavy financial assistance from abroad to make ends meet. The country's foreign trade, in particular, has followed an exceedingly unusual pattern. During the six years from 1951 to 1956, the average annual value of exports and re-exports amounted to J.D. 2.6 million. That of imports amounted to no less than J.D. 21 million, so that only an eighth of the value of the goods Jordan imported was paid for by the country's exports. Great efforts were made to expand exports, and in 1966 they were valued at J.D. 10.4 million compared with J.D. 1.5 million in 1951. Nevertheless the progress of the country's development in this period was inevitably followed by a heavy increase in imports, which were valued in 1966 at J.D. 68.2 million compared with only J.D. 15.7 million in 1951. The war of 1967 disrupted the country's foreign trade less, perhaps, than might have been expected. The value of imports fell to J.D. 55.1 million in 1967, but recovered in the following year to J.D. 57.5 million, and in 1970 reached 67.7 million, roughly the level of 1966. The value of exports, on the other hand, has shown a slow but steady increase, to J.D. 11.3 million in 1967, J.D. 14.3 million in 1968, J.D. 14.7 million in 1969, but falling to J.D. 11.9 million in 1970.

In 1970 tomatoes, other vegetables and fruit together with similar foodstuffs accounted for no less than 48 per cent of the value of Jordan's exports, according to figures published by the Central Bank, and raw materials, mainly phosphates, for another 40 per cent, so that the country's export trade depends overwhelmingly on these items. By far the greatest proportion of Jordan's exports used to be sold to Iraq, the Lebanon or Syria, which together absorbed as much as 89 per cent of Jordan's exports in 1953. But by 1970 the proportion of her exports taken by all the other Arab countries had fallen to 70 per cent, with India taking another 11 per cent. A determined attempt was made in the late fifties by the U.S.S.R., China and the countries of Eastern Europe to increase their trade with Jordan, as with other countries of the Arab world. In 1953 few goods of any kind appear to have been exported by Jordan to these countries. By 1961 exports to them amounted to 26 per cent of the total value of Jordan's exports. Since then they have fallen, and the proportion in 1970 was 11 per cent.

The import trade is naturally more varied. In most years the largest item consists of machinery, vehicles and other transport equipment, which in 1970 accounted for about 20 per cent of the total value of imports, and cost alone more than the total value of exports in that year. Owing to the effects of the war and bad harvests, however, the main items of imports in 1970 consisted of foodstuffs, the value of which amounted to 27 per cent of the total, other consumer goods, mainly textiles, accounted for another 18 per cent. Imports of petroleum, mainly in the form of crude oil, amounted to 6 per cent of the total value. In 1970, 21 per cent of the value of Jordan's imports

came from the other Arab countries, followed by the countries of the European Economic Community with 18 per cent, the U.K. with 14 per cent, the U.S.A. with 9 per cent and Japan with 8 per cent. China and the countries of Eastern Europe supplied together 14 per cent.

FINANCE

The only important invisible export on current account has been the net earnings from the tourist trade and the net income from private donations, including those from religious, charitable and similar organizations. Until the war of 1967, Bethlehem and the old city of Jerusalem were in Jordanian territory. Many people came to visit them, and sent money from abroad to help maintain the various foundations. By 1966, the number of tourists visiting the country annually was of the order of 150,000 from Western Europe and the U.S.A. and the net income from tourism had more than doubled since 1963, standing at J.D. 6.1 million. It had fallen to J.D. 1.5 million, and by 1970 there was actually a deficit on travel account of J.D. 5.1 million, the number of tourists having fallen to 2,000 in 1969 and probably not much more in 1970, though many interesting ancient monuments such as Jerash and Petra remain in the country's territory. There has been a similar fall in the net income from private donations etc., including payments from Tapline, the company which owns the oil pipeline from Dhahran to Sidon in the Lebanon, which crosses Jordan but was out of action for many months in 1970, though when throughput was resumed in 1971 Tapline agreed to increase its payments to Jordan from \$4.5 million to \$7.2 million per annum. These invisible payments do much to offset the heavy adverse balance of visible trade in normal conditions, but in 1970, when the adverse balance increased to over J.D. 55 million, the deficit on the current account of the balance of payments was even heavier than usual. For many years this deficit had been made good by capital imports and subventions of one kind or another from the U.K. and the U.S.A. Since the war of 1967, there have also been similar payments from Kuwait, Libya, and Saudi Arabia (*see below*). These subventions have enabled the country's exchange reserves to be maintained and even increased. In February 1971 they stood at J.D. 89 million compared with J.D. 87 million at the end of 1967.

As the country's economy was, until 1956, mainly financed by the United Kingdom, it was natural that Jordan should be a member of the sterling area, and the Jordanian dinar of 1,000 fils was held at parity with sterling until the devaluation of the pound in November 1967. On this occasion, the dinar did not follow sterling, with the result that the parity for sterling changed to 857 fils to the £1, i.e. J.D. 1 = £1.17p. For many years the currency was managed by a currency board on which the British were represented, and the cover for the note issue was held in sterling. In 1962 the government decided to set up a Central Bank to take charge of the note issue and the foreign exchange control. The currency in circulation increased between January 1953 and December 1956 from J.D. 8.8 million to J.D. 16.8 million, and at the end of December 1970 stood at J.D. 97 million. The Arab Bank, which possesses branches in most of the countries that are members of the Arab League, has its head office in Amman, but the other commercial banks are British, namely National and Grindlays and the British Bank of the Middle East. There is, however, a Development Bank of Jordan for long-term development and an Agricultural Bank, in both of which the government is interested.

Up to the time of the abrogation of the Anglo-Jordanian Treaty in 1957, budgetary deficits were regularly made good by the United Kingdom which, in addition, paid for the cost of the Arab Legion. The total of the subventions

and grants-in-aid thus made by the United Kingdom to Jordan in the years 1946 to 1956 was of the order of £80 million. With the termination of the Treaty regular payments by the United Kingdom came to an end for the time being. The governments of Egypt, Syria and Saudi Arabia thereupon undertook to pay Jordan the sum which the country had hitherto been receiving from the United Kingdom, but of the three governments only Saudi Arabia fulfilled its promise. Although in 1956 a draft agreement was signed in Damascus for an economic union between Syria and Jordan, little if any progress in this direction was made in the following years. On the other hand Jordan adhered to the Eisenhower Doctrine in 1957 and was thereupon promised grants by the United States. Subsequently the United Kingdom also resumed making grants and the budget continued to be supported by grants-in-aid from these two countries. However, aid from the United States, which in 1963-64 had been as high as \$37.5 million, was gradually reduced.

A completely new situation was created by the war of 1967. This was recognized by the Arab rulers meeting at Khartoum early in August 1967 at which it was decided that Kuwait, Libya and Saudi Arabia would between them pay to Jordan the sum of US \$122 million (£47 million at \$2.40 to the £) in quarterly instalments continuing until the effects of the aggression are eliminated. The quarterly payments began in October 1967. Additional aid from Abu Dhabi and Saudi Arabia amounting to £5,800,000 and £15 million respectively was also promised. The Saudi aid was specifically for military equipment. Largely because of the war of 1967 there has been a noteworthy increase in expenditure from something of the order of J.D. 70 million immediately before the war to an estimated total of J.D. 88 million for 1970 of which just under half is for defence. Receipts for 1970 were estimated at J.D. 84 million of which J.D. 34 million consisted of domestic revenue about two-thirds coming from indirect taxation. A further J.D. 12 million was to be found by aid and development loans and the balance of J.D. 38 million took the form of aid from the Arab countries mentioned above, direct budgetary support from the U.S.A. and the U.K. having ceased altogether. Thus some 60 per cent of the expenditure of the state was to be found from abroad. However, during the autumn of 1970 payments due from Libya and Kuwait were temporarily suspended because of the disturbances in the country.

ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

It would no doubt be an exaggeration to say that the war of 1967 had wrecked the various attempts made during the preceding two decades to improve the country's standard of living and to create a workable economy. But equally it would be a serious understatement to describe the economic effects of the war as merely a grave setback. It is true that there was for a time something of an economic recovery since 1967, but it has necessarily been limited and the disturbances of 1970 made matters worse. The fact remains that much of the planning and the development of the years before 1967 has been frustrated and the value of the rest will clearly depend to a large extent on the nature of the ultimate settlement and on how many years elapse before it takes place. But in the meantime a summary of what was planned and what was achieved before the summer of 1967 is perhaps of interest.

From the end of the war of 1948 the most important and certainly the most heartbreaking task for the authorities in Jordan was that of looking after the refugees from Palestine who even in 1962 amounted to some 600,000. This was something quite beyond the means of Jordan's own public finances and the ultimate responsibility was

accordingly assumed by UNRWA, which for several years paid something like J.D. 5 million, by 1970 reduced to J.D. 3.3 million per annum for rations distributed to the refugees and was itself probably the largest employer of labour in the country with perhaps some 2,500 on its pay roll. Only about 150,000 of the refugees lived in organized camps and the others found shelter where they could. Rationing presented a serious problem because a death in the family naturally reduced the number of ration cards a family could present and a birth increased it. The ultimate purpose of UNRWA was to resettle the refugees of Jordan. An obstacle to this was the natural reluctance of the refugees to surrender their claims to eventual repatriation to their old homes by starting a new life in another country. This feeling was played on by propaganda from Egypt and elsewhere suggesting that perhaps the refugees might not have long to wait before they could return.

In the meantime a development board was set up in 1952 with a British secretary general and a representative of the United States Point Four organisation to plan the country's economic development. The board was financed by annual grants from the United Kingdom and from the United States. The money was spent on small-scale projects such as irrigation and terracing, advances to co-operative societies, the development of the production of potash and phosphates and the improvement of communications as already mentioned. The development board was responsible for a great deal of useful work but with the abrogation of the Anglo-Jordanian Treaty it could hardly be expected to operate on a similar scale as in the past.

All the experts are agreed that no real progress can be made in developing the country's economy without the realisation of some far-reaching plan for bringing as much as possible of the desert into cultivation by irrigation. Any such plan involves the better use of the waters of the River Jordan and of the Yarmuk, which flows into that river a little to the south of Lake Tiberias and forms the frontier between Syria and Jordan. The difficulty is therefore that quite apart from the large sums of money that would be required the agreement of the riparian states is a prerequisite. An attempt to avoid this difficulty was made in 1951 by a plan worked out by Sir Murdoch MacDonald, the consulting engineer for the Jordan government. His plans were subsequently superseded by a scheme prepared by American experts employed by the Tennessee Valley Authority. Their scheme developed into what was known as the Johnston Plan after Mr. Eric Johnston for several years the special representative of President Eisenhower for this area. The plan was originally presented to the Arab states by Mr. Johnston in October 1953. It involved among other things the diversion of the Yarmuk into Lake Tiberias, the draining of the Huleh marshes which till 1967 were partly in Israeli and partly in Syrian territory, the raising of the level of Lake Tiberias, the construction of two canals east and west of the River Jordan and the generation of hydro-electric power by throwing a dam across the Yarmuk. The cost of the whole scheme was estimated in 1953 to be about \$135 million or about £50 million and it was designed to irrigate about 230,000 acres of land, mainly in Jordan. Agreement on the plan between the governments of Jordan, Syria and Israel, however, proved unattainable.

In the meantime the Israelis went ahead with work on diverting part of the waters of the Jordan and the Yarmuk to the Negev. By 1964 the work was nearly complete and at the Arab summit conference held in Cairo in January 1964 the Arab states involved announced measures to withhold water from Israel. These measures would have included the diversion of the River Baniyas into the Yar

muk, which flows partly through Jordan, and the damming of the Yarmuk to prevent it from flowing into the Jordan. They would have required a great deal of finance, and were additional to the plans of the government of Jordan for using the waters of the Yarmuk to irrigate the Ghor area. However, the government of Jordan started work on a project known as the Greater Yarmuk scheme, of which the first phase was the building of a dam on the Wadi Khalid at Mukheiba, which was expected to irrigate some 90,000 acres when completed, and would have had a 28,000 kW hydroelectric power station connected with it.

In spite of the recommendations, published in 1957, of a mission sent to Jordan by the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development to work out a ten-year development programme, the country for several years did not adopt any overall plan. On the other hand, the development board was responsible for the realisation of several important projects. Among these may be mentioned the improvement of the port of Aqaba, and the desert road from Aqaba to Amman, referred to above. There was also a plan to reclaim land and irrigate it for agriculture, known as the East Ghor Irrigation project, as the result of which it was estimated that some 28,000 acres of land would eventually be irrigated. The fifty-mile Ghor Canal, drawing water from the Yarmuk river, was completed in 1964, benefiting some 60,000 Jordanians at a cost of some £30 million. The canal has, however, been interfered with by hostilities on several occasions during 1969-70.

Eventually in 1961 the development board published a five-year plan for the economic development of the country. The plan provided for the expenditure of J.D. 127 million during the years 1962-67 on a series of schemes, J.D. 41 million being allocated to agriculture, forestry and water resources, J.D. 22 million to industry, J.D. 20 million to building and J.D. 17 million each to communications and social development, including education and public health. The plan proposed that J.D. 21 million of the cost was to be provided by the Jordanian Government, and J.D. 47 million by private investment inside Jordan. The balance of J.D. 59 million was to be found abroad, and in 1962 the Kuwait Fund for Arab Economic Development made a loan to Jordan amounting to J.D. 7.5 million, the proceeds of which were to be used to finance certain projects provided for in the plan. By the end of 1965, many of the projects envisaged by the plan of 1961 had been realized.

In 1966 the cabinet approved a seven year plan, involving an estimated cost of J.D. 209 million, of which J.D. 90 million would be in the public sector and J.D. 119 million in private investment. The plan aimed to increase the Gross National Product to J.D. 191 million in 1970 (1962 figure J.D. 128 million), and to reduce the trade deficit from J.D. 38 million to J.D. 24 million in 1970, also to increase the level of employment by five per cent a year. In addition to projects in tourism, agriculture, industry, mining, communications, reconstruction and education there were important proposals for the exploitation of phosphate and potash. In connection with this plan, work was started in 1966 on the first stage of a greater electricity project which would link up the existing networks at Amman, Nablus and Irbid, and connect them with the hydroelectric power station on the Khalid dam mentioned above, and with another 40,000 kW. hydroelectric power station to be built in the Zerka valley. In 1970 it was announced that Czechoslovak firm had been given a contract to select a suitable site for this dam, and that the Kuwait Arab Economic Development Fund would make J.D. 5 million available for its construction. The British Government said in 1971 that it would provide an interest-free loan of £3.5 million to help finance the expansion of the Jordan Electricity Company at Amman.

In 1966, the government of Saudi Arabia gave Jordan an interest-free loan of J.D. 5 million to build roads to the Saudi Arabian frontier at Safi and Al Mudawwarab from Aqaba and Ma'an respectively. Some of these projects had to be deferred because of the 1967 war, notably the scheme for the extraction of potash by the Dead Sea. For these and other reasons it is hard to say what has resulted from all these plans. But by the end of 1968 J.D. 109 million had been spent on development projects, mainly on agriculture, irrigation, mining and the construction of new roads. The total public debt, which was raised mostly for development, amounted to J.D. 37 million at the end of 1969; of this J.D. 14 million had been raised in the U.K., 9 million in Kuwait, 4 million in Saudi Arabia, 3 million from the U.S. A.I.D. and a further 3 million from the I.D.A. The Gross National Product in 1968 was J.D. 197 million, inflation no doubt accounting for the difference between this figure and the estimate made in 1966 for the G.N.P. in 1970, given above.

B.S.-E.

JORDAN—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

STATISTICAL SURVEY

(The figures in this survey relate to the territory of Jordan as it was before June 1967; in general no separate figures are available for the East Bank)

AREA AND POPULATION (1963)

TOTAL AREA	ARABLE LAND	PASTURES	FOREST	POPULATION (1969 est)
96 670 sq km	13 000 sq km	1,000 sq km	1,250 sq km	2,250,000

Amman (capital) (1968 est.) 450 000, Bethlehem 58 519, Jericho 67,016

1968 Births 69 483 Marriages 12 212, Deaths (East Bank only) 6 303

AGRICULTURE PRINCIPAL CROPS

	AREA (¹ 000 dunums)*			PRODUCTION (¹ 000 metric tons)		
	1966	1967	1968	1966	1967	1968
Barley . . .	645 2	583 9	714 4	22 8	63 4	19 7
Maize . . .	51 7	4 2	9 2	2 6	0 5	0 3
Sesame . . .	22 0	10 4	19 2	0 8	0 4	0 5
Wheat . . .	2,138 9	2 259 8	2,184 3	101 1	196 1	95 1
Broad Beans . . .	35 8	9 6	16 3	2 0	10 3	7 1
Chick Peas . . .	34 7	36 7	18 7	1 5	3 1	0 9
Kersenneh . . .	144 2	87 3	70 2	6 9	8 1	2 3
Lentils . . .	194 8	227 9	225 2	11 0	24 2	10 8

* 1 dunum = 0 2223 acre

FRUIT AND VEGETABLES (¹000 metric tons)

	1966	1967	1968		1966	1967	1968
Almonds . . .	3 5	0 8	0 4	Tomatoes . . .	144 6	216 3	127 3
Apples and pears . . .	6 8	2 2	1 5	Aubergines . . .	50 4	58 5	27 0
Apricots . . .	2 4	0 5	0 3	Onions and Garlic . . .	21 7	10 1	0 9
Citrus fruits . . .	57 2	29 0	17 6	Cauliflower & Cabbage . . .	21 6	33 3	10 8
Figs . . .	16 4	3 6	0 7	Cucumbers . . .	39 6	28 2	2 5
Bananas . . .	16 8	22 2	5 5	Potatoes . . .	22 4	4 6	3 1
Plums and peaches . . .	4 7	1 8	0 6	Grapes . . .	61 9	23 1	7 6

LIVESTOCK

	1966	1967*	1968*		1966	1967*	1968*
Camels . . .	16 600	11,000	13 400	Goats . . .	765,800	377,000	400 200
Cattle . . .	78 300	41,000	39 800	Sheep . . .	1,135 900	768 000	792,300

* East Bank only

JORDAN—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

FORESTRY

	1967	1968
Forestry reserves ('000 dunums)*	—	—
Area newly planted ('000 dunums)	10.5	3.2
Timber production (cu. metres)	1,497	1,732

* 1 Dunum=0.22239 acre.

FISHING

	1966	1967	1968
Quantity of fish landed at Aqaba and on Jordan and Yarmuk rivers (tons)	194.5	110	71.0

INDUSTRY

('000 tons)

	1965	1966	1967	1968
Phosphates . . .	827.9	1,035.9	1,082.3	1,156.3
Cement . . .	305.1	374.2	320.6	361.2
Alcohol ('000 litres)	398.1	424.6	295.0	237.6
Beer ('000 litres)	854.8	1,267.5	1,115	1,393.4
Tobacco (Kg.) . .	45,575	72,151	37,258	10,311
Cigarettes (Kg.) .	1,164,248	1,502,182	1,829,000	1,603,612
Electricity (million kWh.)	150	175	157	156

FINANCE

1 Jordanian dinar (J.D.)=1,000 fils.

0.858 J.D.=£1 sterling; 0.357 J.D.=U.S. \$1.

100 J.D.=£116.66 sterling=U.S. \$280.

BUDGET 1969

(J.D. '000)

REVENUE		EXPENDITURE	
Internal Revenue	31,507	Defence and Police	46,043
Foreign Grants	40,405	Administration	12,441
Foreign Borrowing	4,837	Social Services	11,847
Internal Borrowing	8,400	Economic Services	12,413
Loans Repaid	659	Transport and Communications	4,528
TOTAL	85,808	TOTAL	87,272

Since October 1967 Jordan has been receiving aid from Saudi Arabia, Kuwait and Libya at an annual rate of J.D. 40m. and in 1968 an interest-free loan of £5m. sterling was received from the United Kingdom.

JORDAN—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

NATIONAL ACCOUNTS (million J.D.)

	1965	1966	1967*
Gross Domestic Product	150 95	149 74	176 59
of which			
Agriculture	34 11	27 65	38 74
Manufacturing and mining	16 22	17 27	17 50
Construction	7 87	9 28	8 69
Electricity supply	1 68	2 26	2 14
Transport	12 60	14 42	14 55
Commerce	31 43	28 97	39 08
Banking	2 11	2 77	7 81
Ownership of dwellings	10 69	11 20	11 90
Public administration and defence	21 41	22 03	26 01
Services	12 83	13 94	15 17
Income from abroad	12 93	15 15	11 24
Gross National Income	163 88	164 89	187 83
Indirect taxes	16 66	20 89	17 60
Gross National Product	180 54	185 78	205 43
Balance of exports and imports of goods and services	35 01	44 54	36 02
AVAILABLE RESOURCES	202 62	215 17	241 45
of which			
Private consumption expenditure	138 04	149 61	158 49
Government consumption expenditure	36 79	37 47	46 36
Gross fixed capital formation	27 79	28 09	26 52

* Including estimates for the June–December income of the West Bank

BALANCE OF PAYMENTS (million J.D.)

	1967			1968		
	Credit	Debit	Balance	Credit	Debit	Balance
Merchandise	11 3	54 2	-42 9	14 3	57 3	-43 0
Freight and Transport	2 0	1 0	1 0	1 7	1 3	0 4
Travel	6 8	5 3	1 5	4 6	7 0	-2 4
Investment Income	4 4	0 8	3 6	5 8	0 9	4 9
Government n.l.e.	4 5	1 8	2 7	6 3	13 8	-7 5
Other Services	7 8	1 5	6 3	4 5	1 3	3 2
Private Transfer Payments	2 3	—	2 3	1 4	—	1 4
Government Transfer Payments	51 6	—	51 6	53 1	—	53 1
CURRENT BALANCE	90 7	64 6	26 1	91 7	81 6	10 1
CAPITAL BALANCE	—	31 2	-31 2	4 9	16 3	-11 3
Net Errors and Omissions	5 1	—	5 1	1 3	—	1 3

EXTERNAL TRADE ('000 J.D.)

	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969
IMPORTS	53 558	56 052	68 212	55 048	67 700
EXPORTS	8 728	9 911	10 399	11 3 7	14 700

JORDAN—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

COMMODITIES

('000 J.D.)

IMPORTS	1966	1967	1968	EXPORTS	1965	1967	1968
Animals and Products .	2,867.6	2,738.5	3,952	Phosphates	2,430	3,480	4,212
Grains and Legumes .	5,675.2	2,504.1	3,011	Tomatoes	830	760	2,226
Vegetables	799.9	716.8	613	Lentils	740	460	507
Fruits	1,978.4	1,783.4	1,570	Water Melons	510	240	125
Spices	1,571.1	1,493.3	1,733	Other vegetables and fruit .	480	832	846
Other Agriculture .	1,317.1	1,610.7	1,509	Cigarettes	420	660	536
Forestry Products .	1,151.9	488.0	859	Bananas	200	190	195
Mining and Quarrying .	2,584.4	2,284.7	2,314	Raw Hides and Skins . .	200	160	184
Food Manufactures .	6,202.4	5,592.3	5,844	Electric Accumulators . .	120	140	168
Textiles	7,136.7	5,104.9	5,822	Olive Oil and Prepared Olives .	110	250	294
Clothing	987.6	1,047.0	1,444				
Wood and Cork . . .	751.6	1,179.0	445				
Paper and Products .	1,315.3	958.1	1,132				
Printing and Publishing	255.3	278.2	224				
Rubber and Products .	1,364.1	885.0	1,098				
Chemical Products .	4,820.1	3,777.1	3,815				
Petroleum (refined) .	962.7	826.0	1,023				
Non-Metallic Minerals .	1,098.7	1,063.7	851				
Metallic Minerals . .	6,398.8	6,684.7	5,041				
Non-Electric Machines .	4,177.2	3,891.9	4,191				
Electric Machines . .	2,147.1	2,329.6	2,708				
Transport Equipment .	5,456.4	5,190.1	4,307				

COUNTRIES

IMPORTS	1966	1967	1968	EXPORTS	1967	1968	1969
United Kingdom . .	8,141	6,712	7,154	Kuwait	1,731	2,386	2,132
U.S.A.	11,952	6,769	6,371	Iraq	1,080	1,796	1,706
German Fed. Repub. .	6,227	6,134	5,987	Lebanon	1,350	1,427	1,584
Lebanon	3,773	3,614	4,330	Saudi Arabia	1,096	1,540	1,579
Japan	2,860	2,034	2,894	India	1,429	1,889	1,482
Syria	3,438	2,724	2,867	Syria	1,171	868	1,318
Saudi Arabia	2,436	2,152	2,169	Yugoslavia	530	864	1,016
Italy	2,872	1,794	1,903	Turkey	241	405	316
China, People's Repub..	1,998	1,428	1,639	China	74	179	215
France	1,513	1,720	1,626	Czechoslovakia	250	145	179
U.S.S.R.	1,445	1,193	1,482				
Netherlands	1,922	1,640	1,414				
United Arab Repub. .	1,285	1,316	1,120				
India	1,546	1,106	1,113				
Romania	808	843	1,059				

TRANSPORT

RAILWAYS

	1966	1967	1968
Passengers carried .	36,056	19,896	19,199
Freight carried (tons) .	86,900	98,912	91,250

ROADS

	1965	1966	1967
Cars (private) . . .	7,926	8,741	10,232
Taxis	2,961	3,305	4,568
Buses	968	1,043	1,075
Lorries and Vans . .	4,988	5,160	5,668
TOTAL*	20,303	22,205	25,791

* All motor vehicles.

JORDAN—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

SHIPPING (Aqaba port)

	1966	1967	1968
Number of vessels calling	667	458	275
Freight loaded (ooo tons)	612 0	650 9	694 7
Freight unloaded (ooo tons)	588 6	353 8	161 4

CIVIL AVIATION (ooo)

	1966	1967	1968
Passengers	160 7	111 0	107 7
Freight (tons)	965 6	751	986 0

TOURISM

	1967	1968	1969
Visitors to Jordan	426 000	375 432	339 842

Tourist Accommodation 4 000 hotel beds (approx)

The number of visitors from Europe and the U.S.A. has dropped from 205 000 in 1966 to about 22 000 in 1969

COMMUNICATIONS MEDIA (1968)

Number of telephones	24 900
Number of radio sets*	150 000
Number of cinemas	32

* 1969 estimate

EDUCATION (1966-67)

	NUMBER OF SCHOOLS	NUMBER OF TEACHERS	NUMBER OF STUDENTS	FEMALE STUDENTS
Pre Primary	47	373	16 359	7 304
Public	1	3	227	103
Private	46	370	16 132	7 201
Primary (Ibtidai)	1 198	8 140	318 122	135 587
Public	977	5 674	227 404	92 678
Private	221	2 466	90 718	42 909
Intermediate (Idadi)	591	3 150	74 049	23 150
Public	456	2 190	52 791	15 217
Private	135	960	21 258	7 933
Secondary	185	1 168	29 742	7 916
Public	111	878	23 193	6 190
Private	74	290	6 547	1 726
Vocational	16	237	3 382	263
Special	4	21	147	12
Teacher Training	7	109	1 781	556
Higher	11	133	2 628	641
Adult	147	n.a.	4 073	2 547

In June 1967 Israeli forces occupied the three west bank provinces of Jordan taking over 830 schools (200 run by UNRWA) with 6 200 teachers and 170 000 pupils

Source: Department of Statistics Amman

THE CONSTITUTION

(Revised Constitution approved by King Talal I on January 1st, 1952)

THE Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan is an independent, indivisible sovereign state. Its official religion is Islam; its official language Arabic.

Rights of the Individual. There is to be no discrimination between Jordanians on account of race, religion or language. Work, education and equal opportunities shall be afforded to all as far as is possible. The freedom of the individual is guaranteed, as are his dwelling and property. No Jordanian shall be exiled. Labour shall be made compulsory only in a national emergency, or as a result of a conviction; conditions, hours worked and allowances are under the protection of the State.

The Press, and all opinions, are free, except under martial law. Societies can be formed, within the law. Schools may be established freely, but they must follow a recognized curriculum and educational policy. Elementary education is free and compulsory. All religions are tolerated. Every Jordanian is eligible to public office, and choices are to be made by merit only. Power belongs to the people.

The Legislative Power is vested in the National Assembly and the King. The National Assembly consists of two houses; the Senate and the House of Representatives.

The Senate. The number of Senators is one-half of the number of members of the House of Representatives. Senators must be unrelated to the King, over 40, and are chosen from present and past Prime Ministers and Ministers, past Ambassadors or Ministers Plenipotentiary, past Presidents of the House of Representatives, past Presidents and members of the Court of Cassation and of the Civil and Sharia Courts of Appeal, retired officers of the rank of General and above, former members of the House of Representatives who have been elected twice to that House, etc. . . . They may not hold public office. Senators are appointed for four years. They may be re-appointed. The President of the Senate is appointed for two years.

The House of Representatives. The members of the House of Representatives are elected by secret ballot in a general direct election and retain their mandate for four years. General elections take place during the four months preceding the end of the term. The President of the House is elected by secret ballot each year by the Representatives. Representatives must be Jordanians of over 30, they must have a clean record, no active business interests, and are debarred from public office. Close relatives of the King are not eligible. If the House of Representatives is dissolved, the new House shall assemble in extraordinary session not more than four months after the date of dissolution. The new House cannot be dissolved for the same reason as the last.

General Provisions for the National Assembly. The King summons the National Assembly to its ordinary session on November 1st each year. This date can be postponed by the King for two months, or he can dissolve the Assembly before the end of its three months' session. Alternatively, he can extend the session up to a total period of six months. Each session is opened by a speech from the throne.

Decisions in the House of Representatives and the Senate are made by a majority vote. The quorum is two-thirds of the total number of members in each House. When the voting concerns the Constitution, or confidence in the Council of Ministers, "the votes shall be taken by calling the members by name in a loud voice". Sessions are public, though secret sessions can be held at the request of

the Government or of five members. Complete freedom of speech, within the rules of either Houses, is allowed.

The Prime Minister places proposals before the House of Representatives; if accepted there, they are referred to the Senate and finally sent to the King for confirmation. If one house rejects a law while the other accepts it, a joint session of the House of Representatives and the Senate is called, and a decision made by a two-thirds majority. If the King withholds his approval from a law, he returns it to the Assembly within six months with the reasons for his dissent; a joint session of the Houses then makes a decision, and if the law is accepted by this decision it is promulgated. The Budget is submitted to the National Assembly one month before the beginning of the financial year.

The King. The throne of the Hashemite Kingdom devolves by male descent in the dynasty of King Abdullah Ibn Al Hussein. The King attains his majority on his eighteenth lunar year; if the throne is inherited by a minor, the powers of the King are exercised by a Regent or a Council of Regency. If the King, through illness or absence, cannot perform his duties, his powers are given to a Deputy, or to a Council of the Throne. This Deputy, or Council, may be appointed by *Iradas* (decrees) by the King, or, if he is incapable, by the Council of Ministers.

On his accession, the King takes the oath to respect and observe the provisions of the Constitution and to be loyal to the nation. As head of the State he is immune from all liability or responsibility. He approves laws and promulgates them. He declares war, concludes peace and signs treaties; treaties, however, must be approved by the National Assembly. The King is Commander-in-Chief of the Navy, the Army and the Air Force. He orders the holding of elections; convenes, inaugurates, adjourns and prorogues the House of Representatives. The Prime Minister is appointed by him, as are the President and members of the Senate. Military and civil ranks are also granted, or withdrawn, by the King. No death sentence is carried out until he has confirmed it.

The King exercises his jurisdiction by *Iradas*. These are signed by the Prime Minister and the Minister concerned, and the King places his signature above the others.

Ministers. The Council of Ministers consists of the Prime Minister, President of the Council, and of his Ministers. Ministers are forbidden to become members of any company, to receive a salary from any company, or to participate in any financial act of trade. The Council of Ministers is entrusted with the conduct of all affairs of State, internal and external. Oral or written orders of the King do not release Ministers from their responsibility.

The Council of Ministers is responsible to the House of Representatives for matters of general policy. Ministers may speak in either House, and, if they are members of one House, they may also vote in that House. Votes of confidence in the Council are cast in the House of Representatives, and decided by a two-thirds majority. If a vote of "no confidence" is returned, the Ministers are bound to resign. Every newly-formed Council of Ministers must present its programme to the House of Representatives and ask for a vote of confidence. The House of Representatives can impeach Ministers, as it impeaches its own members.

Titles. By an order of the Regency Council (August 1952) all titles, e.g. those of Pasha and Bey, have been abolished. All subjects are now addressed as Assayed.

THE GOVERNMENT

HEAD OF STATE

KING HUSSEIN IBN TALAL, proclaimed King by a decree of the Jordan Parliament on August 11th, 1952, crowned on May 2nd 1953

CONSULTATIVE COUNCIL

(set up August 1967)

SAAD JOUMAA
SAID AL MUFTI
SULEIMAN NABULSI

BAHJAT TALHOUNI
WASFI AL-TALL
KASSEM AL RIMAWI

AKRAM ZOUAYER
HADES AL MAJALI
SHARIF HUSAIN BIN NASIR

CABINET

(April 1971)

Prime Minister and Minister of Defence: WASFI TAL
Minister of the Interior and of Transport: IBRAHIM HARASH
NEH
Minister of Foreign Affairs: ABDULLAH SALAH
Minister of Agriculture: OMAR ABDULLAH
Minister of Education and Religious Affairs: DR ISHAQ
FARRAN
Minister of the Economy: OMAR NABULSI
Minister of Public Works: IMUNIB MASRI
Minister of Health: DR ABD-AL-SALAM MAJALI
Minister of Social Affairs and Labour: MUSTAFA DUDIN
Minister of Communications: MUHAMMED KHALAF
Minister of Justice: FAWWAZ ROLSAN
Minister of Finance: AHMAD LAWZI
Minister of Development and Reconstruction: DR SUBHI
AMIN AMR
Minister of Information, Culture, Tourism and Antiquities
Maj ADWAN ABU AWDAH
Minister for Municipal and Rural Affairs: FOUAD QAQISH

ADMINISTRATIVE PROVINCES (LIWAH)

Province	Location
Ajlun	Northern Jordan, between the River Yarmuk and Wadi Zerqa.
Balqa	Between Wadi Zerqa and Wadi Mujib
Kerak	Between Wadi Mujib and the edge of the desert.
Ma'an	Southern Jordan, including Aqaba on the Red Sea.
Nablus*	Includes the towns of Tulkarm and Jenin
Jerusalem Governorate*	Includes Jerusalem, Ramallah, Jencho and Bethlehem
Hebron*	Central Jordan.
Amman Governorate	Includes Amman and Zarqa.

* Indicates a province which has been occupied by Israel since the war of June 1967

DIPLOMATIC REPRESENTATION

REPRESENTATIVES OF JORDAN ABROAD

(A) Ambassador; (CA) Chargé d'Affaires.

Algeria: Dr. AHMED ATTİYAT, Algiers (A).
Chile: Dr. ANTON NABR, Santiago (CA).
China, Republic of: KAMIL SHARIF, Taipei (A).
Denmark: ZUHAIR MUFTI, Copenhagen (A).
Ethiopia: (see U.A.R.).
France: ALI ABU NUWAR, Paris (A) (also accredited to Belgium).
German Federal Republic: Dr. NAJM-AL-DIN DAJNAI, Bonn (A).
India: ANWAR NASHASHIBI, Delhi (A) (also accredited to Nepal).
Iran: DAOUD ABU GHAZALEH, Teheran (A).
Iraq: (vacant), Baghdad (A).
Italy: (vacant), Rome (A).
Kuwait: TOUQAN AL-HINDAWI, Kuwait (A).
Lebanon: AKRAM ZUAITAR, Beirut (A).
Morocco: Sheikh IBRAHIM KATTON, Rabat (A).

Netherlands: (see Denmark).
Pakistan: (vacant), Karachi (A).
Saudi Arabia: Sheikh MUHAMMAD SHANKITI, Jeddah (A).
Spain: Dr. MUHAMMAD FARRA, Madrid (A).
Sudan: (vacant).
Sweden: (see Denmark).
Syria: SUBHI ABU GHANIMEH, Damascus (A).
Tunisia: MADHAT JUMA, Tunis (A).
Turkey: Dr. HAZIM NUSSAIBAH, Ankara (A).
U.S.S.R.: HASSAN IBRAHIM, Moscow (A).
U.A.R.: ALI HIYARI, Cairo (A) (also accredited to Ethiopia).
United Kingdom: ZAID AL RIFA'I, London (A).
U.S.A.: ABDUL HOUID SHARAF, Washington, D.C. (A).

United Nations: BĀHA UD-DIN TOUKAN, New York (Permanent Delegate).

EMBASSIES AND LEGATIONS ACCREDITED TO JORDAN

(E) Embassy; (L) Legation.

Afghanistan: Baghdad, Iraq (L).
Algeria: Amman (E); *Ambassador:* (vacant).
Argentina: Beirut, Lebanon (L).
Austria: Beirut, Lebanon (L).
Belgium: Beirut, Lebanon (E).
Brazil: Beirut, Lebanon (E).
Canada: Beirut, Lebanon (E).
Chile: Cairo, U.A.R. (L).
China, Republic of (Taiwan): Amman (E); *Ambassador:* Dr. CHUN JIEN PAO.
Denmark: Baghdad, Iraq (E).
Ethiopia: Amman (E); *Ambassador:* A. Z. HAILEMARIAM.
Finland: Cairo, U.A.R. (L).
France: Amman (E); *Ambassador:* JEAN-MARIE MERIL-LON.
German Federal Republic: Amman (E); *Ambassador:* ALOIS SCHEGL.
Greece: Beirut, Lebanon (L).
India: Beirut, Lebanon (E).
Iran: Amman (E).
Iraq: Amman (E); *Ambassador:* AHMAD AMIN MAHMOUD.
Italy: Amman (E); *Ambassador:* AMEDEO GUILLET.
Japan: Beirut, Lebanon (E).
Korea, Republic of: Ankara, Turkey (E).

Kuwait: Amman (E).
Lebanon: Amman (E); *Ambassador:* ALI BEZI.
Morocco: Amman (E); *Ambassador:* MUHAMMAD TAZI.
Netherlands: Beirut, Lebanon (E).
Pakistan: Amman (E); *Ambassador:* ZAFER ISLAM.
Romania: Amman (E); *Ambassador:* IACOB IONAȘCU.
Saudi Arabia: Amman (E); *Ambassador:* Sheikh AHMED AL-KUHEIMY.
Spain: Amman (E); *Ambassador:* J. R. SOBREDO Y RIOBOO.
Sudan: Baghdad, Iraq (E).
Sweden: Beirut, Lebanon (E).
Switzerland: Amman (E); *Ambassador:* MARCEL LUY.
Syria: Amman (E); *Ambassador:* (vacant).
Tunisia: Amman (L); *Chargé d'Affaires:* CHEDLI ZOUKKAR.
Turkey: Amman (E); *Ambassador:* HUVEYDA MAYATAPEK.
U.S.S.R.: Amman (E); *Ambassador:* ANATOLY ANNISSIMOV.
U.A.R.: Amman (E); *Ambassador:* OTHMAN H. NURI.
United Kingdom: Amman (E); *Ambassador:* JOHN PHILLIPS.
U.S.A.: Amman (E); *Ambassador:* DEAN BROWN.
Venezuela: Beirut, Lebanon (L).
Viet-Nam, Republic of: Ankara, Turkey (E).
Yugoslavia: Beirut, Lebanon (L).

Jordan also has diplomatic relations with Costa Rica, Cyprus, Hungary, Nigeria, Poland, and the Yemen Arab Republic

PARLIAMENT

THE SENATE

President: SAID AL MUFFTI

The Senate consists of 30 members, appointed by the King

HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

Speaker: KAMIL ARIKAT

Elections to the 60-seat House of Representatives took place in April 1967. There were no political parties

POLITICAL PARTIES

Political parties were banned before the elections of July 1963. The following groupings were still in existence in 1969

Arab Constitutional Bloc: moderate and conservative, Leader Dr MOUSTAFA KHALIFEH

Baath (Renaissance) } extreme nationalist organizations.
National Front: } Baath is a branch of the party of the same name in Syria.

National Socialist Party: nationalist and progressive

Muslim Brotherhood: }
Arab Palestine Bloc: } nationalist and right wing
Liberation Bloc: }

Early in 1968 a "National Coalition" was formed led by SULEIMAN NABULSI, to press for elections and a return to legal political activity

REFUGEES — UNRWA

(United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East—UNRWA)

Nearly half of Jordan's population are refugees or persons displaced from what was formerly the Arab state of Palestine. On January 1st, 1969, the total number of Palestine refugees registered with UNRWA (the United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East) was 1,375,915, of whom 843,000 were entitled to rations and 517,000 were living in refugee camps run by UNRWA. Some 66,700 refugees were living in camps in the Israeli-occupied West Bank area, and 69,900 were in established camps in east Jordan, while a further 90,000 Palestine refugees and other persons displaced from the West Bank and Gaza Strip as a result of the June 1967 hostilities were living in emergency camps operated by UNRWA in east Jordan.

UNRWA was established by the General Assembly of the United Nations in December 1949. Its mandate currently expires in June 1972. In co-operation with the Governments of Jordan, Lebanon, the Syrian Arab Republic, the United Arab Republic and Israel it carries out a twofold task:

- 1 To provide food, health and welfare services, and shelter for the needy Palestine refugees

- 2 To provide education and training for refugee children and young adults

UNRWA co-operates closely with the Jordan Government and a number of voluntary bodies in Jordan on relief, health and welfare matters.

Following the hostilities in June 1967, some 400,000 inhabitants of Gaza and the West Bank (40 per cent of whom were refugees registered with UNRWA) moved to east Jordan, where many of them were accommodated in emergency camps initially in the area round Amman. These camps were later moved to the east Jordan Valley, but continued military action prompted the camp inhabitants to seek refuge again in the hills in February 1968.

UNRWA is presently giving rations and services to Palestine refugees in the emergency camps, and offers services only to the other inhabitants, whose rations are provided by the Jordan Government. There are now some 700,000 refugees and other displaced persons in east Jordan, out of a population for the whole of Jordan of around 2,200,000.

JUDICIAL SYSTEM

With the exception of matters of purely personal nature concerning members of non-Muslim communities, the law of Jordan was based on Islamic Law for both civil and criminal matters. During the days of the Ottoman Empire, certain aspects of Continental law, especially French commercial law and civil and criminal procedure, were introduced. Due to British occupation of Palestine and Trans-Jordan from 1917 to 1948, the Palestine territory has adopted, either by statute or case law, much of the English common law. Since the annexation of the non-occupied part of Palestine and the formation of the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan, there has been a continuous effort to unify the law. This process of unification is now virtually completed, with the promulgation of new laws to replace older laws on both sides of the River Jordan.

Court of Cassation. The Court of Cassation consists of seven judges, who sit in full panel for exceptionally important cases. In most appeals, however, only five members sit to hear the case. All cases involving amounts of more than J.D. 100 may be reviewed by this Court, as well as cases involving lesser amounts and cases which cannot be monetarily valued. However, for the latter types of cases, review is available only by leave of the Court of Appeal, or, upon refusal by the Court of Appeal, by leave of the President of the Court of Cassation. In addition to these functions as final and Supreme Court of Appeal, the Court of Cassation also sits as High Court of Justice to hear applications in the nature of habeas corpus, mandamus and certiorari dealing with complaints of a citizen against abuse of governmental authority.

Courts of Appeal. There are two Courts of Appeal, each of which is composed of three judges, whether for hearing of appeals or for dealing with Magistrates' Courts judgments in chambers. Jurisdiction of the two Courts is geographical, with the Court for the Western Region sitting in Jerusalem (which has not sat since June 1967) and the Court for the Eastern Region sitting in Amman. The regions are separated by the River Jordan. Appellate review of the Courts of Appeal extends to judgments

rendered in the Courts of First Instance, the Magistrates Courts, and Religious Courts.

Courts of First Instance. The Courts of First Instance are courts of general jurisdiction in all matters civil and criminal except those specifically allocated to the Magistrates' Courts. Three judges sit in all felony trials, while only two judges sit for misdemeanor and civil cases. Each of the seven Courts of First Instance also exercises appellate jurisdiction in cases involving judgments of less than J.D. 20 and fines of less than J.D. 10, rendered by the Magistrates' Courts.

Magistrates' Courts. There are fourteen Magistrates' Courts, which exercise jurisdiction in civil cases involving no more than J.D. 250 and in criminal cases involving maximum fines of J.D. 100 or maximum imprisonment of one year.

Religious Courts. There are two types of Religious Courts: The Sharia Courts (Muslims); and the Ecclesiastical Courts (Eastern Orthodox, Greek Melkite, Roman Catholic and Protestant). Jurisdiction extends to personal (family) matters, such as marriage, divorce, alimony, inheritance, guardianship, wills, interdiction and, for the Muslim community, the constitution of Waqfs (Religious Endowments). When a dispute involves persons of different religious communities, the Civil Courts have jurisdiction in the matter unless the parties agree to submit to the jurisdiction of one or the other of the Religious Courts involved.

Each Sharia (Muslim) Court consists of one judge (Qadi), while most of the Ecclesiastical (Christian) Courts are normally composed of three judges, who are usually clerics. Sharia Courts apply the doctrines of Islamic Law, based on the Koran and the Hadith (Precepts of Muhammad), while the Ecclesiastical Courts base their law on various aspects of Canon Law. In the event of conflict between any two Religious Courts or between a Religious Court and a Civil Court, a Special Tribunal of three judges is appointed by the President of the Court of Cassation, to decide which court shall have jurisdiction. Upon the advice of experts on the law of the various communities, this Special Tribunal decides on the venue for the case at hand.

RELIGION

Over 80 per cent of the population are Sunni Muslims, and the king can trace unbroken descent from the Prophet Muhammad. There is a Christian minority, living mainly in the towns, and smaller numbers of non-Sunni Muslims.

Prominent religious leaders in Jordan are:

SHEIKH ABDULLAH GHOSHEH (Chief Justice and President of the Supreme Muslim Secular Council).

SHEIKH MOHAMMED FAL SHANKITI (Director of Sharia Courts).

SHEIKH ABDULLAH QALQILI (Mufti of the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan).

THE PRESS

On March 21st, 1967, a new Press Law came into force which annulled the licenses of all daily and weekly newspapers and required those publishers wishing to renew their licenses to satisfy certain specified conditions, i.e. to employ no less than four editors and to have a minimum capital of JD15 000. The ostensible purpose of the measure was to improve the quality of the Press but it met with considerable criticism.

Two new publishing companies have been formed, the *Arab Press and Publishing Co. Ltd.* and the *Jordan Press and Publishing Co. Ltd.*, to publish three new daily papers and one weekly which will replace the dozen newspapers forced to cease publication by the new law. In each of the companies the State has a 25 per cent holding.

DAILIES

Al-Dustour (*The Constitution*) P.O.B. 591, Amman, f 1967, Arabic, publ. by the Jordan Press and Publishing Co., circ. 14 000.

Al-Difa'a: Amman, f 1934 in Jerusalem, moved after war in 1967, Arabic, independent, Editor IBRAHIM SHANTI.

PERIODICALS

Amman al Masa'a: P.O.B. 522, Amman, f 1961; Arabic, weekly, political and cultural, circ. 12-15 000, Editor ARAFAT HIGAZI.

Al Aqsa: Amman, armed forces magazine, weekly.

Huda El Islam: Amman, f 1936, monthly, Islamic, scientific and literary, published by the Department of Islamic Affairs, Editor ABDULLAH KALKELI.

Huna Amman (*Amman Calling*) f 1961; monthly, published by the Directorate of Guidance and Information, circ. 10 000.

Jordan: P.O.B. 224, Amman, f 1969, published quarterly by Jordan Tourism Authority, circ. 5 000.

Military Magazine: Army Headquarters, Amman f 1955 quarterly, dealing with military and literary subjects published by Armed Forces.

Official Gazette: Amman f 1923, weekly, circ. 8 000, published by the Jordan Government.

Rural Education Magazine: P.O.B. 226, Amman f 1958, published by Khadouri Agricultural College Teachers Training College at Beit Hanina and Teachers Training College at Howwarah (jointly).

Sawt El Damir: Amman, monthly, scientific, literary, social, international circulation, published by the Arab Blind Organization, Editor JAMIL HASHWAR.

Sharna: P.O.B. 585, Amman, f 1959, fortnightly, Islamic affairs, published by Sharna College, circ. 5 000.

Al Ussra: Amman, Arabic, monthly, women's magazine.

NEWS AGENCY

Jordanian News Agency: Amman, Dir. MUHAMMAD KHATTIB.

FOREIGN NEWS BUREAUX

D.P.A. and Tass maintain bureaux in Amman.

PUBLISHERS

Jordan Press and Publishing Co. Ltd.: Amman, f 1967 by owners of the former *al-Manar* and *Falastin*, cap. JD 100,000, of which 25 per cent held by govt.; publishes *al-Dustour*.

Other publishers in Amman include *Dawra al-Ihsaa* at Amman, *George N. Kawar*, *al-Matba'at al-Hashmiya* and *The National Press*.

RADIO AND TELEVISION

The Hashemite Jordan Broadcasting Service (H.B.S.): P.O.B. 909, Amman, f 1959, station at Amman broadcasts daily 19½ hours in Arabic to the Arab World, 7 hours in English to Europe and one hour in Arabic and Spanish to South America. Dir.-Gen. D. E. RIFAI.

Jordan Television Corporation: P.O.B. 1041, Amman, f 1968, government station broadcasting for 48 hours weekly in Arabic and English, advertising accepted, Dir.-Gen. M. KAMAL.

In 1969 there were about 135 000 radio receivers and 35 000 television receivers on the East Bank.

FINANCE

(Cap.=capital; p.u.=paid up; dep.=deposits; m.≈million; J.D.=Jordan dinars; L£=Lebanese £; I.D.=Iraq dinars.)

BANKING

CENTRAL BANK

Central Bank of Jordan: P.O.B. 37, Amman; f. 1964; cap. J.D. 2m.; dep. 20.8m. (1970); Gov. Dr. KHALIL SALIM; Deputy Gov. A. K. HUMUD.

NATIONAL BANKS

Agricultural Bank: P.O.B. 77, Amman; f. 1970; government-owned credit institution; Dir. Gen. M. O. QUR'AN.

Arab Bank Ltd.: King Faisal St., Amman, P.O.B. 68; f. 1930; cap. p.u. and reserves J.D. 14.7m.; dep. 11.49m. (1970); branches in several Arab countries, and in Germany, Switzerland and Nigeria; Chair. ABDUL HAMEED SHOMAN.

Cairo Amman Bank: Prince Hassan St., P.O. Box 715, Amman; f. 1960; cap. J.D. 750,000; 2 br.; Chair. and Gen. Man. HAIDAR CHUKRI; associated with Banque du Caire, Cairo, and succeeded their Amman Branch.

Industrial Development Bank: Amman; f. 1965; cap. J.D. 3m. of which J.D. 1m. owned by the government.

Jordan National Bank S.A.: P.O. Box 1578, Amman; f. 1956; cap. p.u. J.D. 1m.; dep. J.D. 8.6m. (Dec. 1970); 8 brs. in Jordan, 3 brs. in Lebanon, Chair. and Gen.

Man. H.E. SULEIMAN SUKKAR; Deputy Gen. Man. H.E. ABDUL-KADER TASH.

FOREIGN BANKS

British Bank of the Middle East: 20 Abchurch Lane, London, EC4N 7AY; Amman; f. 1889; cap. and published reserves £9.95m.; Chair. C. E. LOOMBE, C.M.G.; Area Man. W. LAMONT.

National and Grindlays Bank: 26 Bishopsgate, London, E.C.2; Amman; acquired the Ottoman Bank interests in Jordan in 1969; brs. in Aqaba, Irbid (sub-branch in Northern Shouneh) and Zarka.

Rafidain Bank: Baghdad; Amman; f. 1941; cap. I.D. 6.4m.; total assets over I.D. 135m. (1968); Gen. Man. YOSIF HAJ NAJI.

INSURANCE

Al Chark Insurance Co.: P.O. Box 312, Amman.

Jordan Insurance Co. Ltd.: P.O.B. 279, King Hussein St., Amman; cap. p.u. J.D. 350,000; brs. in five Arab countries and the U.K.

Many of the larger British and American insurance companies have branches or agents in Jordan.

TRADE AND INDUSTRY

CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE

Chamber of Commerce, Amman: King Abdullah St., P.O.B. 287, Amman; f. 1923; Pres. MUHAMMAD ALI BDEIR; Gen. Sec. MALEK AL-MASRY; Dir. FARID KASSAB.

Chamber of Commerce, Irbid: P.O. Box 13; f. 1950; Pres. MUFLEH HASSAN GHARAIBEH; Dir. HASSAN M. MURAD.

PUBLIC CORPORATION

East Ghor Canal Natural Resources Authority: P.O.B. 878, Amman; the 40-mile canal is now completed, and work is in progress on the irrigation system; the U.S.A. has provided \$12m. towards the cost of the canal; the project provides irrigation for some 20,000-30,000 acres. Israeli attacks on the canal in June and August 1969 seriously damaged the irrigation system, but the canal is now in operation again and most of the irrigation system has been completed. An additional 6 miles of main canal and irrigation system has just been completed with an additional irrigated area of 5,000 acres, financed by Kuwait government of \$3m.

TRADE UNIONS

The General Federation of Jordanian Trade Unions: Wadi as-Sir Road, P.O. Box 1065, Amman; f. 1954; 15,000 mems.; member of Arab Trade Unions Confederation; Gen. Sec. MOHAMMAD H. JAWHAR.

There are also a number of independent unions, including:

Drivers' Union: P.O. Box 846, Amman; Sec.-Gen. SAMI MANSOUR.

Union of Petroleum Workers and Employees: P.O. Box 1346, Amman; Sec.-Gen. BRAHIM HADI.

OIL

Oil has yet to be discovered in commercial quantities in Jordan. In April 1969 INA, a Yugoslavian consortium, was granted a 25-year exploration concession on a 16,000 square kilometre area on Jordan's eastern frontier. "Significant traces" of oil were reported in November, 1969.

TRANSPORT AND TOURISM

TRANSPORT
RAILWAYS

Hedjaz Jordan Railway (administered by the Ministry of Transport) P O B 382 Amman f 1902 length of track 366 km Asst. Gen Man MOHAMMED R QOSEINI

This was formerly a section of the Hedjaz railway (Damascus to Medina) for Muslim pilgrims to Medina and Mecca. It crosses the Syrian border and enters Jordanian territory south of Dera'a, and runs for approximately 366 km to Naqb Ishtar passing through Zarka Amman Qatana and Ma'an. Some 523 miles of the line from Ma'an to Medina in Saudi Arabia have been abandoned for the past fifty years. Reconstruction of the Medina line begun in 1965 was scheduled to be completed in 1970 at a cost of £15 million divided equally between Jordan, Saudi Arabia and Syria. However, due to some misunderstanding between the interested Governments the reconstruction work has been suspended. A new 115 km extension to Aqaba is to be built in 1970, financed by a J D 12 million loan from the German Federal Republic. It will mainly be used for transporting phosphates and will connect Aqaba to Beirut.

As at the end of 1967 there were 26 locomotives 344 goods wagons 45 oil tank wagons and 8 passenger cars.

ROADS

Ministry of Public Works Amman.

Amman is linked by road with all parts of the kingdom and with neighbouring countries. In addition several thousand miles of tracks make all villages in the kingdom accessible by motor transport in summer. A 335 km desert road linking Amman with the port of Aqaba was completed in October 1960 at a cost of £4 million.

A 50-km highway from Amman to Jarash was completed in 1961. A new highway between Jerusalem and the Dead Sea was completed in 1963, bringing the distance between Amman and Jerusalem down to 88 km.

Three major highways are now under construction: the Ma'an-Mudawara Highway which will join Jordan with Saudi Arabia is due to be finished in 1970; as is the 52 km Ma'an-Jafr Highway; and the 65 km Zarka-Azraq Highway which is a part of an Arab-International Highway that joins Jordan, Saudi Arabia and the Arabian Gulf is due for completion in 1971.

Construction of Safi Aqaba Highway which was scheduled to be finished in 1969 is suspended due to the fighting which frequently occurs in this area.

Royal Automobile Club of Jordan P O B 920 Jebel Lweibdeh Amman Head Office Wadi Seer Cross Roads Telephone 22467 f 1933 affiliated to the F I A. Pres of Honour H M King HUSSEIN Gen Man D H LEDGER

SHIPPING

The port of Aqaba is Jordan's only outlet to the sea and extensive new facilities were opened in December 1959. The new port has two general berths of 340 metres and 215 metres with seven main transit sheds covered storage area of 4 150 sq metres an open area of 50 600 sq metres and a phosphate berth 210 metres long and 10 metres deep. A phosphate berth to receive ships up to 100 000 tons capacity and two large phosphate stores are now under construction.

PIPELINES

Two oil pipelines cross Jordan. The Iraq Petroleum Company pipeline carrying petroleum from the oilfields in Iraq to Haifa has not operated since Arab-Jewish hostilities commenced. The 1 067 mile pipeline known as the Trans-Arabian Pipeline (TAPLINE) carries petroleum from the oilfields at Dhahran in Saudi Arabia to Sidon on the Mediterranean seaboard in Lebanon. It traverses Jordan for a distance of 110 miles and Jordan receives about £14 million per annum in royalties. The company also paid the Government an outstanding amount of £5m by an agreement reached in March 1962. TAPLINE has frequently been cut by hostile action and was closed by damage to the Syrian section in the summer of 1970.

CIVIL AVIATION

ALIA (The Royal Jordanian Airline) Head Office P O B 302 Al Fayez Bldg Prince Hassan St Amman f 1963 became a corporation in 1968 entirely owned by the Government of Jordan. Services throughout the Middle East and to Europe. Fleet of three Caravelles two Boeing 707. Man Dir ALI GHANDOUR.

The following airlines also serve Jordan: Alitalia Iraqi Airways K L M Kuwait Airways M E A Saudi Arabian Airlines U A A.

TOURISM

Jordan Tourism Authority P O B 224 Amman f 1952 Dir GHALEH BARAKAT, publ *Jordan* (quarterly)

CULTURAL ORGANIZATION

The Department of Arts and Culture Ministry of Culture and Information P O B 6140 Amman aims to encourage artistic movements throughout the Kingdom, promote growth of talents and prepare specialists in all fields of the fine arts. Consists of six Divisions.

Division of Culture publishes books issues the literary Magazine (*Afkar*) and collaborates with men of letters in the Kingdom.

Division of Folklore Arts aims to carry out research into and promote the traditional customs of folkloric arts, organizes folklore festivals in different parts of the Kingdom.

Division of the Dramatic Arts aims to train actors produces plays and encourages playwrights.

Division of Painting and Sculpture aims to encourage painting and sculpture and to offer all assistance to improve and widen talents in these fields, arranges local arts exhibitions.

Division of Music aims to develop musical talents on a sound and educational basis, a teaching institute has been established.

Jordanian Folklore Dancing This group revives folk dancing in Jordan and organizes festivals in different parts of the Country and in neighbouring Arab Countries.

EDUCATION

Education has undergone a process of radical change since the eastern portions of Palestine were incorporated into the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan in 1950. On both banks of the Jordan, education made unprecedented strides. School population increased from 139,670 in 1951-52 to 446,210 in 1966-67. While the number of schools increased from 845 to 2,059, that of teachers rose from 3,561 to 13,331. Of every thousand persons in Jordan, 212 attended school compared to 101 in 1951-52: 8 at pre-primary level, 152 at primary, 35 intermediate or lower secondary, 15 secondary and 2 at higher level. School age population (6-21) stood at 391 per thousand; 169 at 6-11, 72 at 12-14, 68 at 15-17, 82 at 18-21.

Some 830 schools (200 run by UNRWA) with 6,200 teachers and 170,000 pupils have been under the control of the Israeli occupation authorities on the west bank of the Jordan since June 1967.

The compulsory stage of education in Jordan has recently been extended (1964-65) to nine years, comprising six years' primary cycle (the *ibtidai*), and three years' intermediate or lower secondary stage (the *idadi*). Public education is free. Secondary education at the higher stage extends over three years, and leads to the Jordan Secondary Education Examination Certificate. Access to higher secondary and post-secondary education is on a selective basis.

Public schools provide educational facilities for 68.9 per cent of total enrolment. Education in these schools begins usually between the ages of six and seven. Facilities for vocational education are provided at the secondary and post-secondary level. In 1966-67 there were six public vocational institutes providing post-secondary education: one agricultural, one commercial, two nursing, one midwifery and one social services. At the secondary level there were eight vocational schools: five industrial and three agricultural, besides eleven commercial departments attached to public general education schools.

The private sector provides a considerable proportion of the facilities available. UNRWA schools provided 18.4 per cent of the total enrolment in 1966-67, representing the children of Arab refugees. Privately owned schools accounted for 12.3 per cent of enrolment.

Private schools in Jordan must apply and use the syllabus and textbooks prescribed by the Ministry of Education, and must submit any different proposed textbook or syllabus for approval. Newly employed teachers should meet the minimum qualifications set by law. All private schools are subject to inspection by officers of the Ministry.

The University of Jordan, opened in 1962 in Amman, provides university education for 1,763 students representing 0.4 per cent of total enrolment in 1966-67. There are three faculties: Arts, Sciences and Law and Commerce.

Many students go abroad for further education, assisted by scholarships given by the Ministry of Education, foreign governments, United Nations organizations, or relying on their own resources. In 1966-67 their number was estimated at over 21,200. There are seven teacher training schools which provide two-year courses at the post-matriculation level; four of these are public and three are private, including two run by UNRWA; in addition there are two teacher training departments attached to higher vocational public institutes.

Female students constitute 39.3 per cent of total enrolment. Educational opportunities are open for them in nearly all types and levels of education and they are gaining in proportion every year.

LEARNED SOCIETIES AND RESEARCH INSTITUTES

British Council: P.O.B. 634, Jebel Amman, Amman; libraries (*see below*); Rep. L. K. LOVETT-TURNER.

Department of Scientific Research (Agriculture): P.O.B. 226, Amman; f. 1958; covers all branches of agricultural research; staff of 52; library of 18,000 vols.; Dir. SAM GHEZAWI.

Goethe Institut: Ibn Sina St., P.O.B. 1676, Amman; German cultural institute and library, language courses.

Jordan Library Association: P.O.B. 6289, Amman; f. 1963; 243 mems.; Pres. MAHMOUD AL AKHRAS; Sec. Miss HAIFA SHARAIHA; publ. *Library Journal*.

U.S. Information Center: Kabarday Street, Amman.

LIBRARIES

American Library: Kabarday Street, Amman; 5,000 vols.

British Council Libraries: Amman (P.O.B. 634); f. 1950; 14,929 vols.; 121 periodicals.

Public Library: P.O.B. 132, Amman; f. 1960; 30,000 vols. in Arabic and English; 145 current periodicals; children's section, cultural activities; Librarian FAROUK MO'AZ.

Public Library: P.O.B. 49, Irbid; f. 1957; 3,350 vols. in Arabic, 5,600 vols. in English, 170 vols. in other languages; Librarian HESHAM JOWHAR MAHDRAWI.

Public Library: Nablus; f. 1960; 17,350 vols., mainly in Arabic and English; cultural activities; Librarian ABDEL-MUN'EM SALEH AL-FARRAN.

Public Library: Ramallah; f. 1962; 3,500 vols.; Librarian ADEL UWAIS.

University of Jordan Library: P.O.B. 1682, Amman; 21,000 vols.; Librarian KHALED SAKIT.

MUSEUMS

Jordan Archaeological Museum, Dept. of Antiquities: Amman; f. 1923; library of 30,000 vols.; Dir. (vacant); Curator MOHAMMED KHAIR YASEEN; publ. *Annual of the Department of Antiquities of Jordan*.

Islamic Museum: Amman.

UNIVERSITY

UNIVERSITY OF JORDAN AMMAN

Telephone 37301 2 3

Founded 1962

Languages of instruction Arabic and English National
and autonomous control Academic year October to June
(two semesters)

President Dr A K JHALIFA

Secretary-General HASAN NABULSI

Registrar GHAZI MURTI

Librarian Dr K. ASSALI

Number of teachers 170

Number of students 2 676

Publications *The University Magazine Faculty of Arts*

Journal Catalogue of the University

DEANS

Faculty of Arts Dr M SAMRA

Faculty of Economics and Commerce Dr R DAKR

Faculty of Sciences Dr S I TASHIN

COLLEGES

AGRICULTURAL INSTITUTE

TULKARM WEST BANK VIA ISRAEL

Founded 1931

Dean Dr S A NASREF

The library contains 19 000 vols

Number of teachers 20

Number of students 385

The Institute is a teacher training institute preparing
teachers of agriculture science and mathematics Arabic
and Islamic studies English Social studies

There is also an Agricultural College at Jobeha and a
Technical Institute at Amman

UNRWA Teachers' Colleges for Men and Women Ram
allah f 1958

Teachers' Training College Arroub

Teachers' Training College Hawara f 1956

Teachers' College Ramallah f 1952 for women Principal
OLGA WERBAH

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Kuwait

PHYSICAL AND SOCIAL GEOGRAPHY

Kuwait lies at the head of the Persian (or Arabian) Gulf bordering Iraq. The area of Kuwait State is approximately 15 000 sq km, and the population according to the 1970 census was 733 196, having risen rapidly since the 1965 census which recorded a population of 467 000. The inhabitants of the principal town and harbour, Kuwait Town, are estimated at over half the population.

For long it was generally held that the Gulf extended much further north, but geological evidence suggests first that the coastline has remained broadly at its present position, and second, that the immense masses of silt brought down by the Tigris and Euphrates cause irregular downwarping at the head of the Gulf. Local variation in the coastline is therefore likely, with possible changes since ancient times. Kuwait grew up because it has a zone of slightly higher, firmer ground that gives access from the Gulf

inland to Iraq, and because it has a reasonably good and sheltered harbour in an area that elsewhere has many sandbanks, and further south, coral reefs. In recent years owing to Kuwait's rapid economic development the city of Kuwait has been almost totally rebuilt on a much grander scale.

The territory of Kuwait is mainly almost flat desert, with a few oases. With an annual rainfall of one to seven inches, almost entirely between October and April, there is a spring "flush" of grass. Summer shade temperature may reach 125°F, while in January, the coldest month, temperatures range between 45° and 60°, with a rare frost. There is no drinking water within the state, and supplies are either piped from further north, or distilled from sea water.

Immediately to the south of Kuwait, along the Gulf, is a Neutral Zone of 5,700 sq km which is jointly administered by Kuwait and Saudi Arabia.

HISTORY

Although Kuwait is situated on the fringe of the Mesopotamian basin it has always belonged rather to the nomadic desert of Arabia than to the settled populations of the plains watered by the Euphrates and Tigris rivers. Thus the successive rule of the Abbasid Caliphate of Baghdad (750-1250), the Mongols (1250-1546) and the Ottoman Turks (1546-1918) had little direct influence on the area around Kuwait.

The origin of the present town of Kuwait is usually placed about the beginning of the 18th century, when a number of families of the famous Anazir tribe migrated from the interior to the Arabian shore of the Gulf. These migrants included such important families as Al Sabah, Al Khalifa, Al Zayed, Al Jalahma and Al Ma'awida, from whence many of the present Kuwaitis are descended.

The foundation of the present Sabah ruling dynasty dates from about 1756 when the settlers of Kuwait decided to appoint a Sheikh to administer their affairs, provide them with security and represent them in their dealings with the Ottoman Government. The town prospered and in 1765 it was reported to contain some 10 000 inhabitants possessing 800 vessels and living by trading, fishing and pearling.

In 1776 war broke out between Persia and Turkey and the Persians captured Basra, which they held until 1779. During this time the East India Company moved the southern terminal of its overland mail route to Aleppo from Basra to Kuwait, and much of the trade of Basra was diverted to Kuwait. Sheikh Abdullah was reported to have been well disposed to

the British, who for their part held him in high regard as being a man of his word.

About this time Kuwait was repeatedly threatened by raids from the Wahhabis, fanatical tribesmen from central Arabia, and the need for protection against these enemies led to closer contacts with the East India Company, who had a depot in the town. Ottoman dominion over the mainland was accepted in return for recognition of British trading interests over the route from the Mediterranean to India through the Gulf. The depredations of pirates and the threat from the Wahhabis caused Kuwait's prosperity to decline in the early years of the 19th century, but the British Navy restored peace to the Gulf, and by 1860 prosperity had returned.

In order to retain their autonomy the Kuwaitis had to maintain good relations with the Turks. Although not under direct Turkish administration the Sheikh of Kuwait recognised a general Ottoman suzerainty over the area by the payment of tribute and Sheikh Abdullah al Sabah (1866-92) accepted the title of Qaimaqam (Commandant) under the Turkish Vali (Governor) of Basra in 1871. His successor, Sheikh Mubarak, feared that the Turks would occupy Kuwait, and in 1899, in return for British protection, he signed an agreement with the British not to cede, mortgage or otherwise dispose of parts of his territories to anyone except the British Government, nor to enter into any relationship with a foreign government other than the British without British consent. This agreement prevented Germany securing Kuwait

as a terminal for her projected Berlin to Baghdad railway.

The reign of Sheikh Mubarak from 1896 to 1915 marked the rise of Kuwait from a Sheikhdom of undefined status to an autonomous state. In 1904 a British political agent was appointed, and in 1909 Great Britain and Turkey opened negotiations which, although never ratified because of the outbreak of the First World War, in practice secured the autonomy of Kuwait.

Sheikh Mubarak's second son, Sheikh Salem, who succeeded to the Sheikhdom in 1917, supported the Turks in the World War, thus incurring a blockade of Kuwait. Sheikh Salem was succeeded in 1921 by his nephew Sheikh Ahmad, a friend of Britain. Kuwait prospered under his rule and by 1937 the population had risen to about 75,000.

Under Sheikh Ahmad the foundation of Kuwait's great oil industry was laid. After considerable prospecting, he granted a concession in 1934 jointly to Gulf Oil Corporation of the U.S.A. and the Anglo-Persian Oil Co. of Great Britain who formed the Kuwait Oil Co. Ltd. Deep drilling started in 1936, and was just beginning to show promising results when war broke out in 1939. The oil wells were plugged in 1942 and drilling was suspended until the end of the war.

After the war the oil industry in Kuwait was resumed on an extensive scale (*see* Economic Survey) and in a few years the character of Kuwait Town was changed from an old-fashioned dhow port to a thriving modern city supported by the revenues of the oil industry. In 1950 Sheikh Ahmad died and was succeeded by Sheikh Abdulla. His policy has been to use the oil revenues substantially for the welfare of his people, and in 1951 he inaugurated a programme of public works and educational and medical developments which has turned Kuwait into a planned and well-equipped country.

THE MODERN STATE

The economic aspects of post war development are dealt with in the survey following. Here it should be noted that Kuwait has gradually built up what are probably the most comprehensive welfare services in the world, very largely without charge at least to native Kuwaitis. Education is completely free in Kuwait, and this includes free food and clothing for students. Medical attention is also free to all and the health service is generally considered to be of a very high standard. A heavily subsidized housing programme has now provided accommodation for most residents meeting the country's generous criteria of "poverty". Even local telephone calls are free.

In June 1961 the United Kingdom and Kuwait terminated the 1899 agreement which had given the U.K. control of Kuwait's foreign policy, and Kuwait therefore became a fully independent state. In July Kuwait was admitted as a member of the Arab League. The new nation quickly set up diplomatic representation with Iran, Japan, Jordan, Saudi Arabia, the United Arab Republic, the United Kingdom and the United States. The number of foreign

missions in Kuwait rose to 22 by 1970, while there were 19 Kuwaiti missions abroad; and it is clear that, for her size, Kuwait is an important factor in international affairs.

In December 1961, for the first time in Kuwait's history, an election was held to elect 20 members of the Constituent Assembly (the other members being Ministers). This Assembly drafted a new Constitution which was published on November 11th, 1962. Under the new Constitution a National Assembly of 50 members was elected in January 1963, and the first session was held on January 29th, with Sheikh Sabah al-Salem al-Sabah, brother of the Emir and Heir-Apparent, as the Prime Minister of a new Council of Ministers.

Shortly after attaining independence, Kuwait was threatened by an Iraqi claim to sovereignty over the territory. British troops landed in Kuwait in response to a request from the Emir for assistance. The Arab League met in July and agreed that an Arab League Force should be provided to replace the British troops as a guarantee of Kuwait's independence. This force, composed of contingents from Saudi Arabia, Jordan, the United Arab Republic and the Sudan, arrived in Kuwait in September 1961. The United Arab Republic contingent was withdrawn in December 1961, and those of Jordan, Saudi Arabia and Sudan before the end of February 1963.

On May 14th, 1963, Kuwait became the 111th member of the United Nations. This, with her acceptance during 1962 into both the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund, indicated the growing importance in world affairs of the fast-developing state.

In October 1963 the new Iraqi government announced that it had decided to recognise Kuwait's complete independence; Iraq wanted to clear her relations with Kuwait and remove the atmosphere created by the Kassem régime. An agreement was subsequently signed whereby Iraq would supply to Kuwait 120 million gallons of water daily; and in November the two countries concluded a Trade and Economic Agreement which virtually abolished customs duties between them. Kuwait is thought to have made a substantial grant to Iraq to improve relations at this juncture.

In January 1965 a constitutional crisis reflecting the tension between the paternalist ruling house and the democratically-minded National Assembly, resulted in the formation of a strengthened cabinet under the heir to the throne, Prince Sabah. In May that year Kuwait was one of ten Arab countries which broke off diplomatic relations with West Germany as a consequence of the formal establishment by that country of diplomatic relations with Israel. Two months later Kuwait decided not to ratify the agreement to set up an Arab Common Market with Iraq, Jordan, Syria and the U.A.R. There was strong feeling in the National Assembly that such an association would be disadvantageous to Kuwait.

On November 24th, 1965, Sheikh Abdulla died, and Sheikh Sabah succeeded to the throne. His post as

Prime Minister was taken over by another member of the ruling house Prince Jabir

In the developments of 1966 and 1967 within the Arab community Kuwait continued to play a neutral role, and in particular tried to act as mediator in inter Arab disputes such as the Yemen and South Arabian problems Sheikh Sabah paid visits to Iraq and Lebanon, and Kuwait supported Syria in the dispute with the Iraq Petroleum Company The progress of Kuwait's own oil industry was marked by the acquisition by the Kuwait National Petroleum Company of a Danish subsidiary with storage facilities at Copenhagen In October the University of Kuwait and its Institute of Social and Economic Planning were opened.

Kuwait declared her support for the Arab countries in the war with Israel and joined in the oil embargo on the United States and Great Britain No Kuwaitis had however, reached any theatre of war before the cease fire was announced The government donated KD 25 million to the Arab war effort At the Khartoum Conference in September 1967 Kuwait joined Saudi Arabia and Libya in offering financial aid to the UAR and Jordan whilst their economies recovered from the June war The Kuwaiti share of this amounted to KD 55 million annually

On May 13th 1968, it was announced that the agreement of June 1961—whereby Britain had undertaken to give military assistance to Kuwait if asked to do so by her ruler—had been annulled This followed an earlier announcement that Britain would withdraw all troops from the Gulf region by the end of 1971 Since the election of a Conservative government in June 1971, however, Britain has been investigating the possibility of reconsidering this decision, but the Kuwaiti Government has stressed its belief that there is no need for the presence of

British forces in the Gulf region. In this connection, Kuwait has continually encouraged the formation of a Federation of Arab Emirates and has on occasions, attempted to act as a go-between to resolve differences

Since the 1967 Palestine war Kuwait has no longer been a frequent target of radical Arab criticism Its financial support for the countries hit by the war and other generous economic assistance have no doubt contributed to this while the lavish financing of the fedayeen which has been widely reported may have been even more important A factor behind this assistance is the large Palestinian community, said to be over 70,000 strong in Kuwait, many of the most able and educated Palestinians have made a career in the country in recent years Since independence the country has taken some trouble to establish a role as the principal diplomatic mediator in inter Arab disputes and between the other Gulf states and Iran Financial aid to Jordan however was cut off in September 1970 following clashes between government and guerrilla forces, although it was resumed in December, aid was again suspended in January 1971 as fighting in Jordan continued and since then there have been conflicting reports regarding the resumption of payments by Kuwait

The main domestic problem is the difference in status between native born Kuwaitis and immigrants, the latter now comprising around 53 per cent of the population Whilst the living conditions of the immigrants are very good by Arabian standards, many senior positions are reserved for Kuwaitis, as is the suffrage and free use of some welfare services The creation of sufficient employment opportunities to avoid the unsettling effects of idleness and boredom, a social problem even with generous unemployment benefits, is a major difficulty now confronting the government

L P E-S

ECONOMIC SURVEY

The State of Kuwait has an area including the Neutral Zone, of about 5,800 sq miles, roughly the size of Somerset Devon and Cornwall and rather smaller than the state of Maryland It consists mainly of flat desert almost entirely lacking supplies of fresh water and there are no natural frontiers except of course for the sea There is practically no rainfall and the humidity is lower than it is further down the Gulf The temperature is exceedingly high in spring and summer, there is occasionally a frost in winter Until oil was produced the only town was the harbour of Kuwait on the Gulf But for some 150 years this port was of some significance because it was a centre for pearl fishing and the building of dhows or 'booms', and several of the plans for building a railway across Mesopotamia envisaged Kuwait as the eastern terminus The rapid development of the oil industry since about 1950 has dramatically changed all this Kuwait is now known to

possess about 17 per cent of the proved reserves of the entire world, and its production in 1969 was the sixth largest outside Soviet Russia The revenue from oil estimated to reach £350 million in 1971, has brought to the area a prosperity unimaginable twenty years ago Crude oil and natural gas accounted for over half of the 1969/70 Gross National Product of £1,147 million The population, estimated at 733 000 early in 1970, has nearly trebled in ten years as the result of immigration from the surrounding countries attracted by higher wages and better working conditions than anywhere else in the Middle East of the total of 733 000 less than half, some 346 000, were Kuwaitis An important part of the annual revenue from oil has been spent on health, education and other social services such as the distillation of fresh from sea water, and as a result the standard of living in Kuwait is at present probably the highest in the world Most of the social services such as education

and health, are free; it has been said that, as a welfare state, Kuwait now probably has no parallel. In recent years the government has begun to distribute some of its wealth to other parts of the Arab world by loans and grants.

OIL

In 1933 the Anglo-Persian Oil Company, now The British Petroleum Company Limited, and Gulf Oil Corporation applied jointly to the Ruler of Kuwait for a concession to explore the territory. The two companies formed an operating company, Kuwait Oil Company, each holding 50 per cent of its share capital, and a concession was granted for 75 years in December 1934, extended for a further 17 years in 1951. A large oilfield was discovered at Burgan, about 25 miles south of the town of Kuwait, in 1938, but the onset of World War II delayed development until 1945. By 1948 six million tons were produced, but the main impetus to speed up development was supplied by the Abadan affair in 1951, which in effect denied Iranian production to the rest of the world for three years. By 1956 Kuwait's production had increased to 54 million tons, and was then the largest in the Middle East. Further fields were found by the company, notably at Raudhatain, north of Kuwait, and the company's production had reached over 135 million tons by 1970, although large areas of the original concession have been relinquished to the State in accordance with the Agreement. To handle this vast production, a huge tanker port has been constructed at Mina al Ahmadi, not far from the Burgan field, which from a terminal some 10 miles offshore can now handle the largest tankers. At Ahmadi there is also a town of more than 20,000 inhabitants, of whom about 5,000 are employees of the company, and there is a refinery with an annual throughput capacity of 12 million tons.

Two other companies have been permitted by Kuwait and Saudi Arabia to operate in the Neutral Zone, and produce oil. These are Aminoil, a group of certain independent American oil companies, which has a joint operating agreement with Getty Oil Co. under which Aminoil and Getty bear one-half of certain expenses such as drilling; and Arabian Oil Company in which Japanese interests own 80 per cent of the share capital, the governments of Kuwait and Saudi Arabia each holding 10 per cent. So far the production of these companies is small compared with that of The Kuwait Oil Company. In 1969 the Arabian Oil Company produced 16 million tons, entirely from offshore wells, and Aminoil 6 million tons, making the total production in 1969 of Kuwait and the Kuwaiti half share of the Neutral Zone nearly 139 million tons. The Royal Dutch-Shell group has a concession to explore for oil offshore, but its operations have been held up by the problem, so far unsolved, of determining what are Kuwaiti waters. A Spanish state oil company, Hispanoil, was granted a concession in Kuwait during 1967 on territory relinquished by the Kuwait Oil Company. Of this concession, the Kuwait National Petroleum Company (K.N.P.C.) owns 51 per cent, but K.N.P.C. is not obliged to pay any of the costs of exploring until

oil is discovered in commercial quantities. In addition K.N.P.C., which is owned as to 60 per cent by the government of Kuwait and 40 per cent by Kuwait public shareholders, markets in Kuwait oil products produced by the Kuwait Oil Company, and owns a refinery at Shuaiba with an annual capacity of 4.75 million tons. However, in 1969 the refinery operated at well below this figure, with an average throughput of 64,000 barrels per day (3.2 million tons), causing the company to make a loss of £4.6 million. With an increase in throughput and improvements in administration and facilities, the situation improved in 1970.

The government derives its income from the oil industry through the so-called fifty-fifty agreements signed by the operating companies with many host countries in the early 1950s. The principle of these agreements was that when the operating company exported its crude oil, it paid a royalty to the host government amounting to 12½ per cent of the value of the oil at the "posted" price less the cost of production, then paying income tax at 37½ per cent of the total value of the oil at that price, the host government thus receiving 50 per cent of the value. As the companies were free to fix the posted price they exerted their right to reduce it when the price at which they were able to sell the oil fell below the posted price. This of course had the effect of unilaterally diminishing the revenues of the host governments, although because the realized price was lower than the posted price, the host governments were receiving more than 50 per cent.

The outcry in the Middle East against this practice was such that the last time the posted price was reduced was in August 1960. In order to increase their "take", the host countries, Kuwait among them, persuaded the companies to 'agree' in 1964 that the 12½ per cent should be "expensed". This meant that, in addition to the cost of production, the amount of the royalty was to be deducted from the posted price, but the tax of 50 per cent was to be charged on the balance, thus increasing the payment to the host country from 50 to 56½ per cent of the posted price. But as the price realized by the companies has continued almost uninterruptedly to fall below the posted price, the division of profits is now nearer to 70-30, the latter being the companies' share, which is often less. However, so great has been the increase of Kuwait's production that its revenue, estimated at £350 million in 1971, has doubled since 1958. The co-operation between the host countries referred to above was achieved largely through the Organisation of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC), formed in 1960. Of this body Kuwait was a founder member. Kuwait was also a founder member of the Organisation of Arab Petroleum Exporting Countries (OAPEC), formed in 1968, which has its headquarters in Kuwait, and has grown rapidly in membership.

In November 1970, the Kuwait Oil Company agreed to an increase of 9 U.S. cents in the posted price of crude oil, bringing it to \$1.68 per barrel, and to an increase of 5 per cent in the rate of income tax payable. However, following the OPEC conference

held in Caracas in December, tough negotiations began between OPEC and the major oil companies regarding further price increases. A final settlement was reached on February 14th when it was agreed to stabilize the rate of income tax at 55 per cent and to increase the posted price by a uniform 35 cents per barrel, with a new system of gravity differentials and an allowance for upward adjustments in four of the five years of the agreement. From June 1971 the terminal price of the Kuwait Oil Company's crude oil was now \$2 187 per barrel.

OTHER INDUSTRIES

The government has done much to foster the growth of other industries in order to diversify the economy and to provide an alternative source of employment to oil. In 1965, for instance, a law was passed empowering it to grant exemption from import duties on capital goods, subsidized rates for water and power, and preference in government purchases for locally manufactured products. Simultaneously an Industrial Development Committee was set up to help the development of local industry. A Petrochemical Industries Company was formed in 1963 to manufacture fertilizers, and in 1964 a larger concern, Kuwait Chemical Fertilizer Company, which has developed a useful export trade and in which 60 per cent of the share capital is owned by the Petrochemical Industries Company, the balance being held equally by BP and Gulf Oil. An industrial area has been developed at Shuaiba, between the town of Kuwait and Ahmadi close to K N P C's refinery. However public criticism of the poor results recently shown by Petrochemical Industries Company led the government in the spring of 1970 to offer to buy back at par the 12 per cent of the share capital which is owned by the private sector. There are several factories in Kuwait supplying consumer requirements, such as processed food and soft drinks, and there is a flour mills company. The construction industry is of some importance, owing to the vast amount of house and office building there has been in the last decade, not to mention the construction of public works such as roads, power stations, schools and hospitals, much of this work having been undertaken, however, by foreign contractors. According to the industrial census of 1963 nearly 22,000 persons were then employed in industrial establishments excluding oil, or 14 per cent of the labour force at that time. The number has no doubt increased since 1963, but these industries naturally provide a small proportion of the GNP when compared with the oil industry.

PUBLIC UTILITIES

To support the increase of population brought by the development of oil, a vast infrastructure of public works had to be created. Early in the 1950s a desalination plant for making fresh water from the sea was installed at Kuwait town with a capacity now of 6 million gallons a day. Further desalination plants have more recently been installed in the Shuaiba industrial area, and production from all of them is expected to amount shortly to 27 million

gallons a day. In the meantime important sources of fresh water have been found at Raudhataun and Al Shigaa. Similarly a 75 megawatt thermal power station was installed in Kuwait early in the 'fifties, and in the Shuaiba area three further 70 megawatt stations were in operation by 1966. Since then more capacity has been created, and Kuwait's production is now about 560 000 kW. The harbour of Kuwait town has been completely reconstructed, four deep water berths have been provided, and an international airport has been built. There is a national airline with an international service, Kuwait Airways Corporation, which is owned by the State. All these facilities were created at the expense of the government, the oil ports at Mina al Ahmadi and nearby at Mina al Abdullah having been made by the Kuwait Oil Company. However, there are several shipowning companies owned by the private sector, including Kuwait Oil Tanker Company, which owns six tankers with a total deadweight tonnage of about 800,000 tons.

AGRICULTURE AND FISHERIES

Owing to the present lack of water, little grain is grown, and most of the food consumed in Kuwait has to be imported. Of the total area of Kuwait, only 3 per cent consists of land suitable for agriculture, and at the end of 1969 there were only 70 farms. However the government has done much to encourage animal husbandry, the main activity before the development of the oilfields of the bedouin, who still rear camel, sheep and goats. There is an experimental farm of 90 acres owned by the government, and in the private sector there is a growing poultry and dairy industry. Fishing on the other hand, is of some importance because the Gulf, and particularly Kuwait's territorial waters abound in fish, notably prawns and shrimps. Four companies have been formed to engage in fishing, one of which, Kuwait National Fishing Company, took delivery in 1965 of 10 ships fitted with refrigerators, and equipment for preserving and canning. Another company has succeeded in exporting prawns to the USA. The National Bank of Kuwait is of the opinion that there is "great potential for development of this activity".

FOREIGN TRADE AND BALANCE OF PAYMENTS

Well over 90 per cent of the value of Kuwait's exports consists of oil. Total exports in 1969 were valued at KD 497 million, having shown an uninterrupted and very substantial increase since oil was first produced. About two thirds of the volume of the oil exported goes to European destinations. In 1969, 17 per cent of it went to the United Kingdom, 13 per cent to Italy, 12 per cent to Holland, 8 per cent to France, 7 per cent to Eire and nearly 4 per cent to Belgium. Nearly 11 per cent was exported to Japan, and 4 per cent to Singapore, and most of the rest went to destinations in the Far East or Australasia.

Kuwait has the highest per capita level of imports in the world, at US \$1,220 in 1969. The total value

of imports in that year was KD 218 million, having risen steadily for many years except in 1964, when there was something of a recession owing apparently to overstocking. The most important item, as might be expected when industrial development is proceeding so rapidly, is machinery, accounting for something like 25 per cent of the total imports by value. with transport equipment accounting for another 13 per cent. Foodstuffs account generally for about 18 per cent, and textiles for about 15 per cent, but the range of imports is naturally very wide owing to the comparatively unimportant part played in Kuwait's economy at present by agriculture and domestic manufacture. The principal supplier is the United States, with about 20 per cent of the total, followed by Japan and the United Kingdom with about 12 per cent each, Western Germany supplying about 10 per cent and Italy about 5.

No official estimates are available of Kuwait's balance of payments. But an interesting study by Messrs A. Sivasubramanian and Abdulla Ali was published in 1969 by the Kuwait Institute of Economic and Social Studies, from which it appears that in the year 1967-68 the country had a surplus on current account of about KD 152 million. According to these estimates, visible trade showed a surplus of KD 100 million, being the difference between the Government's revenue from the oil industry and the f.o.b. value of exports and re-exports other than oil on the one hand, and the c.i.f. value of imports on the other. Invisible items consisted of a net surplus on investment account of KD 69 million and a debit on freight, insurance and travel account of KD 17 million. However on capital account there was a residual debit of KD 152 million, which the authors explain as being due partly to errors and omissions and partly to private capital transfers abroad. As there are no exchange restrictions in force, it is not possible to be more specific. Other capital movements which are of interest included the transfer abroad by the government in the form of aid to other Arab countries of KD 66 million, covered by an increase in its assets overseas estimated at KD 68 million; and a debit on K.F.A.E.D. account (*see below*) of KD 4 million, covered by a credit representing K.F.A.E.D.'s portfolio income of a similar amount. No later estimate is available, but the gold and foreign exchange holdings of the Central Bank stood at KD 204 million at the end of February 1970, compared with KD 173 million at the end of 1968, KD 184 million at the end of 1967, just after the devaluation of sterling (*see below*), and KD 110 million at the end of 1963.

CURRENCY, BANKING AND FINANCE

The currency in circulation is the Kuwait dinar. Kuwait is a member of the sterling area, and the Kuwaiti dinar was for many years held at parity with the £ sterling. However, when the pound was devalued in November 1967, the Kuwaiti dinar did not follow sterling, with the result that parity with the U.S. dollar remains at \$2.80, not \$2.40, and parity with the pound sterling is now KD 0.857 to the £.

The currency was for years managed by a currency board which included a British member, but in April 1969 a Central Bank was established and took over these functions. The currency in circulation at the end of 1969 amounted to KD 48 million, compared with KD 54 million at the end of 1968, but KD 33 million at the end of 1963.

The only foreign bank allowed to operate in Kuwait at present is the British Bank of the Middle East, the Kuwaiti branch of which was opened in 1942, but there are a number of commercial banks financed by local capital, and the management of one of these, the Al Ahli Bank, is provided by the French Credit Lyonnais. Of the local banks, by far the largest is the National Bank of Kuwait, founded in 1953, the total assets of which at the end of 1969 amounted to KD 295 million. The other banks include the Gulf Bank, the Commercial Bank of Kuwait and the United Bank of Kuwait, founded respectively in 1960, 1961 and 1966. The United Bank of Kuwait also represents the overseas interests of the National Bank, the Commercial Bank and the Gulf Bank, which hold part of its share capital. The net foreign assets of the commercial banks at the end of 1969 amounted to KD 291 million. In 1965 the government founded a Savings and Credit Bank with a paid-up capital now of KD 25 million, all provided by the State, to promote savings and to provide finance for small industries, agriculture, property, and small businesses.

There is now an active stock market in Kuwait, and for some time the State has been active in encouraging investment. In 1962 a Kuwait Investment Company was created, of which the State owns half the capital, to engage in portfolio investment and in property dealing in Kuwait. A similar concern, the Kuwait Foreign Trading & Investment Company was established by the State, which owns 80 per cent of the share capital, to undertake business transactions abroad, and reference has already been made to the reserves of the State overseas. There is no official information about the amount of private portfolio investment overseas by Kuwaitis, but it is known to be substantial, and the estimate of the country's balance of payments for 1967-68 puts the income derived therefrom in that year at KD 30 million.

PUBLIC FINANCE

The ordinary budget of the State for the year ended March 31st, 1970, estimated revenue at KD 303 million, of which KD 279 million or 93 per cent was to be provided by the oil industry, KD 201 million in the form of income tax and KD 78 million in that of royalties. There is no personal income tax or estate duty. The other more important sources of ordinary revenue were customs and excise duties, KD 6.5 million, income from the electricity and water services, and transport, KD 5.4 and 4.4 million respectively, and the proceeds of the sale of State lands, KD 1.8 million, the government for some years having operated a scheme for the purchase of land on which well over KD 100 million has been spent. Of the total ordinary revenue, namely KD 302

million, KD 31 million was allocated to reserve, KD 67 million was allocated to development projects and the further acquisition of property, and KD 232 million to ordinary expenditure. Of the last named, KD 30 million was to be spent on education—there are now about 120,000 attending the Ministry's schools—KD 25 million on defence, KD 20 million on the Ministry of the Interior, KD 16 million on public health, KD 11 million by the Ministry of Public Works, KD 9 million on electricity and water plants, and KD 8 million went to the Ruler. However, there was an allocation of KD 75 million to miscellaneous expenditure and the support of independent budgets including those of the Municipality of Kuwait, the Shuaiba Industrial Board and the new University of Kuwait, founded in 1966, and now attended by about 1,300 students. The development budget included KD 27 million for public works, KD 21 million for the Ministry of Electricity and Water, and KD 10 million for the acquisition of property.

The amount of the State's reserve overseas in 1968 stood at £396 million, much of which is believed still to be held in London, and for 1967-68 the ordinary budget included KD 25 million under the heading interest from investments. However, in 1961 the government set up a Kuwait Fund for Arab Economic Development (K.F.A.E.D.) to provide loan capital for development projects in the other Arab countries. K.F.A.E.D. has an authorised capital of KD 200 million, of which less than half has been paid up, and it has powers, not yet used to borrow twice its paid up capital. By the end of 1969 it had made loans totalling KD 72 million for various projects in nine Arab countries, of which KD 49 million had been drawn. In addition to this the government has from time to time made loans to other Arab countries directly from its own reserves and by the end of 1968 commitments of this kind totalled KD 196

million. These must certainly have included the payments which Kuwait undertook at the Khartoum conference of August 1967 to make to the Arab countries affected by the Arab-Israeli war of that year.

DEVELOPMENT

The efforts of the last few years to diversify the economy have had some success. In 1963 the GNP of Kuwait was estimated to be KD 500 million. Of this KD 444 million or 88 per cent was provided by the oil industry. For the year 1968-69 the GNP was estimated to be KD 793 million, of which KD 559 million, or only just over 70 per cent was due to oil. During the last few years, it is true, there have been slight setbacks to those parts of the economy which do not depend directly on oil—1964 is a case in point, and it may be that 1970 is seeing a similar recession. But the uninterrupted growth of the oil industry seems likely to insulate Kuwait, for the time being at any rate from any really major depression. All the same efforts to diversify the economy and maximise the increase of the GNP continue. In 1965 work started on a five-year plan for economic development covering the years 1966-71 and providing for the expenditure by the public and private sector of KD 915 million during the period. Of this KD 187 million was to be spent on housing, KD 162 million on transport and communications, KD 156 million on industry, of which KD 70 million on oil, mainly by the companies, KD 137 million on electricity and water supply, and KD 94 million on the building of new schools, training centres, hospitals and clinics. Preparations are being made to introduce a similar plan, but for ten years and excluding projects to be financed by the private sector except for commitments made under the earlier plan.

B S E

STATISTICAL SURVEY

AREA AND POPULATION

AREA (sq. km.)		POPULATION (April 1970 Census)				
Kuwait	Neutral Zone*	Total	Kuwaitis	Foreigners	Males	Females
15,000	5,700	733,000	346,000	387,000	417,000	317,000

* The Neutral Zone lies south-east of Kuwait. Control of the Zone is shared with Saudi Arabia.

EMPLOYMENT (Estimates for 1966)

	NUMBER	PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
Agriculture and Fishing .	3,146	1.7
Quarrying and Mining .	6,992	3.7
Manufacturing Industry .	17,933	9.7
Building and Construction .	30,867	16.6
Electricity and Water .	7,257	3.9
Commerce	23,045	12.4
Transportation, Communication and Storage . .	11,128	6.0
Services	85,219	46.0
TOTAL	185,587	100.0

AGRICULTURE

Kuwait is mainly desert, and most food is imported. There is subsistence farming of dates, cereals and vegetables. Fishery resources are being actively developed.

KUWAIT—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

OIL

KUWAIT (Kuwait Oil Co.)

YEAR	PRODUCTION (long tons)
1966	112 734 666
1967	113 202 910
1968	120 050 000
1969	127 502 000
1970	135 494 480

KUWAIT/SAUDI ARABIA NEUTRAL ZONE (American Independent Oil Co. and Getty Oil Co.)

YEAR	PRODUCTION (long tons)
1965	9 485 000
1966	8 636 000
1967	7 315 865
1968	6 643 000
1969	6 200 000

KUWAIT/SAUDI ARABIA NEUTRAL ZONE OFFSHORE (Arabian Oil Co.)

YEAR	PRODUCTION (long tons)
1965	9 165 000
1966	13 285 000
1967	14 284 633
1968	15 316 000
1969	16 150 000

OIL EXPORTS (ooo bbl.)

	1967	1968	1969
Kuwait Oil Co.	839 280	885 422	921 845
Amin Oil Co.	23 000	15 000	13 000
Arabian Oil Co.	95 000	101 000	115 700
TOTAL	934 280	1 001 422	1 050 545

NATURAL GAS PRODUCTION (million cu. ft.)

	GAS PRODUCED	USED BY COMPANIES	USED FOR INJECTION	USED BY STATE	TOTAL GAS USED
1966	446 353	68 783	9 228	18 817	96 828
1967	456 761	72 533	27 043	23 082	122 658
1968	478 958	83 945	53 679	33 966	171 590
1969	513 094	86 769	49 353	44 869	180 991

INDUSTRY

	UNIT	1965	1966	1967
Petrol (premium)	ooo Amer. barrels	1 580	1 909	2 275
Petrol (regular)		82	21	—
Aviation (Kerosene)		225	378	392
Asphalt		140	238	227
Fuel Oil		22 365	21 878	29
Naphtha		2 125	2 591	3 026
Natural Gas	million cubic ft.*	413 213	455 353	456 761
Ammonium Sulphate	metric tons	—	30 972	62 534
Thermal Electric ty Generated	ooo kW	652 648	983 259	1 334 858
Potable Water	million galls	2 557	3 287	4 251
Brackish Water		4 155	5 156	4 167
Sodium Chloride	tons	3 912	4 210	3 756
Chlorine		927	711	930
Caustic Soda		934 5	738	1 241
Hydrochloric Acid	galls	97 695	104 275	126 528
Lime-Sand Bricks	ooo	42 045	48 725	47 947
Wheat Milling	tons	—	40 141	57 635

* Measured at 60°F + 14.65 pounds per sq. ft. at sea level

KUWAIT—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

FINANCE

1 Kuwait Dinar (KD)=1,000 fils=13.3 Rupees
 ·857 KD=£1 sterling; ·357 KD=U.S. \$1
 100 KD=£117.17 sterling=U.S. \$280.

BUDGET (1969-70—'000 KD)

REVENUE		CURRENT EXPENDITURE	
Income Tax	201,815	Guidance and Information	5,139
Production and Consumption Taxes and Fees	85,026	Public Works	10,785
Services Revenues	12,781	Posts, Telegraphs and Telephones	4,257
Sundry Revenues and Dues	1,155	Education	30,353
Extraordinary Revenues	1,760	Foreign Affairs	2,966
		Interior	20,160
		Defence	25,000
		Public Health	16,364
		Electricity, Water, Power and Water Distillation Plant and Salt Factory	9,713
		Finance and Oil, including Customs and Ports and Housing	10,051
		Unclassified and Transferable*	74,935
		Other Expenditure	22,292
TOTAL	302,537	TOTAL	232,018

* Principally budgetary assistance to the U.A.R. and Jordan.
 Total revenue and expenditure in 1971-72 are estimated at KD 354.8 million.

KUWAIT FUND FOR ARAB ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

(Loans Granted and Withdrawals to Dec. 1969)
(million KD)

COUNTRY	LOANS GRANTED	WITH-DRAWALS
Algeria	10.0	9.9
Jordan	7.5	4.5
Lebanon	3.4	1.2
Morocco	10.0	3.8
Sudan	13.7	11.2
Syria	3.0	—
Tunisia	10.4	9.7
U.A.R.	13.3	9.0
Yemen	0.2	—
TOTAL	71.7	49.5

In addition loans totalling KD 196,300,000 had been made direct from the state's general reserves to Arab countries by December 1968.

KUWAIT—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

NATIONAL ACCOUNTS
(estimates—KD million)

	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69
Consumption	330	415	445
Private	210	280	300
Public	120	135	145
Gross Fixed Capital Formation	137	163	160
Private and semi private	73	95	100
Public	64	68	60
Increase in stocks	13	23	14
Expenditure on consumption and gross capital formation	480	601	619
Export excluding oil and oil products f o b	21	21	28
Export of oil and oil products f o b	505	498	559
Less imports of goods and services	-208	-248	-255
Expenditure on Gross Domestic Product	798	872	951
Net Factor Income transactions with the rest of the world	-191	-138	-158
Expenditure on Gross National Product	607	734	793
Less depreciation	- 36	- 42	- 45
Net National Product or National Income	571	692	748

EXTERNAL TRADE
(million KD)

	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969
Imports	134.7	165.3	210.0	218.3	230.8
Exports*	14.1	13.6	13.0	20.8	23.1

* Export figures exclude oil. In 1965 Kuwait (excluding Neutral Zone) exported 108.7 million tons of crude oil this figure rose to 116.3 million tons in 1967 121.3 million tons in 1968 and 126.3 million tons in 1969.

COMMODITIES

IMPORTS
('000 KD)

	1966	1967	1968
Transport Equipment	24 270	27 229	26 255
Machinery other than electric	19 979	32 757	26 102
Electrical Machinery Apparatus and Appliances	13 928	22 019	23 853
Textile Yarns Fabrics etc	12 376	14 325	17 122
Clothing	8 124	9 984	12 344
Non metallic Mineral Manufactures n.e.s	6 900	9 924	9 897
Chemicals	6 740	8 332	9 771
Miscellaneous Manufactured Articles n.e.s	5 374	7 659	9 036
Iron and Steel	9 621	14 179	8 957
Fruit and Vegetables	5 900	7 545	8 924
Cereal and Cereal Preparations	5 478	5 175	7 124
Tobacco and Tobacco Manufactures	6 071	6 310	6 576
Professional Scientific and Controlling Instruments	3 639	4 544	5 670
Manufactures of Metals n.e.s	4 067	4 192	4 559
Dairy Products and Eggs	2 851	4 205	4 368

KUWAIT—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

OIL EXPORTS

(1969)

DESTINATION	PER CENT	TONS
United Kingdom	17.3	19,602,763
Italy	13.0	14,758,426
Netherlands	12.0	13,531,653
Japan	10.8	12,163,417
France	8.3	9,367,952
Ireland	7.2	8,194,332
Singapore	4.1	4,675,820
Belgium	3.8	4,295,911
Australia	3.3	3,783,376
China (Taiwan)	3.3	3,757,194
South Korea	2.8	3,207,755
U.S.A.	2.5	2,792,958
Aden	2.1	2,405,529
Philippines	1.8	2,088,004

OTHER EXPORTS*

('000 KD.)

	1966	1967	1968
Transport Equipment	1,845	2,257	3,127
Tobacco and Tobacco Manufactures	3,610	3,275	2,686
Machinery, other than electric	1,467	1,309	2,192
Coffee, Tea, Cocoa, Spices and Manufactures thereof	561	564	961
Fish and Fish Preparations	340	294	853
Electrical Machinery, Apparatus and Appliances	541	549	579
Travel Goods, Handbags, etc.	566	567	515
Cereal and Cereal Preparations	908	454	476

* Many of these are re-exports.

PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES

('000 KD.)

IMPORTS	1967	1968	EXPORTS*	1967	1968
United States	45,896	37,334	Saudi Arabia	3,958	3,943
United Kingdom	26,147	27,877	Iran	2,125	2,840
Japan	26,488	27,894	Iraq	717	1,350
German Federal Republic	20,042	20,768	Jordan	271	527
Italy	9,995	11,202	Lebanon	863	907
India	6,713	8,811	Qatar	676	742
Belgium	2,924	2,441	Bahrain	366	261
Lebanon	6,702	8,037	India	316	346
Netherlands	—	4,785	United Kingdom	1,013	1,033
France	6,069	4,770	U.A.R.	112	122
Iran	3,919	3,600	Pakistan	189	145
Switzerland	3,718	4,080	U.S.A.	383	890
Australia	5,055	4,342	Dubai	—	1,432
Chinese People's Republic	6,608	8,323	Abu Dhabi	—	962

* Excludes oil exports (see OIL above).

KUWAIT—(STATISTICAL SURVEY, THE CONSTITUTION)

TRANSPORT

Shipping (1965) Entered and cleared, *Ships* 825, *Tonnage* 2,842,226
Vehicles: Total (1964) 72 393, (1965) 80,361, (1966) 94 903, (1967) 106,000
Civil Aviation: Kuwait Airport, total aircraft movements (1963) 12,263, (1964) 12,592, (1965) 13,386, (1966) 18,213

EDUCATION

(1969-70)

	TEACHERS	STUDENTS	
		Boys	Girls
Government Schools	8 219	73 262	55 783
Private Schools	1,109	13 523	11 737
TOTAL	9 328	86 785	67,520

Sources: Central Statistical Office, Planning Board, Kuwait, National Bank of Kuwait, S A K.; Kuwait Oil Co. Ltd., Ahmadi, Kuwait

THE CONSTITUTION

(Promulgated November 16th, 1962)

The principal provisions of the Constitution are as follows

SOVEREIGNTY

Kuwait is an independent sovereign Arab State, her sovereignty may not be surrendered, and no part of her territory may be relinquished. Offensive war is prohibited by the Constitution.

Succession as Amir is restricted to heirs of the late MUBARAK AL SABAH and an Heir Apparent must be appointed within one year of the accession of a new sovereign.

EXECUTIVE AUTHORITY

Executive power is vested in the Amir, who exercises it through a Council of Ministers. The Amir will appoint the Prime Minister after the traditional consultations, and will appoint and dismiss Ministers on the recommendation of the Prime Minister. Ministers need not be members of the National Assembly, though all ministers who are not Assembly members assume membership *ex-officio* in the Assembly for the duration of office. The Amir also lays down laws which shall not be effective unless published in the *Official Gazette*. The Amir sets up public institutions. All decrees issued in these respects shall be conveyed to the Assembly. No law is issued unless it is approved by the Assembly.

LEGISLATURE

A National Assembly of 50 members will be elected for a four year term by all natural born literate Kuwait males over the age of 21, except servicemen and police, who may not vote. Candidates for election must possess the franchise and be over 30 years of age. The Assembly will sit for at least eight months in any year, and new elections shall be held within two months of the last dissolution of the outgoing Assembly.

Restrictions on the commercial activities of Ministers include an injunction forbidding them to sell property to the Government.

The Amir may ask for reconsideration of a Bill passed by the Assembly and sent to him for ratification but the Bill would automatically become law if it were subsequently passed by a two-thirds majority at the next sitting or by a simple majority at a subsequent sitting. The Amir may declare Martial Law, but only with the approval of the Assembly.

The Assembly may pass a vote of no confidence in a Minister, in which case the Minister must resign. Such a vote is not permissible in the case of the Prime Minister, but the Assembly may approach the Amir on the matter, and the Amir shall then either dismiss the Prime Minister or dissolve the Assembly.

An annual budget shall be presented, and there shall be an independent finance control commission.

CIVIL SERVICE

Entry to the Civil Service is confined to Kuwait citizens.

PUBLIC LIBERTIES

Kuwaitis are equal before the law in prestige, rights and duties. Individual freedom is guaranteed. No one should be seized, arrested or exiled except within the rules of law.

No punishment shall be administered except for an act or abstaining from an act considered a crime in accordance with a law applicable at the time of committing it, and no penalty shall be imposed more severe than that which could have been imposed at the time of committing the crime.

Freedom of opinion is guaranteed to everyone and each has the right to express himself through speech, writing or other means within the limits of the law.

The Press is free within the limits of the law, and it should not be suppressed except in accordance with the dictates of law.

Freedom of performing religious rites is protected by the State according to prevailing customs, provided it does not violate the public order nor be immoral.

Trade unions will be permitted and property must be respected. An owner is not banned from managing his property except within the boundaries of law. No property should be taken from anyone except within the prerogatives of law, unless a just compensation be given.

Houses may not be entered except in cases provided by law. Every Kuwaiti has freedom of movement and choice of place of residence within the state. This right shall not be controlled except in cases stipulated by law.

Every person has the right to education and freedom to choose his type of work. Freedom to form peaceful societies is guaranteed within the limits of law.

THE GOVERNMENT

HEAD OF STATE

Emir of Kuwait: His Highness Sheikh SABAH AS-SALIM AS-SABAH,
(succeeded on the death of his brother, November 24, 1965).

COUNCIL OF MINISTERS

(July 1971)

Prime Minister: Shaikh JABER AL-AHMAD AL-JABER.

Minister of Justice and Acting Minister of Education: JASIM AL-MARZOUK.

Minister of Public Works: HAMMOUD NUSUF.

Minister of Social Affairs and Labour: HAMAD AYYAR.

Minister of Interior and Defence: Shaikh SA'AD AL-ABDULLAH AL-SABAH.

Minister of Foreign Affairs and Acting Minister of Guidance and Information: Shaikh SABAH AL-AHMAD AL-JABER.

Minister of Trade and Industry: KHALID ADASANI.

Minister of Awqaf and Islamic Affairs: RASHID FARHAN.

Minister of Finance and Oil: ABD AL-RAHMAN SALEM AL-ATIQUI.

Minister of Public Health: ABD AL-RAZZAQ AL-UDWANI.

Minister of Posts, Telephones, Telegraphs and Acting Minister of Electricity: ABDUL AZIZ AS-SARAWI.

Minister of State for Cabinet Affairs: ABD AL AZIZ HUSAIN.

PROVINCIAL GOVERNORATES

Ahmadi: JABER ABDULLA JABER SABAH.

Hawalli: NAWAF AHMED JABER SABAH.

Kuwait: NASSER SABAH AL-NASSIR AL-SABAH.

DIPLOMATIC REPRESENTATION

REPRESENTATIVES OF KUWAIT ABROAD

(A) Ambassador; (CA) Chargé d'Affaires; (Perm. Rep.) Permanent Representative.

Algeria: (vacant), Algiers (A).

Belgium: (see France).

Bulgaria: (see Turkey).

Canada: (see U.S.A.).

Czechoslovakia: (see France).

France: FAISAL AL SALEH AL MUTAWWE (A) (also accredited to Belgium and Czechoslovakia).

Hungary: (see U.S.S.R.).

India: (vacant), Bombay (A).

Iran: SHAIKH NASSIR MUHAMMAD AL-AHMED AL-SABAH, Teheran (A).

Iraq: MUHAMMAD AHMAD ABDULLATIF AL-HAMAD, Baghdad (A).

Italy: MUHAMMAD ZEID AL-HIRBISH, Rome (A) (also accredited to Yugoslavia).

Japan: ABDULLAH BISHARA, Tokyo (A) (also accredited to Malaysia).

Jordan: (vacant), Amman (A).

Lebanon: MUHAMMAD AL DASSANI, Beirut (A).

Libya: AHMED GAITH, Tripoli (A).

Malaysia: (see Japan).

Morocco: TALAAT GHOSSEIN, Rabat (A).

Pakistan: YACOB AL RASHID, Karachi (A).

Poland: (see U.S.S.R.).

Romania: (see U.S.S.R.).

Saudi Arabia: MURJEN AL-AHMAD, Jeddah (A) (also accredited to Somalia).

Somalia: (see Saudi Arabia).

Sudan: YUSUF ABDULLATIF AL-ABDULRAZZAK, Khartoum (A).

Switzerland: (see UN, Geneva).

Syria: ABDULLAH AHMAD HUSAIN, Damascus (CA).

Tunisia: SAOUD ARDE LAZIZ HAMIDHI, Tunis (A).

Turkey: KHALID MUHAMMAD JAAFAR, Ankara (A) (also accredited to Bulgaria).

U.S.S.R.: AHMED GHAYTH ABDULLAH, Moscow (A) (also accredited to Romania, Hungary and Poland).

United Arab Republic: HAMED ISSA AL-RUJAIB, Cairo (A).

United Kingdom: AHMAD ABDULWAHAB AL-NAQIB, London (A).

U.S.A.: Sheikh SALIM AL-SABAH AL-SALIM, Washington (A) (also accredited to Canada and Venezuela).

Venezuela: (see U.S.A.).

Yemen: AL QASSEM MUHAMMAD BORSINI, Sana'a (A).

Yugoslavia: (see Italy).

United Nations: MUHALHIL AL-MADHAF, New York (Perm. Rep.); Sheikh NASSER MUHAMMAD AL-AHMAD AL-SABAH, Geneva (Perm. Rep.).

KUWAIT--(DIPLOMATIC REPRESENTATION, THE NATIONAL ASSEMBLY, ETC.)

EMBASSIES AND LEGATIONS ACCREDITED TO KUWAIT

(Kuwait unless otherwise indicated)

(E) Embassy; (L) Legation.

Afghanistan: (E) Ambassador KHALILALLAH KHALILI
Algeria: Istiqlal St. (L), Ambassador MUHAMMAD GHAS
 SERI.
Austria: Beirut, Lebanon (E).
Belgium: Baghdad, Iraq (E).
Bulgaria: Damascus, Syria (E).
Canada: Teheran, Iran (E).
China, People's Republic of: (E) *Chargé d'Affaires* (a))
 YUAN SHIH CHIEV
Costa Rica: Beirut, Lebanon (E).
Czechoslovakia: No. 14, Diyya Quarter (E), Ambassador.
 LADISLAV TISLJAR.
France: Kuwait Bldg 4th Floor No 202, Fahad al-Salem
 St. (E); Ambassador: PAUL CARTON.
Greece: Amman, Jordan (E).
Guinea: Cairo, U.A.R. (E).
Hungary: (E), Ambassador JÓZSEF FERRÓ
India: Ring Rd No. 1 (E), Ambassador. VIRASAT ALI
 KIDWAL
Iran: Haj Abdulla Dashti Bldg, Istiqlal St. (E), Amba-
 sador. Dr. GHOLAM REZA TAJRAKSH.
Iraq: 37 Istiqlal St. (E); Ambassador: MIDHAT ISRAHIM
 JUNA.
Italy: (address not available) (E); Ambassador: DIEGO
 SOTO.
Japan: Al-Khalid Bldg, Fahad-al Salem St (E); Amba-
 sador: SHOICHI KAIHARA.
Jordan: Mansour Qabazard Bldg, Istiqlal St. (E); Amba-
 sador: TOUGAN AL HINDAWI
Lebanon: (address not available) (E); Ambassador: SAMIN
 AL-BARA.
Malaysia: Jeddah, Saudi Arabia (E).
Mali: Cairo, U.A.R. (E).

Mauritania: (L); Ambassador: MUHAMMAD WELD JEDDO
Morocco: Ville No 7, Rd. 14, Shuwaikh (E); Ambassador.
 AL-ARABI AL-BANANI.
Netherlands: Baghdad, Iraq (E).
Pakistan: Salah Jamal Bldg, No 7, Nuzha St. (E).
 Ambassador: SHAHRKYAR KHAN.
Poland: 48 Istiqlal St (E); Ambassador: ZDZISLAW
 TADEUSZ WOJCIK
Romania: Beirut, Lebanon (E).
Saudi Arabia: Sheikh Fahad al-Salem Bldg, al-Hilali St.,
 Sharq (E); Ambassador: Sheikh ALI ABDULLAH AL-
 SUGAIR.
Somalia: Jeddah, Saudi Arabia (E).
Spain: (F), Ambassador: LOUIS IVALLA.
Sudan: Badr al-Mulla Bldg, Fahad al-Salem St (E);
 Ambassador: HAMID MUHAMMAD AL AMIN.
Switzerland: Beirut, Lebanon (L).
Syria: Thounayan al-Ghanim Bldg, Fahad al-Salem St.
 (L); Ambassador: MUHAMMAD AL KASSAR.
Tunisia: Ghanima al Shaheen al-Ghanim Bldg, Istiqlal St.
 (E); Ambassador: MAHMOUD SHARSHOUK.
Turkey: Beirut, Lebanon (E).
U.S.S.R.: Sheikh Ahmad al-Jaber al-Sabah Bldg, No 5
 Dasman District (E), Ambassador: NIKOLAI TUPITSYN.
U.A.R.: Mussa'ed al-Saleh Bldg, Istiqlal St (E); Amba-
 sador. SALAHUDDIN WASFI.
United Kingdom: Arabian Gulf St. (E); Ambassador:
 ARTHUR JOHN WILTON
U.S.A.: Baad Al-Gar (E); Ambassador: JOHN PATRICK
 WALSH.
Venezuela: Beirut, Lebanon (E).
Yugoslavia: Baghdad, Iraq (E).

Kuwait also has diplomatic relations with German Democratic Republic, Kenya, Sweden and Upper Volta

THE NATIONAL ASSEMBLY

In elections held for the third time under the new Con-
 stitution on January 23rd, 1971, 184 candidates were
 nominated for the 50 seats (5 seats in each of 10 districts)
 There are no official political parties, the candidates
 standing as individuals. In the 1971 elections, however,
 five members of the radical Arab Nationalist Movement
 were returned. The vote is limited to natural born Kuwaiti
 males over 21 who are able to read and write (about 40,000
 voters)

JUDICIAL SYSTEM

There is a codified system of law based largely upon the
 Egyptian system. In criminal matters, minor contraven-
 tions are dealt with by Magistrates Courts, felonies by
 Criminal Assize Courts. Appeal in the case of misdemean-
 ours is to a Misdemeanours Court of Appeal.

Civil cases are heard by a General Court within which
 are separate chambers dealing with commercial cases,

other civil cases and matters of personal status. Appeal is to
 a High Court of Appeal. Matters of personal status may go
 beyond the High Court of Appeal to a Court of Cassation.

In criminal cases, investigation of misdemeanours is the
 responsibility of the police, while responsibility for the
 investigation of felonies lies with the Attorney-General's
 Office

RELIGION

MUSLIMS

The inhabitants are mainly Muslims of the Sunni and Shiite sects.

CHRISTIANS

Anglican Chaplain in Kuwait: Rev. K. W. T. W. JOHNSON, c/o Kuwait Oil Co. Ltd., 3 Ninth Avenue, Ahmadi 6, Kuwait.

Roman Catholic: Right Rev. Mgr. V. SAN MIGUEL, O.C.D., Administrator Apostolic of Kuwait, Bishop's House P.O.B. 266, Kuwait.

National Evangelical Church in Kuwait: Rev. YUSEF ABDUL NOOR, Box 80, Kuwait; a United Protestant Church founded by the Reformed Church in America; services in Arabic, English and Malayalam.

There are also Armenian, Greek, Coptic and Syrian Orthodox Churches in Kuwait.

THE PRESS

Article 37 of the Constitution specifies the following as regards the Press:

"Freedom of the press, printing and publishing shall be guaranteed in accordance with the conditions and manner specified by Law."

As such, the press is not pre-censored, and all freedom is guaranteed within the framework of the Press Law. A new draft bill of the Press Law has been sent to the National Assembly.

DAILIES

Akhbar al-Kuwait (Kuwait News): P.O.B. 1747, Mubarak al-Kabir St., Kuwait; Arabic; Editor ABDULAZIZ FAHAD AL-FULAJI.

Daily News: P.O.B. 695, International Airport Rd., Shuwaikh Industrial Area, Kuwait; f. 1963; English; Owner and Editor-in-Chief SALEH AL SALEH.

Kuwait Times: P.O.B. 2270, Fahad Al Salem Ave., Kuwait; f. 1961; English; political; Owner and Editor-in-Chief YOUSUF ALYAN; circ. 15,000.

Al Rai al-Amm (Public Opinion): P.O.B. 695, International Airport Road, Shuwaikh Industrial Area, Kuwait; f. 1961; Arabic; political, social and cultural; Editor YOUSUF AL-MASSAED; circ. 15,000.

WEEKLIES AND PERIODICALS

Kuwait Al-Youm (Kuwait Today): P.O.B. 193, Kuwait; f. 1954; Sunday; the "Official Gazette"; Amiri Decrees, Laws, Govt. announcements, decisions, invitations for tenders, etc.; published by the Ministry of Information; circ. 5,000.

Adhwa al-Kuwait: P.O.B. 1977, Kuwait; literature and arts; Arabic; weekly; free advertising magazine; Editor MYRIN AL HAMAD; circ. 5,000.

Al-Arabi: P.O.B. 748, Kuwait; f. 1958; Arabic; science, history, arts; monthly; published by the Ministry of

Guidance and Information; Editor Dr. AHMED ZAKI; circ. 150,000.

Al-Hadaf (The Aim): P.O.B. 1142, Al Soor St., Kuwait; weekly; f. 1961; Arabic; political and cultural; Editor-in-Chief and Proprietor D. M. SALEH; circ. 10,000 (also monthly supplement: *Economic Review*).

Al Kuwaiti: Ahmadi; weekly journal of the Kuwait Oil Co. Ltd. (also in English edition: *The Kuwaiti*).

Al Nahdha: P.O.B. 695, International Airport Road, Shuwaikh Industrial Area, Kuwait; f. 1967; weekly; Arabic; Editor YOUSUF AL-MASSAED; circ. 8,000.

Al Ressalet (The Message): P.O.B. 2490, Fahad al-Salim St., Kuwait; weekly; Arabic; political, social and cultural; Editor JASSIM MUBARAK.

Al-Talea (The Pioneers): P.O.B. 1082, Fahad al-Salim St., Kuwait; weekly; Arabic; Editor SAMI AHMED AL-MUNAI.

Hayatuna: P.O.B. 1708, Kuwait; medicine and hygiene; Arabic; monthly; published by Al-Awadi Press Corporation; Editor Dr. ABDUL RAHMAN AL-AWADI.

Journal of the Kuwait Medical Association: P.O.B. 1202, Kuwait; f. 1967; English periodical; published by Medical Assoc.; Editor Dr. ABDUL RAZZAK AL YUSUF; circ. 1,500.

Mejallat al-Kuwait (Kuwait Magazine): P.O.B. 193, Kuwait; news and literary articles; Arabic; fortnightly illustrated magazine; published by Ministry of Guidance and Information.

Sawt al-Khaleej (Voice of the Gulf): P.O.B. 659, Kuwait; weekly; Editor BAQER KHRAIBITT.

Usrati: P.O.B. 2995, Kuwait; women's magazine; Arabic; fortnightly; Editor Mrs. GHANIMA AL-MARZOOG.

FOREIGN BUREAU

Middle East News Agency: Fahd El-Salem St. Tass also has a bureau in Kuwait.

RADIO AND TELEVISION

RADIO

Kuwait Broadcasting Station: P.O.B. 397, Kuwait; f. 1951; broadcasts in Arabic and English; short wave (250 kW.), medium wave (750 kW.) and F.M. stereo transmitters; in 1970 there were an estimated 450,000 radio sets; Assist Under-Secretary for Broadcasting Affairs ABDUL AZIZ MOHD JA'FFER.

TELEVISION

Television of Kuwait, Ministry of Guidance and Information: P.O.B. 621, Kuwait; f. 1961; broadcasts in Arabic; three transmitters are used, and broadcasts reach Saudi Arabia, southern Iraq, and other Gulf States; advertising is accepted, and colour television is planned; in 1969 there were 90,000 television sets in use; Dir.-Gen. of TV J. HASSOUNI; Programme Controller MUHAMMAD SANOUSSI.

FINANCE

(cap = capital p u = paid up dep = deposits m = million amounts in Kuwait Dinars)

BANKING

NATIONAL BANKS

Central Bank of Kuwait P O B 526 Kuwait f 1969 replaces Currency Board in administering currency and credit policies cap 2m reserves 3m Governor (vacant) Deputy Governor HAMZAH ARBAS HUSSEIN publ *Annual Report*

National Bank of Kuwait S A K Abdullah Al Salim St P O B 95 Kuwait f 1952 (December 1970) cap and res 18 8m. dep 262 9m total assets 326 7m 21 brs Chair YACUB YOUSUF AL HAMAD Gen Man C D FEARS

Alahli Bank of Kuwait P O B 1387 Ali Al Salim St Kuwait cap p u 2m

Commercial Bank of Kuwait S A K f 1960 cap p u 2 1m dep 108m (Dec 1970) Chair ABDUL AZIZ AL AHMAD AL BAHAR Gen Man H T GRIEVE

Gulf Bank K S C Abdullah Al Salim St Kuwait f 1961 cap p u 2 25m Chair KHALID YUSUF AL-MUTAWA Gen Man A L FORSYTH

Savings and Credit Bank Arab an Gulf St P O B 1454 Kuwait f 1960 cap p u 2 1m dep 4 1m Chair and Dr Gen ABDUL AZIZ DOSARI

FOREIGN BANK

British Bank of the Middle East London Kuwait f 1889 to be taken over in December 1971 by the Bank of Kuwait and the Middle East a government-controlled joint stock company and operated under contract by the British Bank of the Middle East

INSURANCE

NATIONAL COMPANIES

Al Ahleia Insurance Co S A K P O B 1602 Ali Al Salim St Kuwait f 1962 covers all classes except life insurance cap K D 1m Chair MUHAMMAD Y AL NISF Man Dir ABDULLA A AL-RIFAI Gen Man Dr RAOUF H MAKAR

Gulf Insurance Co P O B 1040 Kuwait f 1962 cap 800 000 Gen Man ELIAS N BEDEWI

Kuwait Insurance Co Abdullah Al Salim St P O B 769 Kuwait f 1960 Gen Man SHAKIB S SHAKSHIR

FOREIGN COMPANIES

Some 20 Arab and other foreign insurance companies are active in Kuwait.

OIL

Kuwait National Petroleum Co K S C P O B 70 Kuwait f 1960 60 per cent state-owned refining exploring and marketing company a large new refinery at Shuaiba opened in May 1968 Chair Dr YUSUF SULAI MAN AL FAHHL

Kuwait Oil Co Ahmad Kuwait f 1934 and jointly owned by BP Exploration Company (Associated Holdings) Ltd and Gulf Kuwait Company It had 692 wells producing at end of 1970 oil production in 1970 was 135 2 million long tons The original concession area covered all of Kuwait including territorial waters to a six mile limit In May 1962 exploratory rights to 9 262 square kilometres roughly 50 per cent of the original concession area were voluntarily relinquished to the state Further offshore areas were relinquished in 1967 and 1971

Kuwait Shell Petroleum Development Co (Royal Dutch Shell) Fahad Al Salim St Kuwait has concession signed January 1961 of 2 160 sq miles offshore from Kuwait operations suspended pending clarification of the offshore boundary disputes with Iraq Iran and Saudi Arabia

Kuwait Spanish Petroleum Co P O B 20467 Kuwait f 1968 51 per cent owned by Kuwait National Petroleum Co 49 per cent by H spanoil of Spain holds concessions of 910 000 hectares (about half the land area of Kuwait) for a period of 35 years from 1968 drilling began in 1970

American Independent Oil Co Main Office 50 Rockefeller Plaza New York NY Kuwait Office P O B 69 Kuwait shares with Getty Oil Co (from Saudi Arabia) concessions in Kuwait/Saudi Arabia Neutral Zone onshore combined oil production in 1969 was 6 2 million long tons

Arabian Oil Co • Head Office Tokyo Kuwait Office P O B 1641 Kuwait Field Office Ras Al Khafji, Kuwait Neutral Zone a Japanese company which has concessions offshore of the Neutral Zone there are 56 producing wells as well as four flow stations in operation in 1970 crude oil production reached 126 million barrels

TRADE AND INDUSTRY

CHAMBER OF COMMERCE

Kuwait Chamber of Commerce and Industry: P.O.B. 775; Chamber's Building, Ali Salem St., Kuwait State; f. 1959; 3,250 mems.; Pres. ABDUL AZIZ AL-SAGER; Vice-Pres. YOUSEF AL-FULEIJ and ABDULLA Y. AL-GHANIM; Sec. HAYTHAM MALLUHI; publs. *Monthly Magazine* (circ. 4,000) and annual *Economic Report*.

DEVELOPMENT

Kuwait Chemical Fertilizer Co. K.S.C.: P.O.B. 3964, Kuwait; f. 1964; government enterprise (with British Petroleum and Gulf Oil Co. holding minority interests) for manufacture of liquid ammonia, sulphuric acid, urea and ammonium sulphate.

Kuwait Foreign Trading, Contracting and Investment Co.: P.O.B. 5665, Kuwait; f. 1965; overseas investment company; 98.6 per cent government holding; total assets KD 15.7m. (1970).

Kuwait Fund for Arab Economic Development: AL-Mutanabbi St., P.O.B. 2921, Kuwait; cap. KD 200m. wholly Government owned; assists other Arab governments with development loans; Chair. ABDULREHMAN SALEM AL-ATEEQY; Dir. Gen. ABDLATIF Y. AL-HAMAD.

Kuwait Investment Co. S.A.K.: P.O.B. 1005, Kuwait; f. 1961; cap. KD 7.5m.; 50 per cent government owned; international banking and investment; Man. Dir. ABDLATIF Y. AL-HAMAD.

Kuwait National Industries Company: Kuwait; f. 1960; 51 per cent Government owned company with controlling interest in various construction enterprises.

Kuwait Planning Board: Kuwait City; f. 1962; supervises the 1967-68/1971-72 Five-Year Plan; through its Central Statistical Office publishes information on Kuwait's economic activity; Dir.-Gen. AHMED A. DVAIJ.

Shuaiba Industrial Development Board: P.O.B. 4690, Kuwait; f. 1964; an independent public body developing a new town with dockyard and industrial estate.

TRANSPORT

ROADS

Roads in the towns are metalled and the most important are dual carriageway. There are metalled roads to Ahmadi, Mina Al-Ahmadi and other centres of population in Kuwait, and to the Iraqi and Saudi Arabian borders.

Automobile Association of Kuwait and the Gulf: P.O.B. 2100, Kuwait; Gen. Man. A. W. MONAYES.

Kuwait Automobile and Touring Club: Airport Rd., Khaldiah, P.O.B. 2100, Kuwait; Gen. Man. A. W. MONAYES.

Kuwait Transport Co. S.A.K.: Kuwait; provides internal bus service; regular service to Iran inaugurated December 1968.

SHIPPING

A modern port has been built at Shuwaikh, two miles west of Kuwait Town, which is capable of handling simultaneously up to eight large cargo ships and several smaller ships. Ships of British and other lines make regular calls.

A second port is under construction at Shuaiba to the south of Kuwait.

The oil port at Mina al-Ahmadi, 25 miles south of Kuwait Town, is capable of handling the largest oil tankers afloat, and oil exports of over 2 million barrels per day.

Kuwait Oil Tanker Co. S.A.K.: P.O.B. 810, Kuwait; f. 1957; 1,700 shareholders; cap. KD 11.5m.; owns 6 vessels totalling 800,000 deadweight tons; sole tanker agents for Mina al Ahmadi and agents for other ports.

Kuwait Shipping Co. S.A.K.: P.O.B. Safat 3636, Kuwait; f. 1965; 75 per cent government owned; services to Europe and the Far East; 14 vessels totalling 190,000 tons; fully paid cap. KD 6m.; Gen. Man. D. H. Ton.

CIVIL AVIATION

Kuwait Airways Corporation: Kuwait International Airport, P.O.B. 394, Kuwait; f. 1954; government owned; services to Cairo, Beirut, Damascus, Amman, Baghdad, Aden, Teheran, Abadan, Abu Dhabi, Bahrain, Dhahran, Doha, Dubai, Karachi, Bombay, London, Paris, Rome, Geneva, Athens and Frankfurt; fleet includes two Trident 1E, two Comet 4C and three Boeing 707-320C; Chair. FAISAL SAUD AL-FULAIJ; Man. Dir. JASSIM YOUSUF AL-MARZOOK; publs. *Alboraq* (magazine), *Bulletin*.

Kuwait is also served by the following airlines: Air India, Alia, Alitalia, B.O.A.C., C.S.A. (Czechoslovakia), Democratic Yemen Airlines, Gulf Aviation, Iranair, Iraq Airways, Japan Air Lines, K.L.M., Lufthansa, M.E.A., P.I.A. (Pakistan), Saudi Arabian Airlines, Syrian Arab Airlines, U.A.A. and Yemen Airways.

EDUCATION

Within the last few years a comprehensive system of kindergarten elementary intermediate and secondary schools has been built up and compulsory education now from 6 to 14 was introduced in 1966-67. At present there are about 110 000 pupils enrolled in some 200 schools staffed by over 6 600 teachers. The general policy of the government is to provide free education to all Kuwaiti children from Kindergarten stage to the University. Almost all Kuwaitis are Muslims and speak Arabic so there is no language problem. Pupils are also provided free of cost with food textbooks clothing and medical treatment.

In addition to the Secondary Schools there is a Technical Institute for boys two Teacher Training Institutes (one for men and the other for women) a Religious Institute a Technical Secondary School for Girls. A Post secondary Teacher Training College (two year study) was established during the academic year 1967-68.

There are seven institutes for physically handicapped children i.e. mentally retarded (two) blind and partially sighted (two) deaf and hard-of-hearing (two) and one for polio victims pupils. The Ministry decided to centralize all these institutes in a new compound large enough to include them all in a project beginning in April 1966.

There were 917 Kuwaiti students studying abroad on government scholarships during the academic year 1967-68. The majority of them are in U.A.R. U.S.A. and Britain. The Kuwait University was opened during the academic year 1966-67 and since then Kuwaiti students have been sent abroad mainly for higher studies for which there is no facility in the University.

Three hundred and forty pupils from nearby Arab states are studying in Kuwait at Intermediate and Secondary schools on Kuwait Government scholarships. The state is also providing scholarships for 60 Arab students to pursue their studies at the Kuwait University. For the education of adults there are 49 centres with an enrolment of 23 943 staffed by 711 part time teachers. The Ministry also supervises an additional 38 privately owned schools/institutes with an enrolment of 15 050 pupils. In the past twelve years Kuwait has built and endowed 35 schools in Trucial states (Oman coast) supervised directly by the Kuwait Ministry of Education. There are 10 549 pupils and 372 teachers in these schools.

SOCIETIES AND INSTITUTES

Agricultural Experimental Station c/o Agricultural Dept. Ministry of Public Works Kuwait f 1953 research in various fields of agriculture including and zone studies soil conservation and irrigation plant protection studies animal husbandry small library Dir S I AL MANNAI publs reports information bulletins

British Council P.O.B Safat 345 Beit Sheikh Ahmad al Jaber Qibla Kuwait 11 622 vols 86 periodicals Rep W E N KENSDALE

The Kuwait Institute of Economic and Social Planning in the Middle East P.O.B 5834 Kuwait f 1966 with assistance from the UN Development Programme Director/Project Manager Dr MAHMOUD A EL SHAFIE trains personnel in economic and social devt planning for State of Kuwait and neighbouring countries

Kuwait Institute for Scientific Research P.O.B 12009 Kuwait f 1967 by the Arabian Oil Co Ltd (Japan) to promote and conduct scientific research three research divisions petroleum research and zone agriculture and marine biology and fishery provides documentation and information service and training schemes for scientific research workers Dir Gen Dr T OIKOMIKADO

LIBRARIES

British Council Library P.O.B 345 Beit Sheikh Ahmad al Jaber Qibla Kuwait f 1956 11 300 vols 100 periodicals

Kuwait Central Library Kuwait City f 1936 95 000 vols 12 hrs Chief Librarian YOUSUF MULLA HUSEIN

Kuwait University Central Library Kuwait City f 1966 100 000 vols Librarian Dr AHMAD BADR

MUSEUM

Kuwait Museum Kuwait City excavation findings from Failaka Island dating back to Babylonian times

UNIVERSITY

KUWAIT UNIVERSITY

P.O.B 5969 KUWAIT

Telephone 811188

Founded 1962 inaugurated 1966

Chancellor H E SALEH ABDEL MALEK EL SALEH

Rector Prof Dr ABDEL FATTAH ISMAIL

Secretary-General ANWAR EL NOURI

Librarian Dr AHMED BADR

Number of professors 58

Number of students 1 253 undergraduates 157 graduates

DEANS

Faculty of Science Arts and Education Prof A H H NASR

Parallel courses for women students at the

University College for Women Prof D A SADEK

Faculty of Law and Shariah Prof A H HEGAZI

Faculty of Commerce Economics and Political Science Y AL MULLA

Faculties of Medicine and Engineering due to open later

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Lebanon

PHYSICAL AND SOCIAL GEOGRAPHY

The creation, after 1918, of the modern State of the Lebanon first under French Mandatory rule and then as an independent territory was designed to recognize the nationalist aspirations of a number of Christian groups that had lived for many centuries under Muslim rule along the coast of the eastern Mediterranean and in the hills immediately adjacent. At least as early as the sixteenth century A.D. there had been particularist Christian feeling that ultimately resulted in the grant of autonomy, though not independence to Christians living in the territory of "Mount Lebanon", which geographically was the hill region immediately inland and extending some 20-30 miles north and south of Beirut. The territory of Mount Lebanon was later expanded owing to French interest, into the much larger area of "Greater Lebanon" with frontiers running along the crest of the Anti-Lebanon mountains and reaching the sea some miles north of Tripoli to form the boundary with Syria. In the south there is a frontier with Israel, running inland from the promontory of Ras an Nakura to the head of the Jordan Valley. In drawing the frontiers so as to give a measure of geographical unity to the new State which now occupies an area of 4,015 square miles large non-Christian elements of Muslims and Druses were included so that at the present day the Christians of the Lebanon form only about half the total population. Many Christians have emigrated to North and South America, and the relatively higher birth rate of the non-Christian groups is a further factor in altering the balance of numbers.

PHYSICAL FEATURES

Structurally, the Lebanon consists of an enormous simple upfold of rocks that runs parallel to the coast. There is, first a very narrow and broken flat coastal strip—hardly a true plain—then the land rises steeply to a series of imposing crests and ridges. The highest crest of all is Qurnat as Sauda just over 10,000 ft. high lying south-east of Tripoli. Mount Sannin north-east of Beirut is over 9,000 ft. A few miles east of the summits there is a precipitous drop along a sharp line to a broad, troughlike valley, known as the Bekaa (Biqā), about 10 miles wide and some 70 to 80 miles long. The eastern side of the Bekaa is formed by the Anti-Lebanon mountains which rise to 9,000 ft., and their southern continuation, the Hermon Range, of about the same height. The floor of the Bekaa Valley, though much below the level of the surrounding mountain ranges lies in places at 3,000 ft. above sea level with a low divide in the region of Baalbek. Two rivers rise in the Bekaa—the Orontes which flows northwards into Syria and the Ghazl depression ultimately reaching the Mediterranean through the Turkish territory of Antioch and the River Litani (Leontes). This latter river flows southwards, and then at a short distance from the Israeli frontier makes a sudden bend westwards and plunges through the Lebanon mountains by a deep gorge. Plans are now partly complete to develop the waters of the Litani in this region for irrigation and hydro-electric power.

There exists in the Lebanon an unusual feature of geological structure which is not present in either of the adjacent regions of Syria and Israel. This is the occurrence of a layer of non-porous rocks within the upfold forming the

Lebanon mountains, and, because of this layer, water is forced to the surface in considerable quantities, producing large springs at the unusually high level of 4,000 to 5,000 ft. Some of the springs have a flow of several thousand cu. ft. per second and emerge as small rivers—hence the western flanks of the Lebanon mountains, unlike those nearby in Syria and Israel, are relatively well watered and cultivation is possible up to a height of 4,000 or 5,000 ft.

With its great contrasts of relief, and the configuration of the main ranges, which lie across the path of the prevailing westerly winds, there is wide variety in climatic conditions. The coastal lowlands are moderately hot in summer, and warm in winter, with complete absence of frost. But only 5 or 10 miles away in the hills there is a heavy winter snowfall and the higher hills are covered from December to May, giving the unusual vista for the Middle East of snow-clad peaks. From this the name Lebanon (*laban*—Aramaic for 'white') is said to originate. The Bekaa has a moderately cold winter with some frost and snow, and a distinctly hot summer, as it is shut off from the tempering effect of the sea.

Rainfall is on the whole abundant, but it decreases rapidly towards the east, so that the Bekaa and Anti-Lebanon are definitely drier than the west. On the coast, between 30 and 40 inches fall annually, with up to 50 inches in the mountains, but only 15 inches in the Bekaa. As almost all of this annual total falls between October and April (there are three months of complete aridity each summer) rain is extremely heavy while it lasts, and storms of surprising intensity can occur. Beirut, for example, has slightly more rain than Manchester, but on half the number of rainy days. Another remarkable feature is the extremely high humidity of the coastal region during summer, when no rain falls. The sultry heat drives as many as can afford it to spend the summer in the hills.

ECONOMIC LIFE

The occurrence of high mountains near the sea, and the relatively abundant supplies of spring water have had a marked influence on economic development within the Lebanon. Owing to the successive levels of terrain an unusually wide range of crops can be grown from bananas and pineapples on the hot, damp coastlands, olives, vines and figs on the lowest foothills, cereals, apricots and peaches on the middle slopes to apples and potatoes on the highest levels. These latter are the aristocrats of the Lebanese markets, since they are rarest, and, with the growing market in the oilfield areas of Arabia and the Persian Gulf, they fetch the highest price. Export of fruit is therefore an important item. Then, too, abundant natural water has led to the growth of pinewoods and evergreen groves, which add greatly to the already considerable scenic beauty of the western hill country. There has hence grown up an important tourist trade, centred in the small hill villages, some of which have casinos, luxury hotels, and cinemas. Main activity is during the summer months, when wealthy Middle Easterners and others arrive, but there is a smaller winter sports season, when skiing is carried on.

In addition, the geographical situation of the Lebanon, as a "fadde" to the inland territories of Syria, Jordan, and even northern Iraq and southern Turkey, enables the

Lebanese ports to act as the commercial outlet for a very wide region. The importance of Beirut as a commercial centre is due in large part to the fact that the Lebanon is a free market. Over half of the volume of Lebanese trade is transit traffic, and the Lebanon handles most of the trade of Jordan. Her own exports are mostly agricultural products. Byblos claims to be the oldest port in the world; Tyre and Sidon were for long world-famous, and the latter is now reviving as the Mediterranean terminal of the Tapline (Trans-Arabian Pipe Line) from Saudi Arabia. Another ancient centre, Tripoli, is also a terminal of the I.P.C. pipeline from Iraq. Beirut is now however the leading town of the country, and contains one-quarter of the total population. Though local resources are not in general very great (there are no minerals or important raw materials in the Lebanon) the city lives by commercial activity on a surprising scale, developed by the ingenuity and opportunism of its merchant class. The opening in 1951 of a commercial airport designed for jet airliners, before any such aircraft were actually in use in the world, is typical of the forward-looking attitude of many Lebanese.

Beirut has of recent years come to serve as a financial and holiday centre for the less attractive but oil rich parts of the Middle East. Transfer of financial credit from the Middle East to Zürich, Paris, London, New York and Tokyo; a trade in gold and diamonds; and some connexion with the narcotic trade of the Middle East—all these give the city a very special function. In addition, the town provides discreet distraction for all types of visitor.

HISTORY

ANCIENT AND MEDIEVAL HISTORY

In the Ancient World the Lebanon was important for its pine, fir, and cedarwood, which neighbouring powers, poorly supplied with timber resources, coveted so much that during the long period of Egyptian, Assyrian, Persian, and Seleucid rule, the exploitation of the forests of the Lebanon was normally a royal privilege. The area was also mined for its iron and copper in the time of the Ptolemies and the Romans. Gradually the Lebanon came to have a distinct history of its own, for the mountainous character of the region prevented any complete subjugation to outside authority. It is probable that the Arab conquest of Syria did not include the "mountain", to which fled all those who, for one reason or another, were opposed to the Arab domination. The Caliph Mu'awiya (661-80) made some effort to assert a greater control, but the resistance of the native Aramaean Christians was reinforced by the arrival of the Mardaites from the fastnesses of the Taurus and the Amanus. These Christian nomads, led by Byzantine officers, made determined advances into the Lebanon, late in the seventh century, and seem to have united with the Maronite Christians who were later to become a Uniate Church of the Roman communion and to have a predominant role in the history of the Lebanon. The Caliph Abd al-Malik (685-705) paid tribute to Byzantium in return for a withdrawal of most of the Mardaite forces; but it is clear that the "mountain" had begun to assume its historic function of providing a sure refuge for racial and religious minorities.

The Lebanon maintained its Christian character until the ninth century when, amongst other elements, the Arab tribe of Tanukh established a principality in the region of al-Gharb, near Beirut, and acted as a counterpoise to the Maronites of the North Lebanon, and as a bulwark against

RACE AND LANGUAGE

It is difficult to summarise the racial affinities of the Lebanese people. The western lowlands have an extremely mixed population possibly describable only as "Levantine". Basically Mediterranean, there are many other elements, including remarkably fair individuals—Arabs with blonde hair and grey eyes, who are possibly descendants of the Crusaders. The remaining parts of the country show a more decided Armenoid tendency, with darker colouring, broader head-form, and more pronounced facial features. In addition, small refugee groups, who came to the more inaccessible mountain zones in order to escape persecution, often have a different racial ancestry, so that parts of the Lebanon form a mosaic of varying racial and cultural elements. Almost all Middle Eastern countries are represented racially within the Lebanon.

Arabic is current over the whole country, but owing to the high level of education (probably the highest in any Middle Eastern country) and to the considerable volume of temporary emigration, English, French and even Spanish are widely understood. French is probably still the leading European language (though English is tending to replace it) and some of the higher schools and one university teach basically in this language. In addition, Aramaic is used by some religious sects, but only for ritual—there are no Aramaic speaking villages as in Syria.

Byzantine threats from the sea. Gradually, Islam and, more slowly still, the Arabic language penetrated the "mountain" where, however, Syriac lingered on in the Maronite districts until the seventeenth century (it is still spoken in three villages of the Anti-Lebanon). In the ninth and tenth centuries Muslim sects began to take root in the "mountain" as, for example, the Shi'i, known in the Lebanon under the name of Mitwali and, in the eleventh century, the Druse faith, which won a firm hold in the South Lebanon.

The Crusaders established in this area the County of Tripolis and the lordships of Gibelet and Batron which enjoyed considerable support from the Christian population of the North Lebanon and were protected by a network of fortresses, the most famous of which is Hisn al-Akrad (Crac des Chevaliers). In the Mamluk period the rulers of the Lebanon continued to practise the art of political manoeuvring, thus maintaining for themselves a considerable degree of autonomy. The Tanukhid Amirs, after a long period in which they had played off the Crusaders against the Muslim amirates, had eventually taken the Mamluk side. In the North Lebanon the Maronites, under their bishop, maintained contact with the Italian Republics and also with the Roman Curia. Less fortunate were the Druses and the Mitwali who, in the last years of the thirteenth century, took advantage of the Mamluk preoccupation with the Mongol threat from Persia and began a protracted revolt which led to widespread devastation in the Central Lebanon.

THE OTTOMAN PERIOD

In the sixteenth century the Turcoman family of Assaf and, after them, the Banu Saifa rose to prominence in the area from Beirut to the north of Tripoli; while in the south the Druse house of Ma'an supplanted the Tanukhid amirs.

After the conquest of 1516-17, the Ottoman Sultan Selim I had confirmed the amirs of the Lebanon in their privileges and had imposed only a small tribute yet not infrequently there was open conflict with the Ottomans, as in 1584-5 when, after an attack on a convoy bearing the tribute from Egypt to Constantinople, the Sultan Murad III sent a punitive expedition to ravage the lands of the Banu Saïfa and of the Druses.

The power of the House of Ma'an now reached its zenith in the person of Fakhr ad din II (1586-1635), who by every possible means—bribery, intrigue, foreign alliance and open force—set out to establish an independent power over the whole of the Lebanon and parts of Palestine to the south. To this end he entered into close relations with the Grand Duke of Tuscany, negotiating in 1603 a commercial agreement which contained a secret military clause directed against the Sultan. In 1613 a naval and military expedition sent from the Porte compelled Fakhr ad-din to seek refuge with his Tuscan ally; but, returning in 1618, he rapidly restored his power and within a few years was virtual ruler from Aleppo to the borders of Egypt. The Sultan, heavily engaged in repressing revolt in Anatolia, and in waging a long struggle with Persia, could do no more than recognise the *fait accompli*. Fakhr ad-din now embarked on an ambitious programme of development for the Lebanon. He sought to equip a standing army with arms imported from Tuscany. Italian engineers and agricultural experts were employed to promote a better cultivation of the land and to increase the production of silk and olives. The Christian peasantry were encouraged to move from the North to the South. Lebanon Beirut and Sidon flourished as a result of the favour he showed to commerce, and religious missions from Europe—Capuchins, Jesuits, Carmelites—were allowed to settle throughout Syria, a development of great importance for France which strove to assert a 'protectorate' over all the Catholic and other Christian elements in the Ottoman Empire. However, the ambitions of Fakhr ad-din were doomed to failure when by 1632 the Sultan Murad IV assumed effective control at Constantinople. The Pasha of Damascus supported by a naval squadron began a campaign to end the independent power of the Lebanon, and in 1635 Fakhr ad-din was executed at Constantinople.

In 1697, the Ma'an family became extinct, and was succeeded by the House of Shihab, which maintained its predominance until 1840. In the course of the eighteenth century, the Shihab Amirs gradually consolidated their position against the other factions of the 'Mountain' and for a while recovered control of Beirut. While normally they took care to remain on good terms with the Turkish Pashas of Tripoli, Sidon and Damascus, the Pashas, for their part strove to exercise an indirect control by fomenting the family rivalries and religious differences which always marked the course of Lebanese politics. With the advent of Bashir II (1788-1840) the House of Shihab attained the height of its influence. Not until the death of Ahmed Jazzar Pasha of Acre (1804), was he free to develop his power, which he maintained by the traditional methods of playing off one Pasha against the other, and by bribing the officials of the Porte whenever it seemed expedient. In 1810 he helped the Ottomans to repel an invasion by the Wahhabi power of Arabia, but in 1831 he sided openly with Muhammad Ali of Egypt, when that ruler invaded Syria. Holding the Lebanon as the vassal of Egypt, he was compelled, however, to apply to the 'Mountains' the unpopular policy imposed by Ibrahim Pasha, the son of Muhammad Ali, with the result that a revolt broke out, which after the Egyptian withdrawal of 1840, led to his exile. The age of the Lebanese Amirs was now at an end, for the Ottomans assumed control of the 'Mountain', appointing two *Kaimakams* to rule there: one Druse and

the other Maronite, under the supervision of the Pashas of Sidon and Beirut.

The period of direct Ottoman rule saw the rapid growth, between the Druses and the Maronites, of a mistrust already visible during the time of the Egyptian dominance, and now fostered by the Ottomans as the only means of maintaining their influence over the Lebanon. As a result of social and economic discontent, due to the slow disintegration of the old feudal system which had existed in the Lebanon since the Middle Ages, the Maronite peasantry revolted in 1858 and destroyed the feudal privileges of the Maronite aristocracy, thus clearing the way for the creation of a system of independent smallholdings. The Druse aristocracy, fearing the consequences of a similar discontent among their own Maronite peasantry, made a series of attacks on the Maronites of the North Lebanon who, owing to their own dissensions, could offer no effective resistance. The dubious attitude of the Turkish Pashas in the face of these massacres of 1860, led to French intervention, and in 1864 to the formation of an organic statute for the Lebanon, which was now to become an autonomous province under a non-Lebanese Ottoman Christian governor, appointed by the Sultan and approved by the Great Powers. He was to be aided by an elected administrative council and a locally recruited police force. The statute also abolished legal feudalism in the area, thus consolidating the position won by the Maronite peasantry in 1858. The period from 1864 to 1914 was one of increasing prosperity, especially among the Christian elements, who also played an important role in the revival of Arab literature and Arab national feeling during the last years of the nineteenth century.

THE FRENCH MANDATE

The privileged position of the Lebanon ended when the Turks entered the war of 1914-18, and by 1918 the coastal areas of the Lebanon were occupied by British and French forces. In September 1920 the French created the State of the Greater Lebanon which included not only the former autonomous province but also Tripoli, Sidon, Tyre and Beirut, some of which had in earlier times been under the control of the amirs of the Lebanon. The period from 1920-36 was for the Lebanon one of peaceful progress. A constitution was devised in 1926, which proved unworkable and was suspended in 1932, from which time the President of the Republic carried on the administration. He was, by convention, a Christian, while the Prime Minister was a Muslim, and both worked towards the achievement of a careful balance between the various religious communities of the new State. The Lebanon was not unaffected by the growth of the nationalist movement in Syria, some sections of which demanded the reduction of the Lebanon to its pre-war limits and even the abolition of its existence as a separate State. These demands found some support amongst the Sunni Muslims of the areas added to the Lebanon proper in 1920, with the result that the Syrian revolt of 1925-26 spread to parts of the southern Lebanon. The Maronite Christians on the whole supported the idea of a separate Lebanon but were not united in their attitude towards France on the one hand, and the Arab States on the other. The Franco-Lebanese Treaty of 1936 differed little from that which France negotiated at the same time with Syria, the chief difference being that the military convention gave France wider military powers in the Lebanon than in Syria. A reformed constitution was promulgated in 1937, but the French refusal to ratify the treaty in 1938, and the advent of war prolonged a situation which, if outwardly calm, concealed a considerable discontent beneath the surface. In November 1941 the Free French Commander, General Catroux, formally proclaimed the Lebanon a sovereign independent State. In September

1943 a new Parliament which had a strong nationalist majority soon came into conflict with the French authorities over the transfer of the administrative services. When, in November 1943, the Lebanese Government insisted on passing legislation which removed from the constitution all provisions considered to be inconsistent with the independence of the Lebanon, the French Delegate-General arrested the President and suspended the constitution. The other Arab States, together with Great Britain and America, supported the Lebanese demands and in 1944 France began to transfer to Lebanese control all important public services, save for the *Troupes Spéciales*, i.e. local levies under French command, whose transfer the French authorities at first made conditional on the signing of a Franco-Lebanese Treaty. But in 1945 the *Troupes Spéciales* were handed over to the Lebanon without such conditions, and an agreement between France and the Lebanese Government in 1946 provided for the withdrawal of French troops.

MODERN HISTORY

Since 1946 the Lebanon has continued to view with great reserve all projects for a Greater Syria, or for the union of Syria and Iraq; and has striven to maintain a neutral role in those disputes which have rendered the unity of the Arab League largely illusory. Like the other Arab States, the Lebanon was at war with the new State of Israel from May 1948; but negotiated an armistice in March 1949. Just as in Syria the ill-success of the Arab arms had led eventually to the *coup d'état* of March 1949, so in the Lebanon the widespread disillusionment of Arab nationalist hopes prepared the ground for a conspiracy against the Government. This conspiracy was easily suppressed in June 1949 and its leader, Antun Sa'ade, was executed in July.

In internal affairs, the Lebanese Government has had to face considerable economic and financial difficulties since the end of the 1939-45 war. When, in January 1948, France devalued the franc (to which both the Lebanese and the Syrian currencies were linked) the Lebanon, economically weaker than Syria, felt obliged to sign a new agreement with France (February 1948). Syria refused to do so and began a long and complicated dispute with the Lebanon over the precise nature of the economic and financial arrangements which were to exist between the two States. In March 1950 the Lebanese Government refused a Syrian demand for full economic and financial union between Syria and the Lebanon. The severance of economic relations which now ensued did not end until the signing, in February 1952, of an agreement which arranged for the division of royalties due from oil companies, and for the status, for customs purposes, of agricultural and industrial products passing between the two states.

In recent years American influence has increased in the Lebanon as in the other states of the Middle East and the Lebanon now receives considerable revenues from the oil companies whose pipe-lines bring the oil of Iraq and Saudi Arabia through Lebanese territory. Negotiations with the oil companies, in the spring of 1952, foreshadowed an increase in such revenues. Pro-Russian influences have also been at work in various forms but have so far met with no real success.

In September 1952 the Lebanon had to face a severe crisis in her internal affairs. Political and economic unrest brought about the fall of the Lebanese Government and the resignation of President al-Khuri, who had held office since 1943. Charges of corruption were made against the President. During his long tenure of power he had indeed used all the arts of political influence and manoeuvre in order to impose a real degree of unity on a state where the divergent interests of Maronites, Sunni and Shi'i Muslims,

Druses, and other religious communities underlined the need for firm and coherent rule.

To an even greater degree, however, the crisis was due to causes of an economic order. The Lebanon had attained its independence in the period of war-time prosperity. The end of the war meant a progressive diminution of foreign expenditure in the Lebanon, e.g., by the French and British forces stationed there, and the gradual disappearance of war shortages which had favoured Lebanese trade. The devaluation of the French franc, the unsuccessful war with Israel, and above all the economic rupture with Syria gave rise to further difficulties. The break with Syria hit the Lebanon hard, for Syria was the chief provider of agricultural goods to the Lebanon and the chief customer for Lebanese industrial products. The effect of these developments was the more serious in that the Lebanon has a permanent adverse balance of trade, her annual deficit being largely covered by the revenues accruing to her from a wide variety of financial, commercial and transit services and by royalties paid to her by the oil companies. By 1952 there was much discontent arising from the high cost of living and from considerable unemployment. It was in fact a loose coalition of all the elements of opposition, both political and economic, which brought about the fall of the al-Khuri régime.

CONSTITUTIONAL REFORM

As a result of the crisis Camille Chamoun became the new President of the Republic. The new administration, with the Amir Khalid Chehab as Prime Minister, bound itself to introduce reforms, including changes in the electoral laws, the grant of the vote to women, revision of the Press laws and the reorganization of justice. The elections held in July 1953 led to the formation of a Chamber of Deputies, 44 in number and divided as follows: 13 Maronites, 9 Sunni Muslims, 8 Shi'i Muslims, 5 Orthodox Christians, 3 Greek Catholics, 3 Druses, 2 Orthodox Armenians and one member for other minorities.

Negotiations between Syria and the Lebanon over common economic problems continued throughout these years. The agreement of February 1952 had been prolonged for a period of one year. This agreement was renewed for a further six months in February 1953 and again for a similar period in August 1953. No final settlement, however, appears to be in sight as yet.

The elections held in the Lebanon during the summer of 1953 were carried out under the provisions of the electoral law of November 1952. Since the foundation of the republic, all seats in the Chamber of Deputies had been distributed among the various religious communities in proportion to their numerical strength. Parliament was thus an institution reflecting in itself the religious and social structure of the state and capable of harmonious function, provided that the electoral system which maintained a delicate balance between the communities suffered no violent and prejudicial change. At the same time, it contained a strong "feudal" element—the tribal and religious leaders who, with their trusted retainers, formed powerful groups within the Parliament and were often criticised as being "anti-national" in their aims and methods. To end or at least weaken this "feudalisation" of Lebanese political life, without, however, impairing the vital equilibrium between the Muslim and Christian communities, had long been the purpose of those who advocated a reasonable and well-considered policy of reform. The law of 1952 created 33 electoral districts (during the previous life of the republic the number had been, as a rule, five) and allotted to eleven of them two seats, and to the remainder one seat each. Of the sum-total of 44 seats the Maronites were now to receive 13, the Sunni Muslims 9, the Shi'i Muslims 8, the

Greek Orthodox Christians 5, the Druses 3, the Greek Catholics 3, the Armenian Catholics 2 and the other confessions (Protestant, Jewish, Nestorian, etc.) 1 seat. The election of 1953 did in fact bring defeat to some of the Shi'ite lords of the south. It would seem, however, that something more than electoral reform will be needed, if the "feudal" aspects of the present régime are to be eliminated. In the course of time such a change might perhaps come about through the growth of well-organized political parties which cut across confessional lines. None the less it remains an open question whether a government more "national" in character would succeed in preserving Lebanese unity and concord as well as the old order, grounded in the traditions of the past, has so far been able to do.

FOREIGN RELATIONS 1953-58

In the period 1953-56 financial and economic relations with Syria remained on a provisional basis much the same as that which had prevailed in the years 1950-53, earlier short term arrangements being renewed from time to time, as need arose. Discussions with Syria in November 1953 over problems of currency, loan policy, banks and exchange difficulties made no effective progress. The Lebanese Government was more successful, however, in its efforts to promote internal development. It was announced in August 1953 that the International Bank had granted to the Lebanon a loan of 27 million dollars for the Litani river scheme which when completed, was expected to more than double the electric power available within the republic and also to irrigate a large acreage in the coastal region. The Lebanon signed a number of commercial treaties at this time which bore witness to the growing penetration of Soviet influence into the Arab lands. With Russia itself in April 1954, with eastern Germany in November 1955, with Communist China in December 1955 and with Poland in January 1956.

At the Asian African conference held at Bandung in April 1955 the Lebanese delegates expressed themselves in terms unfavourable to Communism. Since that time the Beirut government has not allowed its relations with Russia and her allies to pass beyond the limits of normal commercial intercourse. In regard to the Baghdad Pact, concluded between Iraq and the Turkish Republic in February 1955, the Lebanon adopted a neutral attitude. When, in March 1955, Egypt, supported by Saudi Arabia and (although with some hesitation) by Syria, attempted to form an alliance of Arab states from which Iraq was to be excluded, the Lebanese Government declined to enter into the proposed scheme, but also assured Cairo that it did not intend to join the Baghdad Pact. Its efforts were in fact directed, and not unsuccessfully, towards allaying, at least for the immediate future, the sharp tension then existing between Egypt and Iraq. Moreover, as the visit of President Chamoun to Ankara at the end of March, and the return visit of President Bayar to Beirut in June revealed, the Lebanon, while anxious not to compromise the cause of Arab unity, saw no reason to avoid diplomatic endeavours which might bring about more amicable relations between the Turkish Republic and the Arab world.

In the winter of 1955/56 the Lebanon discussed with Syria the possibilities of a defence pact between the two countries. The talks were broken off, however, in January 1956. The Lebanon wanted the proposed agreement to be local in its scope, whereas Syria desired it to have wider international implications. Moreover, the Lebanese Government insisted on direct control of such Syrian troops as might be sent into the Lebanon in case of need and on the stipulation that the pact itself should be operative only in time of war. The Foreign Minister of the Lebanon visited Saudi Arabia in February. The two states reaffirmed their decision not to join the Baghdad

Pact and also resolved to work for a solution of the Palestine problem and for the furtherance of Arab unity and progress. In the same month a Soviet technical mission arrived at Beirut; its role was stated, however, to be purely consultative in character. The Foreign Minister of the U.S.S.R. came to the Lebanon in June. According to reports issued at the time, his visit led to an exchange of views and to an offer of Soviet economic assistance to the Lebanon. It was announced, also in June, that the U.S.A. had decided to furnish the Lebanon with financial aid, amounting to 3,670,000 dollars, for the improvement of the international airport at Beirut and of communications between the Lebanon and Syria.

The Lebanese Government had entered into negotiation with the Iraq Petroleum Co. in regard to an increase of the royalties paid on oil passing through the Lebanon to the Mediterranean coast. No agreement could be reached, however, and the talks were broken off in January 1956, an event which led Iraq to offer her mediation in the dispute. The Iraq Petroleum Co. stated that, in the circumstances, it might not be able to continue with its plans for increasing the flow of oil to Lebanese ports. A renewed offer of mediation came from Baghdad in April, but achieved no effective result. The Lebanon now passed a law imposing taxes, retrospective to the beginning of 1952, on oil companies which operated pipelines through her territories. Although the Lebanese Government expressed its readiness to resume negotiations, the Iraq Petroleum Co. stated in October that its decision to build a new pipeline to the Syrian port of Banyas instead of to the Lebanese port of Tripoli was final.

THE EISENHOWER DOCTRINE

A state of emergency was declared in the Lebanon during the Sinai Suez crisis at the end of October 1956. The Chamber of Deputies announced its support of Egypt, but the Lebanon did not break off diplomatic relations with Great Britain and France. In November there were disturbances, however, at Tripoli and Beirut against the attitude of the government. Reports issued at this time intimated that the Egyptian military attaché at Beirut had been implicated in the recent disorders. The "Eisenhower Doctrine", a new programme, made known in January 1957, of financial, economic and military aid by the United States to those countries of the Middle East which were prepared to accept it, evoked a favourable response in Lebanese official circles. The Foreign Minister of the Lebanon declared that the government was willing to collaborate closely with the U.S.A. in the implementation of the programme. During the visit to Beirut in March of Mr. Richards, special adviser to President Eisenhower on Middle Eastern affairs, it was announced that the Lebanon would co-operate with the United States in the task of opposing the growth of Communist influence in the area and would receive, under the new programme, assistance to the amount of some 20 million dollars. The United States was also to help in the strengthening of the Lebanese armed forces. Some of the political groups in the Lebanon protested against this pro-Western alignment, asserting that it could not fail to isolate the Lebanon from the other Arab states and thus impair Arab solidarity. None the less, in April, the government obtained from the Chamber of Deputies a vote of confidence in its policies.

The problem of electoral reform had been under consideration in the Lebanon in the course of 1956. The main proposal now to be given effect was that the number of seats in the Chamber of Deputies should be raised from 44 to 66. As election time drew near in the summer of 1957, riots occurred at Beirut, the government being compelled to call out troops for the maintenance of order. According to reports current at this time more than one hundred

Communists were arrested for their share in the disturbances. The tense electoral campaign of June 1957 was fought out between two blocs, the one supporting the government, the other opposing it in the form of a United National Front. When the election results were made known, it became clear that the government had won a marked triumph. A first provisional estimate suggested that it might count on the adherence of some three-quarters of the deputies in the new Chamber. Of the sum-total of 66 seats the Maronites now received 20, the Sunni Muslims 14, the Shi'i Muslims 12, the Greek Orthodox Christians 7, the Druses 4, the Greek Catholics 4, the Orthodox Armenians 3, the Armenian Catholics 1 and the other religious minorities (Protestants, Jews, etc.) also 1 seat.

It was announced in July 1957 that the Lebanon would receive from the United States, under the Eisenhower Doctrine, economic and military aid to the value of approximately 15 million dollars in the course of the fiscal year 1958. Military equipment granted under the Doctrine had in fact begun to reach Beirut in June 1957. The Lebanese Government reiterated in August 1957 its firm desire to continue co-operation with the United States. In October, the King of Saudi Arabia and, in December, the Shah of Iran, visited Beirut, communiqués being issued, of which the first pledged Saudi Arabia and the Lebanon to support of the Arab cause, while the second gave assurances that both Iran and the Lebanon would work for peace in the Middle East.

There had been sharp disturbances in the Lebanon at the time of the elections held in June 1957. It became clear that unrest, especially amongst those elements of the population which opposed the pro-Western policies of the Lebanese Government and favoured an alignment with Egypt and Syria, was in no wise dead, when further incidents (bomb outrages, assassinations) occurred in November 1957. The government, in its desire to halt these subversive activities, now imposed a close control over all Palestine refugees in the Lebanon. Indeed, after renewed outbreaks of violence in December, the northern area of the Lebanon was declared to be a military sector. It was also announced in January 1958 that a national guard would be formed for the protection of important installations.

The Lebanese Government stated in March 1958 that it would not join the United Arab Republic (Egypt and Syria), the Arab Federation (Iraq and Jordan) or indeed any association which might limit its own independence and sovereignty. Large sections of the Muslim population, both in the north (at Tripoli) and in the south (at Tyre and Sidon), were inclined to be pro-Arab rather than pro-Lebanese in sentiment—a mood greatly stimulated by the emergence of the new United Arab Republic and by the propaganda emitted from Cairo and Damascus for the return to Syria of those predominantly Muslim areas which had been joined to the old Lebanon in the time of the French Mandate. There was conflict, too, between those who, although reluctant to see the Lebanon lose its separate political existence, were none the less strongly opposed to the pro-Western attitude of the Lebanese Government and those who, fearing the possible absorption of the Lebanon into the framework of a larger Arab state, felt themselves bound to support fully the policies of the Beirut régime. The danger was real that these complex tensions might explode in the form of a "confessional" conflict between Muslims and Christians, in which, if not the continued independence, than at least the entire political orientation of the Lebanon would be at stake.

THE CRISIS OF 1958

A reorganization of the government, carried out in March 1958 and designed to remove certain members who

were critical of the pro-Western policies of the Lebanon and favoured closer co-operation with the United Arab Republic, brought no relief to the grave situation then developing. Serious disturbances, originating in Tripoli and the northern areas adjacent to the Syrian border, broke out in the second week of May and spread rapidly to Beirut and also to Tyre and Sidon in the southern Lebanon. The Druze population in the south-east was involved, too, in the disorders, being sharply divided into pro- and anti-government factions. Hostile demonstrations led to the destruction of the United States Information Service centres at Tripoli and Beirut. At the request of the Lebanese Government, the United States agreed to dispatch in all haste supplies of arms and police equipment and decided at the same time to reinforce the American 6th Fleet stationed in the Mediterranean. The U.S.S.R. now accused the United States of interference in Lebanese affairs and declared that Western intervention might have grave consequences. The Lebanese Government itself charged the United Arab Republic with interference in its internal affairs and appealed for redress to the Arab League which, meeting at Benghazi in June, failed to agree on a course of action. The problem was now brought before the United Nations which resolved to send an Observer Corps to the Lebanon. The Secretary General of U.N.O., Dr. Hammarskjöld, also visited the Middle East, conferring both with leaders in the Lebanon and with President Nasser at Cairo.

The Lebanese Government was now, in fact, confronted with a widespread insurrection, in which the Muslim elements in the population were ranged against the Christian elements. The forces opposed to the existing régime controlled parts of Beirut, Tripoli and Sidon, as well as large areas in the north and the south of the Lebanon. Attempts to negotiate a settlement led to no favourable result. The Prime Minister, Sami al-Sulh, gave an assurance that President Chamoun did not intend to ask for a constitutional amendment which would enable him to seek re-election to his office in September 1958, the date when his present tenure of it was due to end. To this assurance the leaders of the insurrection replied with a firm demand for the immediate resignation of the President, who made it clear, however, that he would not relinquish his office until September.

On July 14th—the date of the *coup d'état* which led to a change of régime in Iraq—President Chamoun requested the United States to send American troops into the Lebanon with a view to the maintenance of security and the preservation of Lebanese independence. By July 20th, some 10,000 men of the United States forces were stationed in and around Beirut. Meanwhile, Mr. Robert Murphy of the American State Department had come to the Lebanon with the aim of discussing the situation with leaders of both sides in the conflict. The United States also made it known that action on the part of forces under the control of the United Arab Republic against American troops in the Lebanon might lead to most serious consequences. At this juncture, the U.S.S.R. and the Chinese People's Republic made strong protests against the American intervention and asked for the prompt withdrawal of the United States forces landed in the Lebanon. In August 1958, the General Assembly of the United Nations met to discuss the problem. On August 18th, the United States gave a written undertaking to withdraw its troops, either at the request of the Lebanese Government, or in the event that the United Nations took appropriate measures to ensure the integrity and peace of the country. The General Assembly thereupon adopted a resolution, framed by its Arab members, which provided for the evacuation of American troops under the auspices of the United Nations and of the Arab League.

PRESIDENT CHEHAB, 1958-64

Meanwhile, the Lebanese Chamber of Deputies had, on July 31st elected as the new President of State General Fuad Chehab the Commander-in-Chief of the Lebanese Army—a choice supported by members from both sides involved in the internal conflict. He assumed office on September 23rd, in succession to President Chamoun and at once invited Rashid Karami the leader of the insurgents at Tripoli, to become Prime Minister. An agreement was made on September 27th to the effect that the United States forces were to leave the Lebanon by the end of October.

It seemed for a time, however, that a new period of violence was about to begin. There was much resentment amongst the Christian elements of the population and, above all, the adherents of the former régime, that General Chehab should have chosen one of the most notable leaders in the insurrection as Prime Minister. On September 25th the National Liberal, Falangist and National Bloc parties formed around ex-President Chamoun a united opposition, with a view to refusing the new government a vote of confidence. At the end of September and in the beginning of October, spasmodic clashes occurred at Beirut and Tripoli. The danger of a fresh conflict with the roles of the former opponents now reversed, was in the end avoided through the formation, on October 13th, of a new Cabinet representing in equal proportions the two sides in the recent conflict. Of the four ministers who constituted this Cabinet, two were Muslim and two were Christian. On October 17th the Chamber of Deputies gave a vote of confidence to the Prime Minister, Rashid Karami, and the three other members of the Cabinet.

On January 14th 1959 the Lebanon gave official recognition to the "Provisional Algerian Government" located in Cairo. An inter Arab conference, held at Damascus and attended by delegates from the Lebanon, Jordan, the United Arab Republic and Saudi Arabia came to an end on February 16th, 1959. It resulted in the settlement of various differences between the Lebanon and the Syrian region of the U.A.R. The conference also took measures to facilitate freedom of transit traffic between the states represented in its deliberations. A meeting (March 25th, 1959) on the Syrian-Lebanese frontier between President Nasser and President Chehab assisted towards an improvement in the relations between the United Arab Republic and the Lebanon.

In October 1959 the Lebanese Cabinet was increased from four to eight members, so that greater representation might be given to the various political groups. The Chamber of Deputies approved in April 1960 an Electoral Reform Bill, which imposed for the first time the principle of the secret ballot in Lebanese elections and also enlarged the Chamber itself from 66 to 99 deputies—a total figure that maintained the existing ratio (laid down in 1913) of six Christian to every five Muslim (including Druse) deputies in the Chamber. The Chamber was dissolved by the President of the Lebanon on May 3th, 1960, the government of Mr Rashid Karami resigning nine days later. A general election was then held in four separate stages on June 12th, 19th and 26th and July 3rd, 1960.

The election took place in an atmosphere of complete calm, strict security measures being enforced throughout the various stages of the electoral process. In the new Chamber of Deputies there were 30 Maronite Christians, 20 Sunni Muslims, 19 Shi'i Muslims, 11 Greek Orthodox Christians, 6 Greek Catholics, 6 Druses, 4 Armenian Orthodox Christians, 1 Armenian Catholic, 1 Protestant and 1 member representing other elements. A large number of the 'rebel' personalities prominent in the events of 1958 and hitherto not seated in the Chamber were now returned as members. Of the Deputies who had formed the

previous Chamber 31 (out of 66) retained their seats. Some of the traditional 'feudal' notabilities also recovered their places in the Chamber.

President Chehab announced on July 20th 1960, that he intended to resign his office. He was persuaded, however, to reverse his decision. A new government, under the leadership of Mr Saib Salam, took the oath of office on August 2nd, 1960. The Cabinet which included several personalities active on one side or the other in the troubles of 1958, was prompt to re-affirm the traditional policies of the Lebanon in the field of economic affairs—policies of non-expropriation, of minimal government intervention in private enterprise, of encouragement for private investment both foreign and domestic, and of currency convertibility. Economic trends during 1960 revealed that the Lebanon had recovered almost completely from the effect of the disturbances in 1958. One adverse development of considerable importance involved the Litani River project, work on which, begun in 1959, came to a standstill as a result of major technical difficulties. A French firm was invited in December 1960 to re-examine the Litani scheme, to analyse the existing situation and to prepare a plan of future action.

The Lebanon, during 1961, had to face complaints from the United Arab Republic to the effect that some of the numerous exiles who had fled from Syria, between 1949 and 1958, to find refuge in the Lebanon were sharing, as volunteers and as mercenaries, in guerrilla and sabotage attacks emanating from Jordan against Syria—the tension between these two states during the first three months of the year was indeed rather acute. The U.A.R. made a number of sharp protests against this exploitation of the Syrian exiles living in the Lebanon. To the Lebanese government, ever inclined to remain neutral in the face of inter-Arab disputes and anxious to ensure normal relations with Syria, involvement in the friction between Syria and Jordan was most unwelcome. A private meeting of Mr Saib Salam, Prime Minister of the Lebanon, with President Nasser of the U.A.R. at Damascus on March 5th, 1961, helped to ease the animosities of the preceding months.

CABINET REFORM

It had come to be felt, since August 1960, that the Lebanese Cabinet, 18 members strong was too large for the maintenance of an efficient administration. Internal dissension, having weakened the Cabinet for some time past, brought about a crisis leading to the resignation of six ministers on May 9-10th, 1961. On May 22nd the Prime Minister established a new Cabinet consisting of eight ministers only. Mr Salam, as the result of a dispute with some members of his government, notable amongst them being Mr Jumblatt, the Druse leader, who was Minister of Works and Planning, resigned his office on October 24th, 1961. Mr Rashid Karami, a former Prime Minister, formed a new government on October 31st, 1961.

Military elements, acting in conjunction with civilians described as supporters of the extremist National Social Party, made an unsuccessful attempt, on December 31st 1961, to overthrow the Lebanese government. The National Social Party was in fact the old Parti Populaire Syrien founded in the 1930s by Antoine Saadé with the aim of uniting several Arab States into a Greater Syria. Its present leader, Dr Abdallah Saadé, was now arrested and the party itself dissolved by the Lebanese government on January 1st, 1962. The rebels, failing in their purpose, fled towards the Metn region in the hope of finding assistance there, the National Social Party having enjoyed considerable favour in that area. The Lebanese government took firm action against all the elements suspected of implication in the revolt. Military operations continued throughout the first days of January 1962. By January 10th, the

rebellion was over save for a few remnants of rebel resistance still to be found in the Akkar and Hermel mountains.

EXTERNAL AGREEMENTS

In February 1962 the Lebanese Government entered into an agreement with the Tunisian Government envisaging co-operation between the two states in the fields of educational, cultural and technical assistance. During the course of April, May and June 1962 the Lebanon also concluded a number of agreements with the United Arab Republic, i.e. with Egypt—agreements for the exchange of programmes and for technical co-operation in the field of television, for the import into Egypt of Lebanese-grown fruits, and for various adjustments in the current trade and payments system existing between the two countries.

The dispute, now six years old, over payments connected with the pipelines passing oil through the Lebanon to the Mediterranean coast was at last brought to an end. At Beirut in August 1962 a settlement was made between the Lebanese Government and the Trans-Arabian Pipeline Company (Tapline), an American organization. In return for facilities relating to the transit of oil, to the loading of the oil and to the security of the pipelines the Lebanon was to receive about \$4,500,000 (as against \$1,250,000 under earlier agreements). The new and higher rate of payment included a sum of \$500,000 in lieu of supplies of oil at reduced prices which Tapline had undertaken to make available to the national oil refineries in Syria and Jordan—the Lebanon itself does not possess such oil refineries. Tapline also promised to pay the sum of \$12,500,000 in settlement of all past claims made by the Lebanese Government. Of this latter amount \$865,000, together with a portion of the new payments to be made to the Lebanon in respect of facilities for the loading of oil would be withheld until the full implications of a former agreement between the Lebanon and Syria had been made clear, such agreement having envisaged that whatever advantage the Lebanon might obtain in its relations with Tapline should be shared with Syria.

In the second half of 1962, the Lebanese Government made commercial and economic agreements with several of the newly established states in Africa. A joint communiqué issued at Beirut of October 6th, 1962, after talks between representatives of the Lebanon and the Niger, pointed towards a trade and cultural agreement. On October 19th the Lebanese government entered into a most-favoured-nation trade agreement with Cameroon. The Lebanon also signed a technical agreement, under the terms of which it would provide the Cameroon with industrial and agricultural experts. A cultural accord was negotiated at the same time between the two states. After discussions held at Beirut on November 21st-27th, 1962, the Lebanese government concluded agreements for technical, commercial and cultural co-operation with Guinea, measures being taken to provide vocational training and also scholarships for Guinea students in the Lebanon. On May 2nd-13th, 1963, a conference of Lebanese diplomats in Africa was held at Dakar. A number of questions was discussed at the conference, amongst them the emigration of Arab nationals to the African states, the attainment of fuller economic co-operation with the new governments in Africa, and the creation of Lebanese cultural centres (with libraries) in the main African capitals. The Lebanon also negotiated with Senegal, May, 1963, an agreement for the fostering of commercial, economic and financial co-operation between the two countries. In December, 1962, the Lebanese government concluded with the United Nations Special Fund and the UN Food and Agriculture Organization a convention relating to a five-year development plan for the mountainous areas of the Lebanon.

During the course of 1963 the government negotiated new economic and commercial agreements with Poland (April), the German Federal Republic (May), Sweden (October), and the U.S.S.R. (November). Syria and Lebanon agreed in September to ease restrictions in travel, employment, trade and finance between their respective territories and also reached an understanding in regard to their protracted dispute over the sharing of oil-transit dues. A brief period of sharp tension ensued, however, during the second half of October, as the result of a frontier clash between Syrian and Lebanese troops, which led to the death of several Lebanese soldiers. Syrian and Lebanese delegations met in January, 1964, to discuss questions relating to their common frontier and in particular the delimitation of certain areas hitherto not clearly demarcated.

On February 19th, 1964, the Cabinet led by M. Rashid Karami (which had held office for the last two years) resigned, after President Chehab had signed a decree dissolving the Chamber of Deputies (elected in 1960) and ordering elections to be held on four successive Sundays from April 5th, 1964 to May 3rd, 1964. A caretaker cabinet was appointed to supervise the elections for the new Chamber of Deputies.

PRESIDENT HELOU

General Chehab, whose term of office (6 years) as President of the Republic was due to end in September 1964, rejected all appeals that he should submit himself as a candidate for a second time. Even when the Chamber of Deputies passed a motion in favour of an amendment to the Constitution which would enable him to stand for a further term of office, General Chehab persisted (June 3rd, 1964) in his refusal. On August 18th, 1964, M. Charles Helou, Minister of Education in the caretaker administration, succeeded General Chehab as President. M. Helou pledged himself to follow the policies and reforms introduced under General Chehab.

On September 25th, 1964, M. Hussein Oweini, the Head of the caretaker Cabinet in office since February of that year, formed an administration at the request of President Helou. The new administration aroused dissatisfaction, however, in the Chamber of Deputies, since, deriving from the Cabinet appointed originally to act as a caretaker during the period of the 1964 elections, it was in fact composed wholly of non-members of the Chamber. Having resigned on November 13th, 1964, M. Oweini now, on November 18th, 1964, gathered together a new Cabinet which, save for himself and the Foreign Minister, consisted of members drawn from the Chamber of Deputies and reflected in itself all the main trends of opinion within the Chamber.

FOREIGN RELATIONS

On July 20th, 1965, the Prime Minister, Mr. Hussein Oweini, resigned. There had been much debate in the Chamber of Deputies about a proposed agreement to guarantee private American investment in the Lebanon against expropriation, war or revolution—an agreement construed in some political circles as giving to the United States a possible excuse for intervention, at need, in Lebanese affairs. Acrid discussion had also occurred in the Chamber over bills intended to bring about reforms in the judicial system and in the civil service. On July 26th, M. Rashid Karami became the new Prime Minister, with nine Cabinet Ministers to assist him, all chosen from outside the Chambers of Deputies.

There was friction during the first months of 1965 between Federal Germany and the Arab States because of the decision by Bonn to enter into formal diplomatic relations with Israel. Anti-German demonstrations occurred

at Tripoli and Beirut and on May 13th 1965 the Lebanon broke off diplomatic relations with Federal Germany

In May 1965 Lebanon signed an agreement on trade and technical co-operation with the European Economic Community (EEC), which provided for mutual preference among the contracting parties, the creation of a joint committee to supervise EEC-Lebanon trade, technical assistance to the Lebanon and further studies of Lebanese natural resources. The EEC states also undertook to disseminate information about investment possibilities in the Lebanon

There was some friction between Israel and the Lebanon over border incidents during the summer and autumn of 1965. Members of the extremist Arab organization, al-Fatah, carried out incursions into Israel at Yiftah in June, at Ramat in August, and at Margalit in October, the last of these incidents provoking an Israeli counter raid near the Lebanese village of Noub. The Lebanese Government had taken measures earlier, however, and with success to limit the activities of al Fatah

INTERNAL CHANGES

M. Rashid Karami modified his cabinet in December 1965 and January 1966, these changes arising from difficulties which hindered the full implementation of an administrative and judicial reform programme, one of the main advocates of which was President Helou. A number of senior judges had to accept a forced retirement in December 1965 and a similar fate overtook several ambassadors and senior diplomats in January 1966. By the end of March an estimated 150 officials including 700 civil servants had been compelled to withdraw from public life. This sustained attempt to curb corruption and the abuse of office in government circles and to ensure efficient and honest administration inevitably caused considerable tension. There was strong pressure in the Chamber of Deputies for a return to a cabinet chosen mainly from the Chamber itself. This and other difficulties obliged M. Karami to offer his resignation to President Helou who appointed Dr Abdallah Yafi as the new Premier

Dr Yafi assembled a ten man Cabinet drawn entirely from the Chamber of Deputies with the exception of himself and M. Philippe Takla, the new Foreign Minister. The constitution of the cabinet represented a balance between the various religious interests and from the point of view of politics between the left wing and right wing elements in the Chamber of Deputies

In October 1966 the Intra Bank of the Lebanon was compelled to close its doors because of a run of withdrawals amounting to more than \$11 million in the preceding month. The Lebanese Cabinet, on October 16th, met to discuss methods of ensuring that the banks of the Lebanon had available adequate supplies of liquid cash. It also ordered all Lebanese banks to discontinue operations for a period of three days. Later in the same month the Cabinet decided to place before Parliament a bill seeking special powers which would enable the government to take measures of safeguarding of the interests of small depositors at the Intra Bank. A crisis of confidence was a serious affair for a state where banking activities are of the highest importance. The bill presented to the Parliament envisaged the establishment of an insurance company, jointly owned by the government and the banks, to guarantee small deposits. A special commission would supervise the activities of the banks in the Lebanon. A further result of that financial crisis was the government resolved to discourage the creation of new commercial banks, foreign or Lebanese, for a period of five years. Hitherto there had been an almost complete freedom to establish new banks in the Lebanon and there had been

a large expansion of the banking system based on the flow into the Lebanon of vast oil revenues from Saudi Arabia and from the states of the Persian Gulf

On December 2nd the Prime Minister of the Lebanon, Dr Abdallah al-Yafi, offered the resignation of his government to President Helou. Mr Rashid Karami formed a new administration on December 7th, 1966. It was composed of men drawn from outside Parliament, six of whom held ministerial posts for the first time

In April 1967 the Lebanon obtained an increase of more than 50 per cent in the royalties which it received from the Iraq Petroleum Company for the transit and loading of Iraq oil. These royalties have now risen from about \$1,350,000 to about \$2,100,000 per annum

In June 1967 the Lebanese Government aligned itself with the Arab states then engaged in war against Israel. On June 8th the government asked the Ambassadors of Britain and the USA to leave the Lebanon. Pro-Egyptian demonstrations at Beirut in June caused some damage to British and American properties there. Some trouble was also reported from Tripoli, where a West German cultural centre was subjected to attack. However, the months following the war witnessed a gradual easing of the tensions arising out of the conflict, and in September 1967 the Lebanese Cabinet agreed to reinstate its ambassadors in Washington and London

EVENTS 1968-69

M. Rashid Karami's Cabinet resigned from office in February 1968. President Helou then asked Dr Abdallah al-Yafi to form an interim administration, whose main task was to be the preparation and conduct of the general election in March 1968. The two most successful parties in the Chamber of Deputies elected were the Maronite-dominated Triple Alliance of a right wing complexion, and the Democratic Block aligned further to the left. The preponderance of votes rests, however, with deputies not yet committed to either of the two main parties. Dr Yafi's interim administration remained in office.

In May 1968 there was conflict between Lebanese and Israeli forces in the region of Huleh—the first incident of this kind on the Lebanon-Israel frontier for well over two years.

1968-69 was a year of exceptional political instability in the Lebanon. Dr Al-Yafi's government resigned in October, owing to bitter rivalry between the two main political groups, the 'Chamounists' and the 'Chebabists' (both named after former Presidents), disputes over sectional representation in the Cabinet, and the government's inability to command a majority in the National Assembly. After a week of confusion, during which the President, Charles Helou, offered his own resignation, a new four man government was announced on October 20th, still headed by Dr Al Yafi. The political situation remained fluid, in November the new ministry offered to resign apparently over student unrest, but withdrew the offer the following day.

On December 26th an Israeli airliner was machine-gunned by Arab guerrillas at Athens airport, causing two casualties (one fatal). Two days later Israeli commandos raided Beirut airport and destroyed thirteen aircraft, all belonging to Lebanese lines, care was taken to avoid any loss of life. Israel said the raid should be seen as a reprisal for the Athens attack, a warning to the Arab world not to make any repetition of it, and a further warning to the Lebanon to police the activities of the fedayeen movement in the country more effectively. The financial cost to the Lebanon was relatively small as most aircraft were insured abroad. The major after-effects of the raid were, firstly, the widespread criticism it attracted even from countries

normally favourable to Israel. The Lebanon was seen as a country which had taken little active part in the campaign against Israel, while the fedayeen within it were only enjoying the freedom available to them in Lebanon's open, tolerant society. The UN Security Council unanimously condemned Israel for the raid. The second effect was the fall of the government on January 7th, 1969, its alleged lack of preparedness for Israeli aggression being the final blow to bring down a weak administration. After much political manoeuvring, a new ministry was formed on January 20th headed by Mr. Rashid Karami, Prime Minister for the seventh time.

This government was immediately confronted with the basic problems underlying the Lebanese situation. Foremost amongst these is the Christian-Muslim balance; in theory both religions are equally represented in the Lebanon, but no census has been held since 1939 mainly because the authorities fear that the balance has shifted to a 60 per cent Muslim predominance, which would seriously affect the political situation. The Christian community has a disproportionate share of the wealth and important positions and is the mainstay of the modest armed forces; it is generally conservative by Arab standards and takes a moderate position on the Israel question. The less privileged Arab majority is more in favour of both domestic reform (Lebanon has, for example, only the beginnings of a welfare state) and of a more militant position towards Israel. Early in 1969 numbers of Syrian guerrillas entered the country and apparently spent as much time in action against the Lebanese army as against Israel. Unrest also appeared amongst the 260,000 Palestinian refugees in the Sidon camp; part of the frontier with Syria was eventually closed. Numerous strikes and demonstrations continued. The Karami government felt unable to maintain the necessary coalition from the two communities and their various factions and resigned on April 25th, but it continued to function as a caretaker administration as no stronger government could be formed.

CONFRONTATION WITH THE GUERRILLAS

In the late summer of 1969 a number of guerrilla groups were reported to have moved to new bases better sited for attacks on Israel, which continued to raid these bases in reprisal; the combination of these factors created some friction between the guerrillas and the Lebanese army. In October the army apparently attacked some of these camps in an attempt to restrict or direct their activities. This triggered off a crisis that continued through the second half of October and threatened to develop into a full-scale civil war. The caretaker government resigned, claiming that it had not authorized the army's actions, and the President and the armed forces administered the country directly. Radical elements and guerrillas took over Tripoli, the second largest city, for several days, and most of the Palestinian refugee camps became fully converted into military training and equipment centres. Militant support for the guerrillas was voiced throughout the Arab world, and there were threats of military intervention by Syria and Iraq. Despite the tension, no extensive fighting occurred and there were few deaths.

On November 2nd the Lebanese Commander-in-Chief and Yassir Arafat, the leader of Al Fatah, signed a cease-fire agreement in Cairo. This limited the guerrilla freedom of movement to certain areas; as further defined in January 1970, it also provided that camps had to be set up some distance from towns, that military training must cease in refugee camps, and that guerrillas must enter Israel before starting to shoot. The intention was not to prevent guerrilla attacks, but to stop innocent Lebanese getting hurt, or their property being damaged, by Israeli counter-attacks. The calmer atmosphere that followed the cease-fire enabled Mr. Karami to form another cabinet towards the end of November. There was much concern about the weakness of the country's southern defences, and in January 1970 the new ministry felt strong enough to fire the Commander-in-Chief, appointing instead Brigadier Jean Njeim. In March there was a series of street battles in the Beirut area between the Palestinian guerrillas and militant right wing Falangist groups, but the government and the army managed to avoid becoming involved. In May Israel launched a major air and ground attack on guerrilla positions in southern Lebanon, a substantial area being occupied for nearly two days. Syria sent air assistance for the small Lebanese air force. The result of the raid was as usual disputed. Throughout the remainder of 1970 and during 1971 the Israelis continued to launch periodic attacks against guerrilla bases in the Lebanon, and the Lebanese continued to lodge their complaints with the UN Security Council, as in January 1971, when the Israelis struck deep into Lebanese territory. Friction also continued between the guerrillas and the Lebanese authorities. This was heightened by pressure on the government, culminating in a demonstration in Beirut in August 1970, by villagers from the south who wanted more protection in the clashes between Israeli and Palestine liberation forces. A further factor was the internal differences among the guerrillas which led to several armed clashes. In the first part of 1971 the government arrested 150 members of the Popular Front for the Liberation of Palestine (P.F.L.P.).

The election of Sulaiman Franjiya as President in August 1970 and the formation of a new cabinet, by Saeb Salam, from outside Parliament in October changed noticeably little. The ban on extremist parties (the Lebanese Communist Party, Parti Populaire Syrien, pro-Iraq Baath Party, etc.) was rescinded in October. Censorship of press, radio and television was also lifted in October, but was reimposed on television in the following April. Relations with Iraq were strengthened, necessitating consultations with Syria, whose Baath Party is at loggerheads with its Syrian counterpart. The spring of 1971 brought evidence of domestic unrest. On top of the activities of the Palestine commandos, there was fighting between the Falangists and the Parti Populaire Syrien, extensive student strikes and widespread dissatisfaction, especially in Tripoli, with the high unemployment rate and cost of living. Extensive security measures were taken for the visit in May of American Secretary of State, William Rogers, in order that Beirut should present as calm an appearance as possible.

V.J.P.

ECONOMIC SURVEY

The area of the Lebanon is 10 400 square kilometres which is rather smaller than the combined area of Devon and Somerset and less than half the size of the state of Massachusetts. Before she obtained her independence after the war the Lebanon formed a part with Syria of a much larger economic unit that had already established itself. After the two countries decided in March 1950 to dissolve the economic partnership by which they were bound together there were few who would have believed that the Lebanon, divorced as she was from the Syrian hinterland could survive as an economic unit. In the event not only did the Lebanon manage to survive but within a few years Beirut had made itself the commercial and financial capital of the Middle East.

According to the estimate published by the monthly Bulletin of the Statistical Office of the United Nations the population of the Lebanon in 1969 was 2 645 000 almost equally divided between Muslims and Christians mainly of the Maronite sect but including substantial numbers of many other Christian persuasions. Of the total population just over a third live in the four big towns of Beirut Tripoli Sidon and Zahlé. Exactly how many refugees from Palestine are living in the Lebanon is not certain, but it is significant that between 1947 and 1960 the population of the country increased by over a third. The natural rate of increase is believed to be in the region of 2 per cent per annum and this would not of course explain the heavy increase over the period.

Of the total area of the country just over half (52 per cent) consists of mountain swamp or desert and a further 7 per cent of forest. Only 23 per cent of the area is cultivated but there is a further 17 per cent which it is considered could be cultivated given suitable conditions. The coastal strip enjoys a Mediterranean climate and is exceedingly fertile producing mainly olives citrus fruits and bananas but many of the steep valleys leading up from the coastal plain are carefully terraced and very productive in olives and soft fruit especially mulberries and in the Zahlé and Shaboura regions there are well known vineyards. Cotton in particular and onions are grown in the hinterland of Tripoli. The main cereal growing district, however is the Bekaa the fertile valley between the Lebanon and the Anti Lebanon ranges. In the north of this valley is the source of the river Orontes. The river Litani also flows southwards through the Bekaa before it turns west near Merjayoun to flow into the Mediterranean just north of Tyre. This valley is particularly fertile and cotton is now grown there with some success. Throughout the country the size of the average holding is exceedingly small. According to a survey carried out in 1953 by the United States Operations Mission out of a total number of agricultural holdings of well under 150 000 no less than 132 000 were of 25 acres or less and even so a small holding particularly in the mountains may be broken up into several fragments separated from each other by a considerable distance.

AGRICULTURE

The country's principal grain crop is wheat, in which there has been a steady increase in yield since the end of the war. Since 1948 the acreage sown to wheat has regularly been about 170 000 acres but the crop which during the years 1948-52 yielded about 50 000 tons a year increased gradually to 58 000 tons in 1959. In years of bad harvests it has fallen to 40 000 tons but in good years such as 1963 or 1967 it has been about 70 000 tons falling again in 1968 to about 48 000 tons and in 1970 to 45 000 tons. The only

other important cereal crop is barley and here again the yield has increased appreciably since the end of the war for while the area planted to this crop has remained stable at about 50 000 acres the crop has increased from an annual average of 25 000 tons in the years 1948-52 to 39 000 tons in 1959. Even now it rarely exceeds about 30 000 tons in a good year and in 1970 it was very small indeed. Thus the country is far from being self supporting in cereals and grain and flour continue to constitute one of the most important items in the long list of the things which the Lebanon has to buy from abroad. It is also in this respect especially that the Lebanon has suffered from the economic divorce which has separated her from Syria for in most years Syria has an exportable surplus of cereals.

It is almost true to say that the Lebanon's production of fruit is more important to her economy than that of grain. In any event production has increased very substantially since the end of the war especially of citrus fruit which has risen from an annual average of 75 000 tons in the years 1948-52 to 235 000 tons in 1963-64 230 000 tons in 1964-65 and 227 000 tons in 1969. The Lebanon's production of oranges was then about a fifth of that of Israel and about twice that of Cyprus. The production of fresh grapes has flourished in recent years and in 1969 amounted to 77 000 tons. That of figs amounts to about 15 000 tons a year but bananas constitute perhaps a more important cash crop production having increased from an annual average of 16 000 tons during the years 1948-52 to 29 000 tons in 1969. Much progress has recently been made in the production of sugar beet which now amounts to about 100 000 tons in a good year.

Other important vegetable crops are potatoes, onions, apples and pears and melons. Cotton and tobacco also are grown. The forests are well regulated but have been greatly thinned by the ravages of the goat as elsewhere in the area and the number of the famous cedars of Lebanon has sadly diminished. Stock raising is not so important in the Lebanon as elsewhere in the Middle East but Lebanese dairy produce is now of excellent quality and there were about 160 000 head of cattle in the Lebanon in 1969. Seasonal migration from winter to summer pastures in the mountains and vice versa continues to be one of the chief characteristics of stock raising in the Lebanon as elsewhere in the Middle East.

INDUSTRY

So far as is known the mineral wealth of the Lebanon is not great. Both iron and lignite were mined in the country in the early part of the century and there are deposits of bitumen near Hasbaya. In spite of intensive prospecting no oil has yet been found in commercial quantities. On the other hand the geographic position of the Lebanon is of great importance to the oil industry of the Middle East for the country is crossed by two highly important pipelines that from the Iraq Petroleum Company's oil wells in Kirkuk to the Mediterranean at Tripoli and that from Aramco in Saudi Arabia to Sidon Tapline. There are also two important refineries. In 1962 the agreement between Tapline and the Lebanese Government was revised and Tapline undertook to increase the annual payment made to the government for transit loading and security from about \$1.2 to about \$4.5 million and to pay \$12.5 million in settlement of all past claims by the government. Shortly after the settlement of the dispute between Syria and the Iraq Petroleum Company,

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the company agreed in March 1967 to increase the dues paid to the Lebanese Government with retroactive effect to the beginning of 1966. The Lebanese Prime Minister said that as a result the government's income from the company for 1966 would be increased from \$3.8 million to \$5.9 million. The flow of oil through both pipelines was interrupted in 1967 and for various reasons Tapline was out of service temporarily in both 1969 and in 1970. Shortly after this line was brought into use again early in 1971, the Tapline company offered to increase the transit dues from \$4.5 million to about \$7.8 million a year.

Manufacturing industry has for many years been highly developed in the Lebanon when compared with other Middle Eastern states, and, according to an official survey there were in 1964 some 2,100 industrial establishments in the Lebanon employing about 40,000 people. This excludes the public utilities and the usual peasant handicraft industries, also those employed by concessionaire companies such as the Iraq Petroleum Company, which employs some 600 people. The reason for the apparently disproportionate development of manufacturing industries in the Lebanon is that they were mostly established to supply the Syrian market, as well as that of Lebanon, and the economic separation of the two countries in 1950 was therefore a severe blow to Lebanon's industry. Another handicap has been shortage of fuel and electric power. In spite of all this, Lebanon's industry has made a good deal of progress during the last few years. There are two oil refineries, one at Tripoli owned by the Iraq Petroleum Company, and the other at Zahrani owned by MEDRECO, (Mobil and Caltex), total production in 1970 being 1.9 million tons. In March 1971 the governments of the Lebanon and Saudi Arabia agreed to establish a third refinery in the Lebanon, which was to be installed by Petromin, a company owned by the Saudi Arabian Government.

With the exception of the oil companies, the largest employers are probably the food-processing industries, which include biscuit factories and sugar refineries, followed by the textile industries, which are well developed. Perhaps more important is the cement industry, which has recently made great strides, the average monthly production having increased from 21,900 tons in 1951 to over 110,000 tons in 1970, two large new plants having come into operation. Much has been done by the government to encourage the development of the country's manufactures. In 1954 new industrial concerns with a capital of more than £1 million were exempted from Lebanese income tax for six years, and a similar exemption was again enacted in 1967 covering investments in industry made after 1964. The government has also promoted the creation of an Agricultural, Industrial and Real Estate Bank to make loans to industry. To meet the difficulty caused by lack of power, generating capacity has been greatly increased and the production of electric power has increased from 147 million kWh. in 1952 to 1,139 million kWh. in 1969.

EXTERNAL TRADE

There has been an adverse balance of visible trade for many years, the ratio between the value of imports and of exports generally now being between four and five to one. Since the economic separation of Lebanon from Syria, there has been a remarkable expansion. The value of imports increased from £298.4 million in 1951 to £1,641 million in 1966 and that of exports from £89.7 million to £316 million. The June war of 1967 distorted the country's foreign trade, particularly imports, but the annual value of exports and imports has since then steadily increased, and preliminary figures for the value of

imports in 1940 were £1,806 million, and for that of exports £1,580 million. None of the figures quoted includes the highly important transit trade through the free port of Beirut to Syria, Jordan and Iraq. The value of this trade has amounted in good years to several times the value of domestic exports from the Lebanon, and it is, of course, an important source of gain to the country's economy.

The principal articles of export are fruit and vegetables, the trade in which has expanded greatly since the war, and the total value of Lebanon's exports of citrus fruit, bananas, apples, pears and fresh vegetables usually amounts to about a quarter of the total. Much of this is flown to the large communities working in the oilfields of the Persian Gulf. Among the other important exports are included wool, cotton and hides. Owing to the increase in cement production, there is now an exportable surplus. The principal import consists of grain and flour. Large numbers of sheep and cattle also have to be imported, as well as a whole range of industrial raw materials, notably fuel and timber, and of course, machinery and manufactured goods of all descriptions.

In 1970, some 63 per cent of Lebanon's exports went to the Arab countries, about 20 per cent going to Saudi Arabia alone. The other main buyers of Lebanese goods in that year were the East European countries, the United States, the United Kingdom, Italy and France in that order, but the proportion of the country's exports taken by all these countries together was only 15 per cent. In the same year, 12 per cent of the Lebanon's imports came from Switzerland, and 11 per cent from the United Kingdom, with 10 per cent each coming from the United States, the Arab countries, and the countries of Eastern Europe. France and Germany each supplied a further 9 per cent, and Italy 7 per cent. However, these figures include imports of bullion and other precious metals, which may introduce some distortion. Early in 1971 the European Economic Community agreed to reduce customs duties on certain industrial imports from the Lebanon by 55 per cent, and on certain agricultural goods by 40 per cent.

The heavy adverse balance of visible trade is generally made good by the large net invisible exports which the Lebanon's position as the chief *entrepôt* and distributing centre of the Middle East has enabled her to earn, and by the remittances from the Lebanese overseas, of whom there are large numbers, especially in the United States, South America and South East Asia. The latest official balance-of-payments figures published by the International Monetary Fund's Monthly Bulletin relate to the year 1965. There was then an adverse visible balance of trade amounting to U.S. \$349.0 million, but against this could be set the net earnings of the transit trade, \$58.3 million, the net income from tourists of \$58.2 million, and other current invisible items. These included emigrants' remittances mainly from Lebanese working abroad, and totalled \$118.6 million. The net deficit on current account was thus reduced to \$113.9 million, financed by imports of foreign capital.

CURRENCY AND FINANCE

As will have been seen, up-to-date and fully comparable series of statistics about the country's economic position are not available, and the central bank (see below) in its first reports referred to the continued inadequacy of Lebanese economic and financial statistics, particularly those relating to national income, public finance and foreign trade, which have since improved. But it is significant that gold and foreign exchange reserves, which amounted to U.S. \$232 million at the end of 1964, having steadily in-

creased to US \$402.6 million at the end of 1970. At the same time, the purchasing power of the currency has remained remarkably stable. The official cost of living index at Beirut (1958=100) stood at 84 for 1954, rose to 85 for 1955, and 90 for 1956, although apparently as a result of the troubles of 1958, it has risen since, and during 1961 it stood at 110 and in 1963 at 110. A new wholesale price index has recently been introduced with 1961 as the base year, it stood at 118 in September 1970.

The par value of the Lebanese pound was fixed in July 1947 at 210 to the US \$ (=£1.603 to the £ sterling), but nearly all dealings during recent years have taken place at the "free" rate. On January 1st, 1965, a "provisional legal parity" of £1.308 to the US \$ (=£1.862 to the £ sterling) was established, the new provisional parity being the same as the free market rate then quoted. Since then, the free rate tended to depreciate slightly in terms of dollars, and in 1970 it averaged £1.325 to the US dollar. A rate of £1.325 to the US dollar is the present equivalent of £1.78 to the pound sterling, owing to the devaluation of the pound in November 1967. Until 1964 the country possessed no state owned central bank, and the currency was managed, under a concession which expired in that year, by the Banque de Syrie et du Liban, a commercial bank which had formerly been closely associated with the Ottoman Bank. In April 1964 a bank called the Banque du Liban took over these functions and now operates as a normal central bank.

The importance of Beirut as the commercial and financial centre of the Middle East increased remarkably in the 1950s and early 1960s. This was due mainly to the almost complete absence of restriction on the free movement of goods and capital, for the Lebanon is one of the few free markets left in the Middle East. The Lebanon benefited as well from the growing xenophobia in Egypt particularly after 1951. Many foreign firms which till then had located the headquarters of their Middle Eastern activities in Cairo moved them to Beirut, where the compromise the Lebanese succeeded in working out between their own Muslim and Christian population evidently provided a more accommodating atmosphere for the Western European. Moreover, large sums were being earned in the Gulf by Arabs who were seeking investment locally, especially in property, and for them Beirut was a convenient centre. There were at one time over eighty officially recognized banks established in Beirut, including branches or representatives of very many major international banks. Among them are the British Bank of the Middle East, The Eastern Bank, the Moscow Narodny Bank, and several leading German and American banks. Indeed one of the first tasks which the new central bank set itself was to establish some degree of control over the proliferation of banks, and to tighten regulations for the establishment of banks in the country. Early in 1966 the government introduced new regulations governing the establishment of new banks (notably a minimum capital of £3 million) and subjected the opening of additional branches to the consent of the central bank.

However, a serious blow to confidence in the banking system was the failure in October 1966 of the Intra Bank. This concern was the largest purely Lebanese bank, its capital was mostly owned in the Lebanon, and it had many branches in the Middle East and in New York and the main financial centres of Western Europe. The government took immediate steps to compensate the smallest depositors, but it was not until 1967 that a scheme was approved by the courts for the reorganization of the bank. Under this arrangement a small company was set up to manage the banking business of the bank in the Lebanon and overseas, and another company was formed to take over the other assets, the shares being held as to 45 per

cent by the Lebanese Government and individuals, 35 per cent by the Kuwaitis, 7 per cent by the Qataris and 13 per cent by the U.S. Commodity Credit Corporation. Creditors and depositors of more than £1,250,000 each received shares in the new company, and those of less than £1,250,000 received 50 per cent of what was owed them in shares and the rest in cash payable over three years. However, in December 1970 a company was founded with a capital of £1280 million by the governments of the Lebanon, Kuwait and Qatar and by the U.S. Commodity Credit Corporation to take over the assets of the bank. During the years which followed the failure of the bank, the banking system was thoroughly reformed, and the authorities arranged for a number of the smaller commercial banks of local origin to be taken over by larger concerns.

TOURISM

The growth in importance of Beirut as a centre for air communications has been remarkable. A few years ago a new international airport was opened, which can accommodate the largest of modern airliners, and traffic has much increased. The number of passenger/kilometres handled at Beirut had by 1967 exceeded the figure for Egypt, the figure for cargo was nearly ten times bigger, and much of the traffic which formerly went via Egypt now passes through Beirut. In addition the Lebanon has been successfully developed as the tourist centre of the Middle East. Many large modern hotels have been built in recent years and the invisible income the country has earned from tourism has been of great importance. The political troubles of 1958 brought something of a setback to the development of the Lebanon as a tourist centre, but by 1961 the country seemed to have fully recovered its old position in this respect. Between 1961 and 1966, the tourist business nearly doubled, the number of tourist nights increased from 765,000 in 1961 to 1,370,000 in 1966, and the estimated income from tourists increased from £147 to £1280 million. But, many of these tourists used Beirut as a staging post for visiting Bethlehem and the old city of Jerusalem, which were then in Jordanian territory. Now that these places are in Israeli hands as a result of the 1967 war there was another severe, if temporary, setback to this growing industry. However, 1968 saw a recovery. The total number of visitors was just under 1,500,000, and the income from tourism is estimated to have been £1,360 million. The results for 1969 were almost as good. The number of tourists in that year was 1,362,000 including about 800,000 Syrians, but the income derived from the tourist trade was slightly higher at £1,388 million. However, preliminary returns show that in 1970 the number of tourists visiting the Lebanon was about 13 per cent lower than in 1969.

PUBLIC FINANCE AND DEVELOPMENT

During recent years, the nation's finances appear to have been on a sound basis, though budgetary expenditure has constantly increased owing largely to the rising cost of defence, which has generally accounted for about a fifth of the total expenditure. However, the revenue of the state, of which, as is usual in the Middle East, a comparatively small proportion is provided by direct taxation, increased simultaneously. Thus in 1961 expenditure was £1282 million and revenue £1,313 million. By 1970 expenditure had risen, according to the budget approved in that year, to £1,830 million, an increase of nearly three times. Of the expenditure forecast for 1970, £1,171 million was allocated for defence, or about 20 per cent, £1,123 million was to be spent on education, and £1,106 million by the Ministry of Public Works and Transport. This was ex-

LEBANON—(ECONOMIC SURVEY)

pected to leave a heavy deficit even after allowing for increases in income tax and certain customs duties.

Except in the refugee camps, where Arab expatriates from Palestine are maintained largely by UNRWA, the general standard of living in the Lebanon is higher than in most of the other Arab countries of the Middle East, and the national income showed a steady increase from £L 1,042 million in 1950 to £L 1,503 million in 1957. Largely because of the political disturbances of 1958 it fell to £L 1,325 million in 1958. According to the latest estimates, made available by IMF, the national income in 1969 was £L 4,112 million, compared with £L 2,861 million in 1964, though it is not clear whether these figures are comparable with those of earlier estimates. According to the same source, the economy's growth rate in 1969 was about 6.5 per cent, and the per capita national income had risen between 1964 and 1969 by about 20 per cent, amounting in the latter year to the equivalent of U.S. \$5,400.

The political pressure for development schemes to improve the standard of living was not for several years so marked as in the less developed countries of the area; at all events until 1961 Lebanon had no long-term plan for economic development such as there was in Syria or Iran. During the years 1965-69 the government intended to spend a total of £L 1,080 million on economic development, of which £L 155 million on roads, £L 123 million on irrigation, £L 72 million on agriculture and £L 49 million on education. The Lebanon accepted grants and long-term credits, principally for economic development and mainly from the United States, to the total of £L 887 million between 1945 and 1959. Moreover, it accepted Point IV aid from the United States. In 1965 a loan of KD 5 million was obtained from Kuwait for economic development.

There is in addition a large number of important development projects under active consideration, or in process of realization. Of these the most far-reaching is the Litani river scheme. Its object is to provide the country for the first time with an adequate supply of electricity and simultaneously to extend the acreage of irrigated land. The whole scheme will take about 25 years to complete, and it was originally estimated some years ago that it would probably cost about \$100 million, none

of which is provided for in the five-year plans. When finished it should have the effects of increasing the irrigated area of the Lebanon from about 120,000 to 170,000 acres, and of making possible the production of an additional 626 million kWh. of electricity per annum, compared with a production of 181 million kWh. for the whole country in 1954. The scheme should therefore entirely revolutionize the country's economy. Work began on the first stage of the project in which the combined output of the hydro-electric plant to be installed was to have been 336 million kWh. per annum. This phase of the operation was estimated to cost \$40 million, of which \$27 million was to be provided in the form of loan from the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development. By the end of 1967, the whole of this loan was taken up and \$4.7 million had been repaid. In July 1966 the Kuwait Arab Economic Development Fund agreed to make a loan of KD 3.4 million towards the financing of the second stage of the scheme. There are numerous other smaller projects on which work is proceeding, notably the extension of port facilities at the harbour of Tripoli and Beirut.

Lacking mineral resources, unable to feed themselves out of their own agricultural production, and possessing no important raw materials, the inhabitants of the Lebanon, from the time of their Phoenician ancestors in the days of Tyre and Sidon, have been driven to trade and commerce to find a living. The abilities and traditions they have thereby developed over the centuries stood them in good stead when the new state of the Lebanon was forced by the rupture with Syria to stand or fall by its own efforts. Beirut has made a name for itself as an *entrepôt*, as a centre of international commerce and finance, and as a sounding-board for what is going on throughout the Middle East, not only in the economic but also in the political field. This is surely proof that the severe handicaps which nature has imposed on the Lebanese people need not be fatal obstacles to rapid economic development, notwithstanding the serious setbacks they have suffered in recent years. Whether the constant guerrilla troubles on their southern and eastern borders will eventually disrupt the economy is of course another matter.

B.S.-E.

STATISTICAL SURVEY

AREA AND POPULATION

AREA
(hectares)

TOTAL	CULTIVATED	IRRIGATED	MARGINAL AND GRAZING	FOREST	WASTE
1 040 000	270 000	72 000	128 800	73 200	549 200

POPULATION

TOTAL*	BEIRUT† (capital)	TRIPOLI†	BIRTHS (1969)	MARRIAGES (1969)	DEATHS (1969)
2 700 000	500 000	145 000	75 332	15 662	12 098

* 1970 estimate

† 1965

AGRICULTURE

PRINCIPAL CROPS

	AREA (000 hectares)			PRODUCTION (000 tons)			YIELD (tons per hectares)
	1967	1968	1969	1967	1968	1969	1969
Wheat	66.5	68.1	43.2	67.7	47.7	33.0	0.8
Barley	13.4	1.2	8.3	15.7	11.6	7.8	0.8
Sugar Beet	2.1	2.5	2.2	110.0	119.0	94.0	42.7
Potatoes	6.9	7.7	9.0	80.9	77.6	86.6	9.6
Onions	3.0	3.1	1.9	44.0	37.8	30.0	16.0
Tobacco	6.8	7.2	6.6	6.4	6.6	6.7	1.0
Citrus Fruit	11.0	11.0	11.3	210.8	220.5	208.5	23.9
Apples	10.8	11.3	14.1	157.0	162.9	66.5	5.3
Grapes	15.2	15.3	16.6	88.3	83.6	76.6	5.1
Olive	26.8	26.8	27.7	67.8	32.2	46.3	2.0
Tomatoes	4.5	4.9	5.7	59.2	59.5	70.0	2.0

LIVESTOCK
(000)

	1966	1967	1968	1969
Goats	442	431	357	348
Sheep	213	198	200	213
Cattle	105	97	86	86
Donkeys	37	30	28	28
Poultry	17 226	14 980	16 538	17 463

LEBANON—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

FRUIT (‘000 metric tons)

	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969
Citrus Fruits . . .	231.5	249.9	228	238	226
Apples . . .	115	104	157	163	67
Grapes . . .	83.8	76	88	84	77
Tomatoes . . .	45.3	63	59	60	70
Figs . . .	14.7	11.7	13	13	13
Bananas . . .	25.3	29.8	27	30	29

INDUSTRY

	UNIT	1966	1967	1968	1969
Tobacco Manufactures . . .	tons	2,560	2,695	2,729	2,650
Refined Sugar . . .	"	n.a.	37,523	27,869	31,613
Fertilizers . . .	"	n.a.	21,098	35,479	52,870
Timber . . .	cu. metres	n.a.	36,990	46,096	46,342
Cement . . .	'000 tons	1,095	1,016	906	1,252
Electricity . . .	million kWh.	864.4	907.3	1,035	1,139

OIL REFINING (‘000 tons)

	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969
Crude Oil intake . . .	1,482	1,652	1,730	1,803	1,849
Petrol . . .	280	310	303	347	347
Paraffin . . .	129	154	180	190	207
Gas Oil . . .	230	232	269	281	318
Fuel Oil . . .	767	883	891	897	884
Butane . . .	21	23	21	24	23

FINANCE

Lebanese pound (£L)=100 piastres.
£L7.87=£1 sterling; £L3.28=U.S. \$1.00.
£L100=£12.71 sterling=U.S. \$30.49.

BUDGET ESTIMATES (Expenditure 1970—million £L)

Defence	171.8
Education	123.6
Public Works and Transport	106.6
Ministry of the Interior	55.6
Debt Servicing	44.0
Hydro-electric Resources	26.6
Foreign Affairs	25.8
Prime Minister's Office	25.2
Reserves	24.5
Finance	22.7
Public Health	22.6
TOTAL (including others)	736.6

The 1971 budget estimates expenditure at £L774 million.

LEBANON—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

EXTERNAL TRADE*

(000 £L)

	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970
Imports	1 683 546	1 913 707	1 769 992	1 865 087	2 006 431	2 232 563
Exports	324 056	369 465	453 347	310 261	554 301	643 342
Transit Trade†	997 477	1 050 015	957 715	1 532 938	1 348 894	n a

* Based on the rate of free market prices of the U S dollar

† Through the free port of Beirut includes crude oil pumped through the Lebanon

PRINCIPAL COMMODITIES

(£L 000)

IMPORTS	1968	1969	EXPORTS*	1968	1969
Precious Metals Stones Jewellery and Coins	307 128	307 393	Vegetable Products	110 217	95 787
Vegetable Products	175 462	193 610	Precious Metals Stones Jewellery and Coins	71 239	39 240
Machinery and Electrical Apparatus	189 794	232 050	Animals and Animal Products	41 941	35 503
Textiles and Products	192 746	213 319	Machinery and Electrical Apparatus	37 685	50 670
Non precious Metals and Products	141 464	168 483	Non precious Metals and Products	34 895	42 104
Transport Vehicles	127 107	119 368	Textiles and Products	41 434	48 149
Animals and Animal Products	134 371	130 025	Beverages and Tobacco	31 091	43 405
Industrial Chemical Products	135 233	143 717	Transport Vehicles	32 333	39 977
Mineral Products	122 529	122 803			
Beverages and Tobacco	74 705	84 917			

* Including re-exports

PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES

(£L 000)

IMPORTS	1967	1968	1969	EXPORTS	1967	1968	1969
Belgium	34 349	37 068	38 930	France	9 291	10 357	10 770
Czechoslovakia	29 029	36 241	35 947	German Federal Rep	6 489	7 854	7 578
France	157 324	171 303	161 299	Greece	3 366	5 228	3 060
German Federal Rep	133 499	157 760	187 131	Iraq	27 148	36 916	33 181
Iraq	54 735	69 863	75 729	Italy	9 884	10 983	13 405
Italy	117 875	132 728	142 431	Jordan	23 265	32 180	36 318
Japan	44 732	51 313	74 691	Kuwait	50 484	54 519	60 729
Jordan	13 714	17 888	18 683	Saudi Arabia	138 299	132 896	117 258
Netherlands	36 825	42 174	43 603	Spain	531	902	1 132
Saudi Arabia	40 759	38 478	37 696	Syria	22 926	35 579	42 290
Switzerland	76 180	130 450	165 104	U S S R	12 435	7 610	7 592
Syria	89 646	105 592	91 591	United Kingdom	17 902	18 699	20 135
Turkey	39 185	27 887	22 393	U S A	18 037	11 630	22 102
United Kingdom	364 250	272 300	255 590				
U S A	154 803	203 568	180 407				

LEBANON—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

**TRANSPORT
RAILWAYS**

	PASSENGERS (Thousands)		Goods (Thousands)		REVENUE (^{'000} £L)		
	Number	Passenger-Kms.	Tons	Ton-Kms.	Passengers	Goods	Total
1965 .	80	6,749	562	39,477	151	2,999	3,150
1966 .	80	6,594	561	45,618	139	3,003	3,142
1967 .	80	5,955	491	38,008	127	2,978	3,105
1968 .	88	6,691	489	37,036	148	3,067	3,215
1969 .	78	7,278	313	24,455	178	2,018	2,196

ROADS

	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969
Motor cars (taxis and private) .	98,715	105,405	114,242	123,891	129,674
Buses	2,201	2,088	2,168	1,645	1,763
Lorries	11,771	12,000	12,763	13,404	14,473
Motor cycles	8,285	9,695	10,484	11,291	12,004

SHIPPING IN BEIRUT

	SHIPS ENTERED		MERCHANDISE (Metric Tons)	
	Number	Tonnage	Entered	Cleared
1965 .	2,977	4,916,119	1,716,934	453,310
1966 .	3,200	5,196,000	1,776,000	461,000
1967 .	2,760	4,710,010	1,706,000	584,000
1968 .	2,879	4,146,000	1,916,000	654,000
1969 .	3,126	4,361,512	1,995,000	700,000

**TRAFFIC THROUGH THE
INTERNATIONAL AIRPORT IN BEIRUT**

	AIRCRAFT USING AIRPORT	PASSENGERS USING AIRPORT	FREIGHT THROUGH AIRPORT (metric tons)
1965 .	35,560	1,208,567	29,620
1966 .	40,581	1,366,000	34,668
1967 .	35,594	1,254,237	39,653
1968 .	41,082	1,512,599	51,238
1969 .	42,733	1,571,667	53,594

TOURISM

	1966	1967	1968	1969
Total Foreign Visitors (except Syrians) .	701,184	515,228	710,010	777,135
<i>of which:</i>				
Visitors from Arab countries	331,351	247,020	426,554	459,858
Visitors from Europe	198,669	148,227	161,532	172,462
Visitors from the Americas	112,345	70,502	63,279	76,964
Syrian Visitors	812,259	702,891	790,510	810,050
TOTAL	1,513,443	1,218,119	1,500,520	1,587,185

LEBANON—(STATISTICAL SURVEY, THE CONSTITUTION)

EDUCATION (1968-69)

	NUMBER OF SCHOOLS	NUMBER OF PUPILS	NUMBER OF TEACHERS
Public Education			
Primary	874	187 067	13 014
Higher Primary	410	47 603	
Secondary	34	7 679	
Private Education			
Primary and Kindergarten	1 007	341 421	16 960
Higher Primary and Secondary	467	74 926	

Source: Direction Centrale de la Statistique Ministère du Plan, Beirut.

THE CONSTITUTION

The Constitution of the Lebanon was promulgated on May 23rd 1926 and was superseded on May 9th 1932. An amended Constitution was promulgated on the authority of the French High Commissioner on January 2nd 1934 but was revoked on January 4th 1937 in favour of the 1926 Constitution as amended by the constitutional laws of October 17th 1937 and May 8th 1929. This Constitution is still in force and further amendments were made on November 9th and December 7th 1943 and again on January 21st 1947.

According to the Constitution the Republic of the Lebanon is an independent and sovereign State and no part of the territory may be alienated or ceded. Lebanon has no State religion. Arabic is the official language. Beirut is the capital.

All Lebanese are equal in the eyes of the law. Personal freedom and freedom of the Press are guaranteed and protected. The religious communities are entitled to maintain their own schools provided they conform to the general requirements relating to public instruction as laid down by the State. Dwellings are inviolable. Rights of ownership are protected by law. Every Lebanese citizen who has completed his twenty first year is an elector and qualifies for the franchise.

Legislative Power

Legislative power is exercised by one house, the Chamber of Deputies. It has 99 members who must be over 25 years of age, in possession of their full political and civil rights and literate. They are considered representatives of the whole nation and are not bound to follow directives from their constituencies. They can only be suspended by a two-thirds majority of their fellow members. Secret ballot was introduced in a new election law of April 1960.

The Chamber holds two sessions yearly, from the first Tuesday after March 15th to the end of May, and from the first Tuesday after October 15th to the end of the year. The normal term of the Chamber of Deputies is four years, general elections take place within sixty days before the end of this period. If the Chamber is dissolved before the end of its term, elections are held within three months of dissolution.

Voting in the Chamber is public—by acclamation, or by standing and sitting. A quorum of two-thirds and a majority vote is required for constitutional issues. The only exceptions to this occur when the Chamber becomes an electoral college and chooses the President of the Republic, or Secretaries to the Chamber, or when the President is accused of treason or of violating the Constitution. In such cases voting is secret and a two-thirds majority is needed.

Executive Power

The President of the Republic is elected for a term of six years and is not immediately re-eligible. He and his ministers deal with the promulgation and execution of laws passed by the Chamber of Deputies. The Ministers and the President of the Council of Ministers are chosen by the President of the Republic. They are not necessarily members of the Chamber of Deputies although they are responsible to it and have access to its debates.

The President himself can initiate laws. Alternatively, the President may demand an additional debate on laws already passed by the Chamber. He can adjourn the Chamber for up to a month but not more than once in each session. In exceptional circumstances he can dissolve the Chamber and force an election. Ministers can be made to resign by a vote of no confidence.

THE GOVERNMENT

HEAD OF STATE

President of the Republic: SULAIMAN FRANJIYA (elected August 1970).

THE CABINET

(August 1971)

Prime Minister and Minister of the Interior: SAEB SALAM.
Minister of Foreign Affairs: KHALIL ABU HAMAD.
Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Finance: ELIAS SABA.
Minister of Information: HENRI TARABAY.
Minister of Defence: ELIAS SABA (acting).
Minister of Natural Resources and Water Power: JAAFAR MUHAMMAD JAWAD SHARAF-AL-DIN.
Minister of Justice: Dr. JAMIL KEBBE.
Minister of Public Works and Transport: HENRI EDDE.

Minister of Agriculture: HENRI EDDE (acting).
Minister of General Planning: Dr. HASAN MUSHARRAFIYAH.
Minister of Health: Dr. EMILE BITAR.
Minister of Education: NAJIB ABU HAIDAR.
Minister of Posts, Telegraphs and Telephones: Dr. JAMIL KEBBE.
Minister of Labour and Social Affairs: MUNIR HAMDAN.
Minister of National Economy and Tourism: Dr. SAEB NADIM JAROUDI.

In the Lebanon the custom is for the President to be a Maronite, the Prime Minister a Sunni Muslim, and for the rest of the Cabinet to represent other faiths.

DIPLOMATIC REPRESENTATION

REPRESENTATIVES OF LEBANON ABROAD

(A) Ambassador; (M) Minister; (CA) Chargé d'Affaires.

Afghanistan: SIMON KHAHAN, Kabul (CA).
Algeria: MUHAMMAD ADRA, Algiers (A).
Argentina: FARÈS RAGI, Buenos Aires (A) (also accredited to Chile and Paraguay).
Australia: CHAFIC GHARZEDDINE, Sydney (A).
Austria: ABDEL RAHMAN EL SOLH, Vienna (A) (also accredited to Hungary).
Belgium: KESROUAN LABAKI, Brussels (A) (also accredited to Luxembourg, Netherlands and the European Communities).
Bolivia: (see Colombia).
Brazil: FAWZI BARDAWIL, Rio de Janeiro (A).
Cameroon: (see Tunisia).
Canada: ALIF GEBARA, Ottawa (A).
Central African Republic: (see Ghana).
Ceylon: (see India).
Chad: (see Ghana).
Chile: (see Argentina).
Colombia: (vacant), Bogotá (A) (also accredited to Bolivia, Ecuador and Peru).
Cuba: EDMOND KHAYAT, Havana (A).
Cyprus: The Emir FARID CHÉHAB, Nicosia (A).
Czechoslovakia: EDOUARD GHORRA, Prague (A).
Ecuador: (see Colombia).
Ethiopia: (see Sudan).
Finland: (see United Kingdom).
France: (vacant), Paris (A).

German Federal Republic: (see Spain).
Ghana: SAÏD EL HIBRI, Accra (A) (also accredited to Central African Republic, Chad and Togo).
Greece: ROBERT KLAT, Athens (A).
Guinea: HANI EL AMIN, Conakry (CA).
Hungary: (see Austria).
India: MAHMOUD HAFEZ, New Delhi (A) (also accredited to Ceylon).
Iran: HUSSEIN EL-ABDALLAH, Teheran (A).
Iraq: FAOWZI BARDAWIL, Baghdad (A).
Italy: JOSEPH HARFOUCHE, Rome (A).
Ivory Coast: ANTOINE JABRE, Abidjan (A).
Japan: TOUFIC AOUD, Tokyo (A).
Jordan: ALI BAZZI, Amman (A).
Kuwait: SAMIH EL BABA, Kuwait (A).
Liberia: SIMON KHACHAN, Monrovia (A).
Libya: Dr. MIDHAT FITFIT, Tripoli (A).
Luxembourg: (see Belgium).
Mali: HUSSEIN CHARAF, Bamako (CA).
Mexico: EDMOND KHAYAT, Mexico City (A).
Morocco: ABDUL RAHMAN ADRA, Rabat (A).
Netherlands: (see Belgium).
Nigeria: BULIND BEYDOUN, Lagos (A).
Norway: (see United Kingdom).
Pakistan: RABIA HAIDAR, Karachi (CA).
Paraguay: (see Argentina).

LEBANON—(DIPLOMATIC REPRESENTATION)/

Peru: (see Colombia)
Saudi Arabia: Dr ADEL ISMAIL, Jeddah (A)
Senegal: ELIE BOUSTANI, Dakar (A)
Sierra Leone: FAOWZI SALLOUK, Freetown (CA)
Spain: MOHAMMED FATHALLAH, Madrid (A) (also accredited to German Federal Republic)
Sudan: (vacant), Khartoum (A) (also accredited to Ethiopia)
Sweden: (see United Kingdom)
Switzerland: MICHEL FARAH, Berne (A)
Togo: (see Ghana)
Trinidad: CÉSAR SALLOUM, Port of Spain (CA)
Tunisia: ANTOINE JABREZ, Tunis (A) (also accredited to Cameroon)
Turkey: JOSEPH CHÉDID, Ankara (A)

U.S.S.R.: NAIM AMIOUNT, Moscow (A)
United Arab Republic: HALIM ABOU EZZEDINE, Cairo (A)
United Kingdom: NADIM DEMECHKIE, London (A) (also accredited to Finland, Norway and Sweden)
United States: NAJATI KARBANI, Washington (A)
Uruguay: MICHEL CHIDIAC, Montevideo (CA)
Vatican: Sheikh NAJIB DANDAN, Vatican City (A)
Venezuela: ANTOINE FRANCIS, Caracas (A)
Yugoslavia: MOUNIR TAKIEDDINE, Belgrade (A)

E.E.C.: (see Belgium)

United Nations: EDUARD GHORRA, New York (Perm Rep)

UNESCO: Dr BOUTROS DIB, Paris

EMBASSIES AND LEGATIONS ACCREDITED TO LEBANON (Beirut unless otherwise indicated)

(E) Embassy, (L) Legation

Afghanistan: Cairo, U A R (E)
Algeria: Rue Verdun, Imm Takkouche (E), *Ambassador* CHOAB TALEB BEN DIAT
Argentina: Rue Fouad 1er (E), *Ambassador* ENRIQUEZ QUINTANA (also accredited to Jordan)
Australia: Rue Maamari, Imm 1 Union de Paris (E); *Ambassador* W D FORSYTH
Austria: Rue Négib Trad, Villa Nicolas Cattan, Quartier Surock (E), *Ambassador* A BREVCHA-VAUTHIER (also accredited to Iraq, Kuwait and Jordan)
Belgium: Rue Spears, Imm Jureidini (E), *Ambassador* Baron ALEXANDRE PATERNOTTE DE LA VAILLÉE (also accredited to Cyprus and Jordan)
Bolivia: Place de l'Etoile, Imm Naffah (E), *Chargé d'Affaires* NACIB GHOSN
Brazil: Rue Verdun, Imm Mahmassani (E), *Ambassador* MARTIN FRANCISCO LAFAYETTE DE ANDRADA (also accredited to Jordan)
Bulgaria: (address not available) (E), *Ambassador* ANANIA PANOV
Canada: Rue Clémenceau, Imm Alpha (E), *Ambassador* (vacant) (also accredited to Iraq and Jordan)
Central African Republic: (E), *Ambassador* MAURICE GHANAM LEGHOS
Ceylon: Cairo, U A R (E)
Chile: Rue du port, Imm Badawi (E), *Chargé d'Affaires* FUAD SADI
China (Taiwan): Rue Kantari, Imm Jean Fattal (E), *Ambassador* PEI-CHI MIAO
Colombia: 57 Rue Négib Haddad, Imm Ahmad Jawad (E), *Ambassador* HENRIQUE MOLANO CAMPUZANO
Costa Rica: Rue Hamra, Imm Abdel Baki (E) (also accredited to Kuwait)
Cuba: Rue Mimi Curie, Imm Sammakieh (E), *Chargé d'Affaires* LUIS A RODRIGUEZ CHAVECO
Czechoslovakia: Rue Fouad 1er, Imm Kayasi (E), *Ambassador* LADISLAV TISLJAR
Denmark: Rue Clémenceau, Imm Minkara (E), *Ambassador* HANS VALDENAR BERTELSEN

Dominican Republic: Rawché, Imm Minkara (L)
Ethiopia: Cairo, U A R (E)
Finland: Cairo, U A R. (E)
France: Avenue Perthuis and Rue Clémenceau (E), *Ambassador* BERNARD DUFOURNIER
Ghana: (address not available) (E), *Ambassador* K Y. BOAFO
Greece: 19 Rue de France (E), *Ambassador* JEAN MOSCHOPOULOS (also accredited to Jordan and Kuwait)
Guinea: Cairo, U A R (L)
Haiti: Rue du Fleuve, Imm Sarkis (E), *Ambassador* JOSEPH SARKIS
Hungary: Beirut (E), *Ambassador* JANOS VIRIS
India: Rue Kantari, Imm Sahmarani (E) (also accredited to Cyprus and Jordan)
Indonesia: Rue Verdun, Imm Tasbahji (E), *Chargé d'Affaires* NOERDIN SUTAN TUMEGUNG
Iran: Corniche Mazraa, Imm Doaudlarian (L)
Iraq: Ramlat al Baida, Imm Ali Arab (E), *Ambassador* TALEB SHEBIB
Italy: Rue Maamari, Imm Cosmidis (E), *Ambassador* DIEGO SORO (also accredited to Kuwait)
Ivory Coast: (address not available) (E), *Ambassador* PIERRE GORA
Japan: Rue Chouran, Imm Olfat Nagib Salha (E), *Ambassador* SHUSAKU WADA (also accredited to Cyprus and Jordan)
Jordan: Imm Al Chams Raouché 6e Etage (E), *Ambassador* AKRAM ZUAITAR
Kuwait: Al Ramlat al Baida, Imm Ali Arab (E), *Ambassador* MUHAMMAD AL DASSANI
Liberia: Place de l'Etoile, Imm Acra (L), *Minister* HENRY GENAYEL
Libya: Corniche Mazraa, Imm Rizkallah Noubat (E), *Ambassador* OMAR AL BAROUNI (also accredited to Jordan)
Malta: Achrafé, rue Mariam Geahchary, Imm Varkes Sarafian (L), *Minister* UMBERTO TURATI

LEBANON—(DIPLOMATIC REPRESENTATION, PARLIAMENT)

Mexico: Rue Hamra, Imm. Arida (E); *Ambassador:* FRANCISCO OZONA.

Morocco: Corniche Mazraa, Imm. Chamat (E); *Ambassador:* AHMAD BEN SOUDA.

Nepal: Cairo, U.A.R. (E).

Netherlands: Rue Kantari, Imm. Sahmarani (E); *Ambassador:* CORNELIS VREEDE (also accred. to Cyprus and Jordan).

Norway: Cairo, U.A.R. (E); *Ambassador:* FREDERIK ANDERS JOHAN ORVIN.

Pakistan: Station Graham, Imm. Daouk (E); *Ambassador:* Air Comm. MAQBOOL RABB (also accred. to Cyprus and Jordan).

Panama: Roma Via Nicola Martilli 3 Parioti, B.P. 5197 (L); *Chargé d'Affaires:* Mme. ROSEMARY DOMINGUEZ.

Peru: Rue de Mexique, Imm. Khalil Salaman (E).

Poland: Rue Asile des Vieillards, Imm. Ibrahim Diab, Furn El-Chebbak, B.P. 2664 (E); *Ambassador:* Z. T. WOJEIK.

Portugal: Rue Maamari, Imm. Union de Paris (E); *Ambassador:* AUGUSTO LOPEZ.

Romania: Rue Badaro, Forêt Kfourî (E); *Ambassador:* Dr. IACOB IONASCU.

Saudi Arabia: Rue Bliss, Manara (E); *Ambassador:* Sheik MOHAMMED MANSOUR RUMATH.

Senegal: Rue D. Boustani (E); *Ambassador:* SALMONE FALL.

Spain: Rue Emir Omar, Imm. Khanamirina (E); *Ambassador:* JOSÉ LUIS FLOREZ ASTRADA AYALA.

Sudan: Rue Verdun, El Fayoumi (E); *Ambassador:* MOUSTAPHA MADANI.

Sweden: Rue Bliss, Imm. Farra (E); *Ambassador:* CLAES WOLLIN (also accred. to Cyprus and Jordan).

Switzerland: Avenue Perthuis, Imm. Achou (E); *Ambassador:* CHARLES ALBERT DUBOIS (also accred. to Jordan and Kuwait).

Thailand: Cairo, U.A.R. (E).

Tunisia: Rue Maamari, Imm. Chatila (E); *Ambassador:* SALAH-AL-DIN ABDALLAH.

Turkey: Rue Bliss, Imm. Nassif (E); *Ambassador:* (vacant) (also accred. to Kuwait).

U.S.S.R.: Rue Mar Elias El-Tina (E); *Ambassador:* SARVAR AZIMOV.

United Arab Republic: Rue Ramla El Baida (E); *Ambassador:* ABDEL HAMID GHALEB.

United Kingdom: Avenue de Paris, Ain-El-Mreissé (E); *Ambassador:* ALAN EDDEN.

United States of America: Avenue de Paris (Corniche), Imm. Ali Reza (E); *Ambassador:* WILLIAM B. BUFFUM.

Uruguay: Rue Fouad Ier, Ras el Nabeh, Imm. Bohsali (L); *Chargé d'Affaires:* JULIO CÉSAR CHELALA.

Vatican: Rue Georges Picot (Apostolic Nunciature); *Apostolic Nuncio:* Mgr. GAETANO ALIBRANDI.

Venezuela: Rue Kantari, Imm. Sahmarani (E); *Ambassador:* JUAN MOGNA (also accred. to Jordan and Kuwait).

Viet-Nam, Republic: Ankara, Turkey (E).

Yemen: Rue Verdun, Imm. Safieddine (E); *Ambassador:* MUHAMMAD ABDEL-KUDDOUS WAZIR.

Yugoslavia: Rue Sadat, Imm. Ladki, B.P. 742 (E); *Ambassador:* PETAR ZDRAVKOVSKI (also accred. to Jordan).

Lebanon also has diplomatic relations with the following states: Cameroon, Chad, Congo (Brazzaville), Cyprus, El Salvador, Guatemala, Guinea, Honduras, Hungary, Ireland, Luxembourg, Malawi, Malaysia, Mali, Monaco, Nicaragua, Paraguay, Philippines, Sierra Leone and Trinidad.

PARLIAMENT

CHAMBER OF DEPUTIES

The electoral reform bill of April 1960 maintained the existing ratio of 6 Christians to 5 Muslims in the Chamber of Deputies.

Speaker: KAMIL ASAAD

(General Election, April 1968)

RELIGIOUS GROUPS

Maronite Christians	30
Sunni Muslims	20
Shi'i Muslims	19
Greek Orthodox	11
Greek Catholics	6
Druses	6
Armenian Orthodox	4
Armenian Catholics	1
Protestants	1
Others	1
TOTAL							99

The diversity of party allegiance in the Chamber makes a strict analysis by party groupings impossible. The distribution of seats among religious groups however is laid down by law.

POLITICAL PARTIES

Baath Party Beirut Lebanese branch of Arab reformist party
Constitutional Party (Destour) Leader Sheikh KHALIL EL KHOURY
El Astand Group southern Muslims Leader KAMEL AL ASSAD
Lebanese Communist Party Beirut Sec. Gen. NICOLAS CRAOUL
Mouvement de l'Action Nationale f 1965 Leader UTHMAN DANA
National Bloc Leader RAYMOND EDDÉ
National Liberal Party Chouf Leader CAMILLE CHAMOUN

Party of Socialist Revolution f 1964 pro-Chinese Communist Chair YOUSSEF MOUBARAK Sec.-Gen. MOU STAFI CHAKER publ. *El Al Aman*
Phalangist (Kata'eb) Party Place Charles Hélon P O B 992 Beirut f 1936 democratic social party 60 000 mems Leader PIERRE GEMAYEL Vice-Pres. JOSEPH CHADER Gen Sec JOSEPH SAADE publ. *Al-Amal* (Arabic daily) *Action—Proche Orient* (French political and scientific monthly)
Progressive Socialist Party Leader KAMAL JUMBLAT
Social Nationalist Party (Partis Populaire Syrienne) resumed operations in 1969 advocates a Greater Syria Pres YOUSIF ASHQAR
Tachrek right wing Armenian party

JUDICIAL SYSTEM

Law and justice in the Lebanon are administered in accordance with the following codes which are based upon modern themes of civil and criminal legislation

- (1) Code de la Propriété (1930)
- (2) Code des Obligations et des Contrats (1932)
- (3) Code de Procédure Civile (1933)
- (4) Code de Commerce (1942)
- (5) Code Maritime (1947)
- (6) Code de Procédure Pénale (Code Ottoman Modifié)
- (7) Code Pénal (1943)
- (8) Code Pénal Militaire (1946)
- (9) Code d'Instruction Criminelle

The following courts are now established.

(a) Fifty six Single Judge Courts each consisting of a single judge and dealing in the first instance with both civil and criminal cases there are seventeen such courts at Beirut and seven at Tripoli

(b) Eleven Courts of Appeal each consisting of three judges including a President and a Public Prosecutor and dealing with civil and criminal cases there are five such courts at Beirut

(c) Four Courts of Cassation three dealing with civil and commercial cases and the fourth with criminal cases A Court of Cassation to be properly constituted must have at least three judges one being the President and the other two Councillors The First Court consists of the First President of the Court of Cassation a President and two Councillors The other two civil courts each consist of a President and three Councillors If the Court of Cassation reverses the judgment of a lower court it does not refer the case back but retries it itself.

First President of the Court of Cassation BADRI MEOUCHI

(d) The Council of State which deals with administrative cases It consists of a President Vice-President and four Councillors A Commissioner represents the Government

President of the Court of the Council of State ABOU KHAIR

(e) The Court of Justice which is a special court consisting of a President and eight judges deals with matters affecting the security of the State

In addition to the above Islamic Christian and Jewish religious courts deal with affairs of personal status (marriages deaths inheritances etc)

There is also a Press Tribunal

RELIGION

PRINCIPAL COMMUNITIES

Maronites	424 000
Greek Orthodox	149 000
Greek Catholic	91 000
Sunni Muslim	286 000
Shi'i Muslim	250 000
Druses	88 000

It will be seen that the largest single community in the Lebanon is the Maronite a Uniate sect of the Roman Church The Maronites inhabited the old territory of Mount Lebanon, i.e. immediately east of Beirut In the south towards the Israeli frontier Shi'i villages are most common whilst between the Shi'i and the Maronites live the Druses (divided between the Yazbakis and the Jumblatus) The BeLa'a has many Greek Christians whilst the Tripoli area is mainly Sunni Muslim Altogether of all the regions of the Middle East the Lebanon probably

presents the closest juxtaposition of sects and peoples with in a small territory As Lebanese political life is organized on a sectarian basis the Maronites also enjoy much political influence including a predominant voice in the nomination of the President of the Republic

Patriarch of Antioch of the Maronites H.E. Cardinal PAUL PIERRE MEOUCHI

Patriarch of Cilicia of the Armenians Rt Rev Mgr IGNACE PIERRE XVI BATANIAN

Patriarch of Antioch and all the Orient, Jerusalem and Alexandria (Greek Catholic) MAXIMOS V HAKIM

Union of the Armenian Evangelical Churches in the Near East P O Box 377 Beirut Moderator Prof Hov P AHARONIAN The Union includes some thirty Armenian Evangelical Churches in Syria Lebanon Egypt Cyprus Greece Iran and Turkey

THE PRESS

With 96 newspapers, some 40 of them dailies, serving a readership drawn from a population of only two and a half million, the Lebanese Press is highly competitive. It is also relatively free from external controls, compared with most of the other Middle East countries. Freedom of the press, along with freedom of expression and association, is guaranteed, within the limits of the law, by article 13 of the Constitution. However, the legal limitations on the expression of opinion are somewhat restrictive, so that, for example, it is an offence to defame a foreign head of state, or print false reports about government policies. The basic press law is that of 1948, under which all papers and periodicals have to be licensed by the Ministry of the Interior. The licence can be withdrawn if a paper ceases publication temporarily within six months of its inception, or if circulation drops below 1,500 for thirty days. The editor must have a university qualification, and must deposit a security. The 1948 law also made journalists subject to the judgements of a tribunal of discipline. After a period of conflict between the Government and the Press, the existing law was revised by the press law of 1958, which abolished the procedure for detaining journalists pending investigations, and, with certain exceptions, made it possible for persons convicted of infringement of press regulations to lodge an appeal.

The multiplicity of newspapers in the Lebanon is to a large extent a reflection of the diversity of religious, political and linguistic minorities. The majority of the dailies are published in Arabic, but a few serve French and Armenian readers and one, *The Daily Star*, English readers in the Lebanon. *The Daily Star* and one of the Armenian papers both circulate throughout the Middle East. Most of the dailies, all except one of which are centred on Beirut, are small-circulation papers supported by various interested groups. The consequent fragmentation of the reading public, exacerbated by the existence of some 50 non-dailies of general interest and about 100 other periodicals, has its corollary in low advertising rates and financial insecurity. Although the Lebanon is the only Arab country where the Press is still exclusively in private hands, the independence of the majority of newspapers is circumscribed by the necessity for continued support from the various political or other groups, and for government patronage, whether through official advertising or some other type of subsidy.

The most important dailies are *Al-Hayat* and *An-Nahar*, which have the highest circulations, *The Daily Star*, *Al-Jaryda* and *L'Orient*, the foremost French paper. The latter two are owned by Georges Naccache, former Lebanese ambassador to France, and tend to take a pro-government line. In a country where most of the élite speak French the other French dailies, *Le Jour* and *Le Soir*, are also influential, and, for the same reason, the twice-weekly publication *Le Commerce du Levant* occupies an important place in the periodical press.

The Lebanese Press has benefited indirectly from Beirut's status as by far the most important base for foreign correspondents covering the Middle East—by 1970 there were more than 120 of these. Long-distance communications have consequently been developed to a high standard.

DAILIES

- al-Amal:** Place Charles Hélou, P.O.B. 992, Beirut; f. 1939 as a weekly, 1946 as a daily; Phalangist Party; Arabic; circ. 8,000; Editor GEORGES OMEIRA.
- al-Anwar:** Dar Assayad, P.O.B. 1038, Beirut; f. 1959; political; Arabic; published by Dar Assayad S.A.L.; (has weekly supplements); Editors SAID and ISSAM FREIHA; circ. 48,000.

- al-Bairaq:** Rue Sursock, Beirut; National Bloc; Arabic; Editors ASSAD and FADEL AKL; circ. 3,000.
- Beirut al-Masa:** Place des Capucins, P.O.B. 1203, Beirut; Arabic; Editor ABDALLAH MASHNUQ; circ. 6,000.
- al Dastour:** Beirut; Editor MUHYEDDINE MIDANI; circ. 3,000.
- al Dunia:** P.O.B. 4599, Beirut; Arabic.
- al-Dyar:** Place Tabaris, P.O.B. 959, Beirut; f. 1941; independent; Arabic; Editor G. W. SKAFF; circ. 22,300.
- al Hadaf:** Rue Béchir, Immeuble Esseilé, P.O.B. 39, Beirut; Arabic; Editor ZOUHAIR OSSEIRAN.
- al-Hayat:** Rue Al-Hayat, P.O.B. 987, Beirut; f. 1946; independent; Arabic; circ. 25,000.
- al-Jaryda:** Place Tabaris, P.O.B. 220, Beirut; f. 1953; independent; Arabic; circ. 17,250; Editor GEORGES SKAFF.
- al-Kifah:** Rue Mère Gelas, P.O.B. 1462, Beirut; f. 1950; Arabic; Editor RIAD TAHA; circ. 21,000.
- Lissan-ul-Hal:** Rue Chateaubriand, P.O.B. 4619, Beirut; f. 1877; Arabic; Editor GEBRAN HAYEK; circ. 22,500.
- al Moharrer:** P.O.B. 5366, Beirut; Arabic; nationalist; Propr. and Editor HISHAM ABU DAHR; circ. 4,000.
- an-Nahar:** Rue Banque Centrale du Liban, Hamra; Press Co-operative Building, P.O.B. 226, Beirut; f. 1933; Arabic; independent; circ. 21,300 (Sundays 24,800); Chair. and Editor GHASSAN TUENI.
- Nida:** P.O.B. 4744, Beirut; Arabic; Communist; Editor SUHEIL YAMOUT; circ. 1,500.
- an-Nidal:** Rue Mère Yilas, Beirut, P.O.B. 1354; f. 1939; independent; Arabic; Editor MUSTAPHA MOQADDAM; circ. 25,000.
- Rakib al-Ahwal:** Rue Patriarche Hoyek, P.O.B. 467, Beirut; Arabic; Editor SIMA'N FARAH SEIF.
- ar-Rawwad:** Rue Mokhalsieh, P.O.B. 2696, Beirut; Arabic; Editor BESHARA MAROUN.
- as Safa:** P.O.B. 5213, Beirut; Arabic; independent; Propr. and Editor RUSHDI MALOUF; circ. 15,000.
- Saout Al Ourouba:** P.O.B. 3537, Beirut; Arabic.
- al Shanb:** P.O.B. 5140, Beirut; Arabic; nationalist; Propr. and Editor MUHAMMAD AMIN DUGHAN; circ. 4,000.
- al-Sharq:** Rue de la Marseillaise, P.O.B. 838, Beirut; f. 1945; Arabic; Editor KHAIRY AL-KA'KI.
- Telegraph-Beirut:** Rue Béchara el Khoury, P.O.B. 1061, Beirut; f. 1930; Arabic; political, economic and social; Editor TEWFIQ EL METNI; circ. 15,500 (5,000 outside Lebanon).
- al Yaum:** P.O.B. 1908, Beirut; Arabic; Editor AFIF TIBI.
- az-Zaman:** Rue Boutros Karamé, Beirut; Arabic; Editor ROBERT ABELA.
- Ararat:** Nor Hagin, Beirut; Hunchag Party; Armenian; Editor KRIKOR JABULIANO.
- Aztag:** Rue Zokak El-Blatt, P.O.B. 587, Beirut; Tachnak Party; Armenian; Editor HAKK BALKAN.
- Daily Star, The:** Rue Al-Hayat, P.O. Box 987, Beirut; f. 1952; independent; English; circ. 8,250; Editor GEORGE S. HISHMEH.
- Le Jour:** Rue de la Banque du Liban, P.O. Box 2488, Beirut; f. 1934; French; independent; Dir. JEAN CHOUERI.

LEBANON—(THE PRESS)

L'Orient Rue Trablous P O Box 688 Beirut f 1924 independent French circ 13 500 Editor GEORGES NACCACHE

Le Soir Rue de Syrie P O Box 1470 Beirut f 1947 political independent daily French circ 16 500 Gen Man. DIKRAN TOSBATH Chief Editor ANDRÉ KECATI

Zartouk Rue de l'Hôpital Français P O Box 617 Beirut f 1937 official organ of Armenian Liberal Democratic Party Armenian Editor P TOUMASSIAN

WEEKLIES

Ashabaka Dar Assayad P O Box 1038 Beirut f 1956 society and features Arabic Prop SAID FREIHA Editor GEORGE KHOURY circ 84 000

al Ahad Rue Mère Gelas P O B 1462 Beirut Arabic RIAD TAHA circ 32 000

al Anba Rue Maroun Naccache P O B 2893 Beirut Progressive Socialist Party Arabic Editor KAMAL JUMBLATT

al Anwar Supplement P O B 1038 Beirut cultural social every Sunday supplement to daily *al Anwar* Editor ROBERT GHANEM circ 50 000

al Ash Shihir 144 Rue Gouraud Beirut f 1948 Catholic Arabic Editor Father ANTOINE CORBAWI

al Awasfel Homs Bldg P O B 2492 Beirut f 1933 Arabic Trade union news Dir DABER KHALIL ZEIDAN circ 8 000

al Hawadess P O B 1281 Beirut f 1911 Arabic political Chaire and Gen Man SALIM LOUZI circ 30 000

al Hurriya P O B 857 Beirut f 1960 voice of Arab Nationalist Movement Arabic Chief Editor MUHSIN IBRAHIM circ 12 000

al Iza'a Rue Selim Jazaerly P O B 462 Beirut f 1938 political art literature and broadcasting Arabic circ 11 000 Editor FAYEK KHOURY

al Liwa Rue Abdel Kaim Khalil P O B 2402 Beirut Arabic Propri ABDEL GHANI SALAAM

al-Jamhour Mustapha Naja St. Mussaltbeh P O B 1834 Beirut f 1936 Arabic illustrated weekly news magazine Editor FARID ABU SHARLA circ 28 500 of which over 20 000 outs of Lebanon

al Rassad P O B 2808 Beirut Arabic Editor GEORGE RAJJJI

al Usbua al Arabi P O B 1404 Beirut f 1959 Arabic Publishers Les Editions Orientales S.A.L. Editor YASSER HAWARI circ 102 000 (circulates throughout the Arab world)

Argus Bureau des Documentations Libanaises et Arabes P O B 3000 Beirut circ 1 000

Assayad Dar Assayad P O B 1038 Beirut f 1943 Prop SAID FREIHA Editor JOHN OBEID circ 32 300

Combat Beirut French Editor GEORGES CORBAN

Commerce du Levant, Le P O B 687 Kantari St SFAH Bldg Beirut f 1929 twice weekly also publishes monthly edition commercial French circ 10 000 Editor Société de la Presse Economique Pres E S SHOUCAIR

Dabbour Museum Square Beirut f 1922 Arabic Editors MICHEL RICHARD and FUAD MUKARZEL circ 12 000

Kul Shay' Rue Béchara el Khoury P O B 3250 Beirut Arabic

Magazine P O B 1404 Beirut in French Publ Les Editions Orientales S.A.L. Editor MILAD SALAME circ. 8 345

Massis Place Debbas Beirut f 1949 Armenian Catholic Editor F VARTAN TEKEYAN circ 2 000

an Nahda Abdal Aziz St P O B 3736 Beirut Arabic independent Man. Editor NADIM ABOU ISMAIL

Revue du Liban Rue Allenby Beirut f 1928 French Editor EMILE MAKHLOUF circ 7 000

OTHER SELECTED PERIODICALS

Note published monthly unless otherwise stated

al Adib P O B 878 Beirut f 1942 Arabic artistic literary scientific and political Editor ALBERT ADIB

al Afkar Rue Mère Gelas Beirut international French Editor RIAD TAHA

al Intifak c/o Michel Nihmeh c/o Rihani Printing and Publishing House Beirut literary Arabic Prop and Chief Editor MICHEL NIHEM

al 'Ulum Dar al Ilm Lil Malayeen rue de Syrie P O B 1085 Beirut scientific review

Lebanese and Arab Economy Allenby Street P O Box 1801 Beirut f 1951 fortnightly Arabic English and French publisher Beirut Chamber of Commerce and Industry and SAMI N ATIYEH Editor and Dir ABDEL-WAHAB RIFA'I

Majallat Chir P O B 226 Beirut f 1957 literary quarterly published by Dar An Nahar S.A.L. Editor YUSUF AL KHAL circ 3 000

Majallat al Izzat al Loubnaniat Lebanese Broadcasting Corporat on Beirut Arabic broadcasting affairs

Naft al Arab Beirut f 1965 monthly Arabic edition of *Arab Oil and Gas Journal* Publisher ABDULLAH AL TARIQI

Nous Ouvriers du Pays 144 Rue Gouraud Beirut Catholic English French social welfare Editor Father ANTOINE CORBAWI

Rijal al Amal (Businessmen) P O B 220 Corniche Square Beirut business magazine Arabic with special issues in English and French Editor G W SKAFF circ 12 000

Sawt al Mar'ah Dar al Kitab P O B 1284 Beirut Lebanese Women's League Arabic Editor Mrs J SAKHOUN

Tabibak P O B 4887 Beirut medical Arabic Editor Dr SABRI KASANI circ 60 000

The Arab Economist BP 6068 Beirut and BP 2306 Damascus f 1969 French (f 1958) edit on published by Center for Economic Financial and Social Research and Documentation Dir DR CHAFIC AKHRAS

Welcome to Lebanon and the Middle East Tourist Information and Advertising Bureau Starco Centre North Block 711 P O B 4204 Beirut f 1959 on entertainment touring and travel English Editor SOUHAIL TOUFIK ABOU JAMRA circ 6 000

Alam Attijarat (Business World) Strand Bldg Hamra St Beirut f 1965 in association with Johnston International Publishing Corp'n New York bi monthly commercial Editor NADIM MAKDISI international circ. 13 500

NEWS AGENCIES

FOREIGN BUREAUX

ANSA Centre Starco Bloc Nord 4th floor Beirut Chief PIERO MANETTI

LEBANON—(THE PRESS, PUBLISHERS, RADIO AND TELEVISION)

AP: Antoine Massoud Building, Rue Mgr. Chebli, No. 12, Beirut; Chief of Middle East Services ROY ESSOYAN.

Četeka (Czechoslovak News Agency): P.O.B. 5069, Beirut; Chief Middle East Correspondent VLADIMIR OTRUBA.

Middle East News Agency: 72 Al Geish St., P.O.B. 2268, Beirut.

North American Newspapers Alliance: Palm-Beach Hotel, Beirut; Chief ANDREW J. NASH.

UPI: Press Co-operative Building, Rue Hamra, Beirut; Bureau Man. GERARD LOUGHRAN.

DPA, Iraq News Agency and Reuters also have offices in Beirut.

PRESS ASSOCIATION

Lebanese Press Syndicate: P.O.B. 3084, Beirut; f. 1911; 12 mems.; Pres. RIAD TAHA; Vice-Pres. DICRAN TOSBAT; Sec. HISHAM ABU-ZAHR.

PUBLISHERS

Dar al Adab: Beirut; literary and general.

Dar al Iim Lil Malayeen: Rue de Syria, P.O.B. 1085, Beirut; f. 1945; dictionaries, textbooks, Islamic cultural books; owners: MUNIR BA'ALBAKY and BAHIJ OSMAN.

Dar-Alkashaf: P.O. Box 2091, Pres. Chehab St., Beirut, f. 1930; publishers of *Alkashaf* (Arab Youth Magazine), maps and atlases; printers and distributors; Propr. M. A. FATALLA.

Dar al-Kitab al-Jadid: Hamra St., Hindi Building, P.O.B. 1284, Beirut; political studies; owner: FUAD BADR.

Dar al-Makshouf: Rue Amir Beshir, Beirut; scientific, cultural and school books; owner: Sheikh FUAD HOBEISH.

Dar Al-Maaref Liban S.A.L.: P.O.B. 2320, Esseily Bldg., Riad Al-Solh Square, Beirut; f. 1959; textbooks in Arabic, English and French; Gen. Man. JOSEPH NASHOU.

Dar Al Mashreq (Imprimerie Catholique): P.O.B. 946, Beirut; f. 1853; religion, art, literature, history, languages, science, philosophy, school books, dictionaries and periodicals; Dir. PAUL BROUWERS, SJ.

Dar An-Nahar S.A.L.: B.P. 226, Beirut; f. 1967; publishes *Majallat Chiir* (quarterly), circ. 3,000, and *Kadaya Moud'ssira* (quarterly), circ. 7,000; Gen. Man. CHARLES RAAD.

Dar Assayad S.A.L.: P.O.B. 1038, Beirut; f. 1943; publishes *Al-Anwar* (daily), circ. 48,000, *Assayad* (weekly), circ. 57,000, *Al-Tayar* (Daily), circ. 48,000 and *Achabaka* (weekly), circ. 109,700; has offices and correspondents

in Arab countries and most parts of the world; Chair. SAID FREIHA; Man. Dir. BASSAM FREIHA.

Dar Beirut: Librairie Beyrouth, Immeuble Lazariéh, rue Amir Bechir, Beirut; f. 1936; Prop. M. SAFIEDDINE.

Institute for Palestine Studies, Publishing and Research Department: Ashqar Bldg., Clémenceau St., P.O.B. 7164, Beirut; private non-profit making research organization; politics and current affairs.

The International Documentary Center of Arab Manuscripts: Syria St., Salha and Samadi Bldg., P.O.B. 2668, Beirut; f. 1965; publishes and reproduces ancient and rare Arabic texts; Propr. ZOUHAIR BAALBAKI.

Khayat Book and Publishing Co. S.A.L.: 90-94 rue Bliss, Beirut; history, literature, economy, language, Arabic reprints; Man. Dir. PAUL KHAYAT.

Librairie du Liban: Sq. Riad Solh, Beirut; languages and general books.

Middle East Publishing Co.: Beirut, Rue George Picot, Imm. El Kaissi; f. 1954; publishes *Medical Index* and *Revue Immobilière* (Real Estate); Man. Editor ELIE SAWAF.

New Book Publishing House: Beirut.

Rihani Printing and Publishing House: Selim Jazairi, Beirut; f. 1963; Propr. ALBERT RIHANI; Man. DAUOD STEPHAN.

Other publishing houses in Beirut include: *Dar al-Andalus*, *Dar Majalaat Shiir*, *Imprimerie Catholique*, *Imprimerie Universelle*, *Al Jamiya al Arabi*, *Al Kitab al Arabi*, *Librairie Orientale*, *Al Maktab al-Tijari*, *Middle East Stamps Inc.*, *Mu'assasat al-Marif*, *Nofal and Bait al Hikmat*, *Saidar*.

RADIO AND TELEVISION

RADIO

Lebanese Broadcasting Station: rue Arts et Métiers, Beirut; is a part of the Ministry of Guidance and Information; f. 1937; Dir.-Gen. K. HAGE ALI; Technical Dir. J. ROUHAYEM; Dir. of Programmes C. MENESEA; Head of Administration A. AOUN.

The Home Service broadcasts in Arabic on short wave, the Foreign Service broadcasts in Portuguese, Arabic, Spanish, French and English.

In 1969 there were 590,000 radio sets.

TELEVISION

Compagnie Libanaise de Télévision (C.L.T.): P.O.B. 4848, Beirut; f. 1959; commercial service; programmes in Arabic, French and English on four channels; Dir.-Gen. General S. NOFAL; Programme Dir. PAUL TANNOUS.

Télé Orient: P.O.B. 5054, Beirut; f. 1962; Compagnie de Télévision du Liban et du Proche-Orient (S.A.L.); commercial service; programmes in Arabic, French and English on two channels (11 and 5); Dir.-Gen. HAROLD JAMIESON.

There were 300,000 television sets in service in 1969.

FINANCE

cap = capital, p u = paid up dep = deposits m = million L£ = Lebanese £

Beirut has for long been the leading financial and commercial centre in the Middle East, as can be seen from the extensive list of banking organizations given below. However, public confidence in the banking system was strained by the closing of the Intra Bank the largest domestic bank, late in 1966 when its liquid funds proved insufficient to cope with a run of withdrawals. The bank obtained enough guarantees to re open in January 1968 though it is now an investment bank managed by a New York company. Before this crisis the government had passed a law stipulating a minimum capital of £1.3 million for all banks. This was followed in 1967 by a new law authorising a government take-over of a private bank facing difficulties threatening the interests and deposits of its clients. All depositors are to be paid in full by the State. This law was invoked in June 1968 when the Banque al Ahli was taken over. The new Bank Control Commission has taken over a number of small banks and assisted in the liquidation of several others. The major foreign owned banks now have a much larger proportion of deposits than before the Intra crisis and a number of the major American banks have acquired interests in Beirut.

CENTRAL BANK

Bank of Lebanon: rue Masraf Loubnane, Beirut, P O B 5544, Beirut, f 1964 central bank, cap L£15m; Gov ELIAS SARKIS

PRINCIPAL LEBANESE BANKS

Bank of Beirut and the Arab Countries S.A.L.: Allenby Street P O B 1536 Beirut, f 1957, cap L£5m, dep L£65.06m (1970) Chair TOUFIK S ASSAF, Vice-Chair and Gen. Man NASHAT SHEIKH EL-ARD, Joint Gen Man AMIN M ALAMEH

Banque al-Ahli (Banque Nationale) Foncière, Commerciale et Industrielle S.A.L.: Rue Foch, Beirut, P O B 2868, f 1953 cap and reserves L£12.3m, dep L£52.4m (December 1967), Pres and Gen Man JOSEPH SALEM (see note above)

Banque Audi S.A.L.: rue Al Arz, Imm Beydoun P O Box 2560, f 1928 as Oudh and Joseph Audi since 1962 known as Banque Audi S A L, cap p u L£4.5m dep L£68.3m (1970), Pres and Dir Gen. GEORGES OUDH AUDI

Banque de Crédit Agricole, Industriel et Foncier: Beirut, f 1954, Dir Gen SHEIKH BOUTROS EL KHOURY, took over several banks in 1967-68 including Banque de l'Economie Arabe, Banque d'Epargne and Union National Bank

Banque de Crédit National S.A.L.: rue Allenby, Beirut, P O Box 204 f 1959 (f 1920 as Banque Jacob E Safra) cap and reserves L£3.5m dep L£13.5m (December 1969), Pres and Gen Man EDMOND J SAFRA Man HENRI KRAYEM

Banque de l'Industrie et du Travail, S.A.L.: B P 3948 rue Road Solh, Beirut f 1960 cap L£10m dep L£48m (1969), Chair NADIA EL-KHOURY, Gen. Man. W F GOSLING O R E

Banque du Liban et d'Outre-Mer (S.A.): ave Foch, P O B 1912 Beirut f 1951, cap p u L£5m Pres HE HUSSEIN BEY AOUENI

Banque Libanaise pour le Commerce S.A.L.: P O B 1126, Beirut, cap L£5m, Man JEAN FARIES SAAD ABUJOUADE

Banque Libano-Bresilienne S.A.L.: P O B 3310, Maarad St, Beirut, f 1962, cap L£3m, Gen Man J A GHOSN

Banque Misr-Liban (S.A.L.): rue Riad El Solh, Beirut, cap p u L£5m, Pres MOHAMMED RUCHDI, Gen. Man DIR MOHAMMED ALI EL SALLAB

Banque Nasr Libano-Africaine S.A.L.: B P 798 Tayara Bldg, Foch St, Beirut, f 1963 cap L£3m, Pres DIAB NASR

Banque Sabbag S.A.L.: P O B 144, Bab-Edriss Beirut, f 1880 as H Sabbag & Fils, since 1950 a joint stock company with Banque de L'Indochine and Banca Commerciale Italiana cap L£6m, dep L£68m (1968) Chair PAUL-MARIE CRONIER

Banque Saradar S.A.L.: Kassatly Bldg, Fakhry Bey St, Beirut, P O B 1121, f 1948, cap p u L£3m dep L£30.2m (1970) Pres Gen Man JOE MARIUS SARADAR, Man ABDO I JEFFI

Banque S. Shoucair S.A.L.: B P 224 Allenby St, Beirut, f 1953 cap L£6m Chair SAMI F SHOUCAIR

Banque G. Trad (Crédit Lyonnais) S.A.L.: Weygand St, Beirut f 1951, cap L£3m, dep L£95.0m (1968), Pres G G TRAD

Beirut-Riyad Bank S.A.L.: Beirut Riyad Bank Bldg, Road Solh St P O B 4668, Beirut, f 1950, cap p u L£12.5m dep L£74m (1968), Pres and Gen Man HUSSEIN MANSOUR

Continental Development Bank, S.A.L.: Beydoun Bldg Arz St Beirut P O B 3270, f 1961, cap L£8m, Chair and Gen Man LEO C DE GRUIS

Banque de la Méditerranée S.A.L.: P O B 348 Beirut f 1944 cap L£5m dep L£23m (1970), Pres JOSEPH S NAGGEAR Gen Man JOSEPH A EL KHOURY

Federal Bank of Lebanon S.A.L.: Parliament Square P O B 2209 Beirut, f 1952, cap L£10m Pres M SAAB, Vice Pres A FARID M SAAB Mans G A KHOURY, A B ATAMIAN

Intra Bank: Abdel Aziz St, Beirut, f 1952, re-opened 1968, Chair and Gen Man PIERRE DAGHER

MERCQ BANK—Middle East Banking Co. S.A.L.: R P 3540 Beydoun Bldg, Beirut f 1959, cap p u L£6.25m, dep L£29m (1970), Chair M J BEYDOUN

Rihbank S.A.L.: Head Office B P 5727 rue Trablos, Beirut, f 1965 in association with J Henry Schroder Wagg & Co Ltd Commerzbank AG The National Bank of Kuwait S A K The Commercial Bank of Kuwait S A K cap p u L£4m dep L£60.4m (1970) Chair A A HASSAM Man G H CLAYTON, F I B

Société Bancaire du Liban S.A.L.: rue Allenby, Beirut P O B 435 f 1899 cap p u and reserves L£3.8m, dep L£25.5m (Dec 1970) Chair S S LEVY

Société Générale Libano-Européenne de Banque S.A.L.: P O B 2955 Beirut f 1953, cap p u L£5m, dep L£70m. (1969) Chair A M SEHNAOUI Gen Man GERARD GLOREUX

Société Nouvelle de la Banque de Syrie et du Liban S.A.L.: P O B 957, Beirut, f 1963, Pres PHILIPPE DUPERON

Trans Orient: Beirut, f 1966, cap p u L£3m; joint venture with the International Bank of Washington and Lebanese private investors

PRINCIPAL FOREIGN BANKS

Algemene Bank Nederland N.V. (*General Bank of the Netherlands*): Amsterdam; P.O.B. 3012, Beirut.

Arab Bank Ltd.: Amman; Beirut; f. 1930.

Arab African Bank: Cairo; P.O.B. 6066, Riad el Solh St., Beirut.

Banco Atlantico: Barcelona 8, Spain; Arab Bank Bldg., Riad Solh St., Beirut.

Banco di Roma: Rome, Italy; Beirut.

Bank of America (National Trust and Savings Asscn.): San Francisco; P.O.B. 3965, Beirut; f. 1904; Regional Vice-Pres. JAMES TOILLION.

Bank of Nova Scotia: Toronto, Ont.; Riad el Solh St., P.O.B. 4446, Beirut.

Bank of Tokyo: Tokyo; Arab Bank Bldg., P.O.B. 1187, Beirut; Rep. Y. MORIMOTO.

Bank Saderat Iran: Teheran, Iran; Beirut.

Bankers Trust Co.: New York, U.S.A.; Shaker Oueini Bldg., Place Riad Solh, P.O.B. 6239, Beirut; f. 1903; Vice-Pres. and resident rep. MICHAEL D. ASHMORE.

Banque Libano-Francaise-Beyrouth: 1 Rue Riad El Solh; f. 1968; cap. p.u. L£5m.; dep. L£150m. (Dec. 1970); Pres. and Chair. BERNARD BEAU; Man. Dir. MICHEL VALENTIN-SMITH.

Banque Nationale pour le Commerce et l'Industrie (Afrique) (S.A.): Paris; rue Allenby, Beirut.

Banque pour le Développement Commercial: Geneva, Switzerland; Beirut.

Bayerische Vereinsbank: Munich; K.L.M. Bldg., rue de l'Armée, B.P. 3247, Beirut; rep. PETER SCHMID-LOSSBERG; also representing Berliner Bank A.G., Frankfurter Bank, Handels- und Gewerbebank Heilbronn A.G., Norddeutsche Kreditbank A.G., Vereinsbank in Hamburg, Westfalenbank A.G.

Berliner Bank: Berlin; P.O.B. 3247, Beirut (*see* Bayerische Vereinsbank).

British Bank of the Middle East: London; Beirut; brs. at Ras Beirut, St. George's Bay, Mazra'a and Tripoli.

Chase Manhattan Bank, N.A.: New York; P.O.B. 3684, Beirut; Vice-Pres. PATRICK K. HEALEY; Rep. CHARLES L. WIDNEY.

Chemical Bank: 20 Pine St., New York 10015; P.O.B. 7286, Riad el Solh St., Beirut; Rep. MICHAEL DAVIES.

Commercial Bank of Czechoslovakia: Prague, Czechoslovakia; Middle East Office: B.P. 5928, Beirut.

Commerzbank A.G.: Düsseldorf, Frankfurt, Hamburg, Berlin, German Federal Republic; P.O. Box 3246, Beirut.

Crédit Foncier d'Algérie et de Tunisie (S.A.): 5 Bd. de la Madeleine, Paris; Beirut.

Dresdner Bank A.G.: Frankfurt/Main, Federal Republic of Germany; Imm. Starco, B.P. 4831, Beirut; Reps. M. S. HADDAD and REINER AURICH.

The Eastern Bank Ltd.: London; P.O.B. 3996, Riad el Solh St., Beirut; Man. in Beirut G. R. LOVELL.

First National City Bank: New York, N.Y. 10022; P.O.B. 3648, Beirut; Res. Vice-Pres. C. VAUGHN WILSON, Rep. for Middle East and North Africa N. L. ANSCHVETZ.

Frankfurter Bank: Frankfurt, German Federal Republic; P.O.B. 3247, Beirut (*see* Bayerische Vereinsbank).

Habib Bank (Overseas) Ltd.: Karachi, Pakistan; Beirut.

Handels- U. Gewerbebank Heilbronn A.G.: Heilbronn (Neckar), German Federal Republic; P.O.B. 3247, Beirut (*see* Bayerische Vereinsbank).

Jordan National Bank, S.A.: Amman, Jordan; Beirut.

Manufacturers Hanover Trust Co.: New York; B.I.T. Bldg., Riad el-Solh St., Beirut; Rep. HASSAN HUSSEINI.

Morgan Guaranty Trust Co.: New York, U.S.A.; P.O.B. 5752, Beirut-Riyad Bank Bldg., rue Riyad Solh, Beirut; Rep. in Middle East P. J. DE ROOS.

Moscow Narodny Bank Ltd.: Head Office: London, E.C.4; Beirut Branch: P.O.B. 5481, Beirut; Man. in Beirut V. V. GERASCHENKO.

Norddeutsche Kreditbank: Bremen, German Federal Republic; P.O.B. 3247, Beirut (*see* Bayerische Vereinsbank).

Rafidain Bank: Head Office: Baghdad, Iraq; Beirut Branch: Bazirkan St., Beirut, P.O.B. 1891; f. 1941.

Royal Bank of Canada (Middle East) S.A.L.: Toronto; P.O.B. 2520, SFAH Bldg., Kantari, Beirut.

Saudi National Commercial Bank: Jeddah, Saudi Arabia; P.O.B. 2355, Beirut; f. 1938.

Société Centrale de Banque: Paris, France; rue Omar Daouk, Beirut.

Société Tunisienne de Banque: Tunis, Tunisia; Place Riad Solh, Imm. Shaker Oueyni, Beirut; f. 1957; Dir. in Lebanon T. MOALLA.

Vereinsbank in Hamburg: Hamburg, German Federal Republic; P.O.B. 3247, Beirut (*see* Bayerische Vereinsbank).

Westfalenbank: Bochum, German Federal Republic; P.O.B. 3247, Beirut (*see* Bayerische Vereinsbank).

Association of Banks in Lebanon: P.O.B. 976, Beirut; Pres. JOSEPH GEAGEA; Gen. Sec. Dr. PIERRE NASRALLAM.

INSURANCE

NATIONAL COMPANIES

"La Phenicienne" (S.A.L.) (formerly *al Ahh*): Imm. Daaboul, Rue Foch, P.O.B. 5652, Beirut; f. 1964; Chair. D. KETTANEH; Man. G. B. ASSOUD.

al-Ittihad al-Watani: Head Office: Immeuble Fattal, P.O.B. 1270, Beirut; Chair. DESIRÉ KETTANEH.

Arabia Insurance Co. Ltd. S.A.L.: Arabia House, 133 Phoenicia St., P.O.B. 2172, Beirut; Pres. and Gen. Man. BASIM AMIN FARIS.

Commercial Insurance Co., S.A.L.: Starco Centre, P.O. Box 4351, Beirut; f. 1962; Chair. J. SABET; Gen. Man. R. M. ZACCAR.

Compagnie Libanaise d'Assurances (S.A.L.): Riad El Solh Street, P.O. Box 3685, Beirut; f. 1951; Managing Dir. JEAN F. S. ABIJAOUDE; Man. PEDRO J. S. ABIJAOUDE.

Some twenty of the major European companies are also represented in Beirut.

TRADE AND INDUSTRY

CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY

Beirut Chamber of Commerce and Industry: Ayass Bldg, Allenby St, P O B 1801 Beirut f 1898, 7 000 mems, Pres KAMAL JABRE Gen. Dir WALID AHDAB, publ *The Lebanese and Arab Economy* (twenty issues per annum)

Tripoli Chamber of Commerce and Industry: Tripoli.

Sidon Chamber of Commerce and Industry: Sidon

Zahlé Chamber of Commerce and Industry: Zahlé f 1939 425 mems Pres ALFRED SKAFF

Association des Industriels du Liban: Beirut

EMPLOYERS ASSOCIATION

Association of Lebanese Industrialists: Immeuble Assely, Rue Tripoli, Beirut

Conseil National du Patronat: Beirut, f 1965

TRADE UNION FEDERATIONS

Confédération Générale des Travailleurs du Liban (C G T. L.): Beirut confederation of the following four federations, Pres GABRIEL KHOURY

Federation of Independent Trade Unions: Central Bldg rue Mère Galace Beirut, f 1953 estimated 2 250 mems in 11 trade unions affiliated to Confed of Arab T U's Pres NABIL GHOSN, Sec Gen RAFIK SALAM publ *Sawt al 'Amel*

Federation of Unions of Workers and Employees of North Lebanon: Al Ahrām Building, Abu-Wadi Square, Tripoli f 1954, affiliated to Confed of Arab T U's, 3 700 mems in 14 trade unions Pres MOUSTAFA HAMZI, Sec Gen KHALED BARADI publ *Al A mel*

Ligue des Syndicats des Employés et des Ouvriers dans la République Libanaise (League of Trade Unions of Employees and Workers in the Lebanese Republic) Immeuble Rivoli Place des Canons, Beirut, f 1946 estimated 6 000 mems in 21 trade unions, affiliated to ICFU, Pres HUSSEIN ALI HUSSEIN, Vice Pres HALIM MATTAR Sec Gen FOUAD KHARANOUH Foreign Sec ANTOINE CHIHAI Del to ICFU and mem of Exec Cttee ANTOINE CHIHAI publ *Al Awassef*

United Unions for Employees and Workers: Imm Waqf Bzoumar rue Béchara el Khoury Beirut B P 3636, f 1952 affiliated to ICFU 16 000 mems in 21 trade unions, Pres GABRIEL KHOURY, Sec Gen ANTOINE AOUN publ *La Gazette*

In 1968 there were five smaller federations

RESEARCH CENTRE

ICFTU Trade Union Research Centre: P O B 3180, Beirut, f 1964

TRANSPORT

RAILWAYS

Office des Chemins de Fer de l'Etat Libanais et du Transport en Commun de Beyrouth et de sa Banlieue: Head Office Beirut, since 1960 all railways in Lebanon have been state-owned There are 208 miles of standard-gauge railway and 51 miles of narrow gauge local lines Dir.-Gen. ANTOINE BAROUKI

ROADS

Lebanon has 7 000 km of roads of which 1 990 km are main roads Most are generally good by Middle Eastern standards The two international motorways are the north-south coastal road and the road connecting Beirut with Damascus in Syria Among the major roads are that crossing the Bekaa and continuing South to Bent Jbal and the Chataura Baalbek road Hard surfaced roads connect Jezzine with Moukhtara Bzebdine with Metn, Meyroub, with Afka and Tannourine

Automobile et Younging Club du Liban: Immeuble Fattal rue du Port, Beirut

SHIPPING

Beirut is the principal port of call for the main shipping and forwarding business for the Levant Tripoli, the northern Mediterranean terminus of the oil pipeline from Iraq (the other is Haifa) is also a busy port, with good equipment and facilities Saida is still relatively unimportant as a port

There are many shipping companies and agents in Beirut The following are some of the largest

"Adriatica" S p A: Rue Roud E Solh Immeuble Gellad Beirut P O B 1472 Dir ALDO SILLI

American Lebanese Shipping Co. S A L: P O B 215 Imm Fattal rue du Port Beirut

American Levant Shipping & Distributing Co: P O B 1429 Rue Patriarch Hoyek Immeuble Anwar Dassouki & Co, agents for Holland America Line Lykes Bros Steamship Co, Prudential Steamship Corp., Chevron Shipping Co, Cro Pelligno & Figlio Bernare-Marittima di Navigazione branches and correspondents throughout Middle East, Man Dir SAMIR ISHAQ

Ets. René Balgis: Port St, P O B 806, agents for Hellenic Mediterranean Lines Ltd (Piræus), Linea "C" Costa Armatori s.p.a. (Genoa) Home Lines (Genoa) Sun Lines (Athens) and other companies

Catani & Co. S A L: P O B 800 rue du Port f 1960 Chair H J BEARD agents for British Maritime Agencies (Levant) Ltd, Royal Netherlands Steamship Co, Lloyd's

Ets. Derviche Y. Haddad: rue du Port agents for Arment Deppe Antwerp

Daher & Cie. S A L: Byblos Bldg, Place des Martyrs, P O B 254 agents for Cie de Navigation Daher Concordia Line Navale et Commerciale Havraise Peninsulaire Société Maritime des Petroles B P, Cie Navale des Petroles Cie Générale Transatlantique Cie de Navigation Paquet Medlakes Services

O. D. Debbas & Sons: Head Office Sahmaran Bldg, Kantary St. P O B 3 Beirut Man. Dir ELIE O DEBBAS

British Maritime Agencies (Levant) Ltd: rue du Port, agents for Ellerman and Papayanni Line Ltd, Ellerman's Wilson Line Ltd Prince Line Ltd, etc

Fauzi Jemil Ghandour: P.O.B. 1084; agents for: Denizçilik Bankası T.A.O. (Denizyolları), D.B. Deniz Nakliyatı T.A.Ş., Iraqi Maritime Transport Co.

T. Gargour & Fils: rue Foch, P.O.B. 371; f. 1928; agents for: Argo-Nah-Ost Linie, Atlas Levant Linie; Dirs. NICOLAS T. GARGOUR, HABIB T. GARGOUR.

Henry Heald & Co. S.A.L.: Im. Fattal, Rue du Port, P.O.B. 64; f. 1837; agents for: Canadian Pacific Lines, Nippon Yusen Kaisha, P. & O. Orient Lines, B.I., Royal Mail Lines, Scandinavian Near East Agency, Vanderzee Shipping Agency, Worms and Co.; Chair. J. L. JOLY; Dir. G. HANI.

Hitti Frères: Parliament Square, P.O. Box 511; agents for: General Steam Navigation Co. Ltd. of Greece (Greek Line), United States Lines, Royal Mail Line, Canadian Pacific Lines.

Khedivial Mail Line: Rue du Port.

Raymond A. Makzoumé: rue de la Marseillaise, P.O.B. 1357; agents for: Jugoslav Lines, Italian Lines, Hellenic Lines Ltd. (New York), Fenton Steamship Co. Ltd. (London).

Messageries Maritimes: Rue Allenby, P.O. Box 880.

Rudolphe Saade & Co., S.A.L.; Rue de la Marseillaise; agents for American Export and Isbrandtsen Lines.

CIVIL AVIATION

MEA (*Middle East Airlines, Air Liban*): MEA Bldgs., Airport Blvd., Beirut, P.O.B. 206; f. 1945; regular services throughout Europe, the Middle East and Africa; fleet partly destroyed by the Israeli raid on Beirut airport in December 1968; now operating fleet of 1 Comet 4C, 1 Caravelle VIN, 2 CV990A and 8 Boeings; Pres. and Chair. Sheikh NAJIB ALAMEDDIN; Gen. Man. ASAD NASR; publs. *Lebanon Fortnightly*, *Cedar-wings* (monthly), *Cedar Jet Travel Trade News* (monthly).

Trans-Mediterranean Airways (TMA): Assaf Bldg., Rue Hamra, P.O.B. 3018, Beirut; f. 1953; world-wide cargo services to New York, London, Stockholm, Amsterdam, Copenhagen, Frankfurt, Paris, Basel, Dharhan, Dubai, Abu Dhabi, Baghdad, Teheran, Bahrein, Kuwait, Doha, Jeddah, Amman, Abadan, Kabul, Karachi, Bombay, Calcutta, Bangkok, Taipei, Manila, Osaka and Tokyo, Singapore, Khartoum, Tripoli, Benghazi; Pres. and Chair. MUNIR ABU-HAIDAR.

The following foreign companies also operate services to Lebanon: Aeroflot, Air Algérie, Air France, Air India, A.L.I.A., Alitalia, Ariana Afghan Airlines, A.U.A., B.O.A.C., C.S.A., Ethiopian, Garuda, Ghana Airways, Iberia, Interflug, Iranair, Iraqi Airways, J.A.L., J.A.T., K.L.M., Kuwait Airways, Libyan Arab Airlines, L.O.T., Lufthansa, Malev, Olympic Airways, P.A.A., P.I.A., Sabena, S.A.S., Saudi Arabian Airlines, Sudan Airways, Swissair, Syrian Arab Airlines, Tarom (Romania), T.H.Y. (Turkey), T.W.A., U.A.A., U.T.A., Varig, Viasa and Yemen Republic Airlines.

TOURISM

Ministry of Tourism: P.O.B. 5344, Beirut, f. 1966; official organization; Dir.-Gen. Dr. HASSAN EL HASSAN.

National Council of Tourism: P.O.B. 3544, rue de la Banque du Liban, Beirut; government-sponsored autonomous organization; overseas offices in New York, Paris, Frankfurt, Stockholm, Brussels and Cairo.

THEATRES

Baalbek Festival Modern Theatre Group: Baalbek; Dir. MOUNIR ABU-DEBS.

National Theatre: Beirut; Dir. NIZAR MIKATI.

EDUCATION

Until 1949 facilities for public education were provided only at the primary stage and they were considerably outnumbered by foreign and private institutions. Since the end of the French mandate in 1944, public education has greatly developed and now reaches all levels of instruction. However, private institutions still provide the main facilities for secondary and university education. Private schools enjoy almost complete autonomy except for a certain number which receive government financial aid and are supervised by the Ministry's inspectors.

The primary course lasts for five years and leads to the primary studies certificate examination. It is followed either by the seven-year secondary school, or by the four-year higher primary school. The baccalaureate examination is taken in two parts at the end of the sixth and seventh years of secondary education, and a public examination is taken at the end of the higher primary course. Technical education is provided mainly at the National School of Arts and Crafts, which offers three-year courses in building management, civil engineering, mechanics and industrial chemistry. There are also vocational schools for carpenters and electricians, and a domestic science college.

Higher education is provided by five universities, including the Lebanese University established by the government in 1953. In 1968-69 over 31,000 students attended Lebanese universities and higher education centres; about 80 per cent of these were male, but only

48 per cent were Lebanese citizens. Teacher training is given at various levels. A two-year course which follows the upper primary school trains primary school teachers and this can be followed by a further two-year course training teachers for the upper primary school. Secondary school teachers are trained at the Higher Teachers' College at the Lebanese University. A rural teacher-training school offers a five-year course for pupils holding the primary studies certificate and trains teachers for rural schools in villages having less than a thousand inhabitants.

For the year 1970 the budget of the Ministry of National Education amounted to £L23,600,000 or 16.7 per cent of state expenditure. Free primary education was introduced in 1960 and by 1966-67 there were altogether 1,856 primary, 487 higher primary and 220 secondary schools, containing over 500,000 pupils and some 25,000 teachers.

LEARNED SOCIETIES AND RESEARCH INSTITUTES

(see also under Universities)

Association des Bibliothèques Libanaises: c/o Bibliothèque Nationale, Place de l'Etoile, Beirut.

Association Libanaise des Sciences Juridiques: Faculté de Droit et des Sciences Economiques, Université Saint

- Joseph BP 293 Beirut f 1963 represents the Lebanon in the International Association of Legal Science Pres Prof PIERRE GANNAGÉ.
- British Council Fawzi Azar Building, Sidani Street Beirut has close links with the universities and maintains a library (see Librarians) Representative O J J TUCKLEY OBE
- Centre Culturel Allemand rue Bliss BP 518r Beirut f 1954 Dir Dr H MEINEL br at Tripoli.
- Centre Culturel Hispanique (*Spanish Cultural Centre*) Rue de Lyon Beirut
- Conseil National de la Recherche Scientifique Beirut Pres JOSEPH NAJJAR
- Institut de Géographie du Proche et Moyen Orient Avenue de Damas BP 269r Beirut f 1946 Dir M. LE LANNOU
- Institut de Gestion des Entreprises (*Institute of Business Development*) Faculté de Droit et des Sciences Economiques Université Saint Joseph BP 293 Beirut f 1957 Dir ROLAND FRINGUEY
- Institut de Recherches d'Economie Appliquée (*see under* Université Saint Joseph)
- Institut Français d'Archéologie rue Georges Picot, P O B 1424 Beirut f 1946 Dir DANIEL SCHLUMBERGER library publs Syria *Revue d'Art et d'Archéologie* (47 vols published) and *Bibliothèque Archéologique et Historique* (93 vols published)
- Institut Libanais des Sciences Criminelles Faculté de Droit et des Sciences Economiques Université Saint Joseph BP 293 Beirut f 1964 Dir CÉSAR NASR.
- Institute for Palestine Studies Ein el Mrayseh Talat Jumlat Askar Bldg P O B 7164 Beirut f. 1963 independent non profit Arab research organization to promote a better understanding of the Palestine problem publishes monographs research papers documentary material including an annual collection of international documents on the Palestine problem in English reprints of major works on Palestine and an annual yearbook in Arabic library of 6 000 vols (Arabic Hebrew English and French) microfilm collection and archives Chair CONSTANTINE ZURAYK Exec Sec WALID KHALIDY Admin Sec ANTOINE BUTROS.
- Istituto Italiano di Cultura rue Sadat 39 P O B 4128 Beirut f 1951 library of 6 000 vols Dir Prof GIOVANNI MAFFEA
- John F Kennedy American Center Abdul Aziz St Beirut formerly U S Information Center
- Off. de la Recherche Scientifique et Technique Outre Mer Mission (ORSTOM) (*auprès de l'Institut de Recherches Agronomiques*) Laboratoire de Favar Jde deh El Metu pedology phytopathology Dr P WILLIAMS

LIBRARIES

- Bibliothèque de l'Ecole Supérieure des Lettres rue de Damas Beirut Librarian FADL KASSEM number of volumes 22 000
- Bibliothèque de l'Institut Français d'Archéologie rue Georges Picot P O B 1424 Beirut f 1946 Dir DANIEL SCHLUMBERGER number of volumes 23 000
- Bibliothèque Nationale du Liban Beirut f 1901 Dir ABDALLAH TABBAE copyright library depository for UN documents number of volumes 100 000 and 2 500 MSS

- Bibliothèque Orientale Université St Joseph P O B 293 Beirut f 1881 Dr Rev JOHN WILLIAMS 53 number of volumes 150 000 number of MSS 2 800 number of periodicals 650
- British Council Library Beirut f 1946 19 100 vols Librarian Miss ELEANOR J STORRY
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Number of students: 365.

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Number of teachers: 17.

Number of students: 135.

Publication: *NEST Quarterly*.

TECHNICAL COLLEGE AMILIEH

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Libya

PHYSICAL AND SOCIAL GEOGRAPHY

Libya, until recently three Federated States, is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean Sea, on the east by Egypt and the Sudan, on the south and south-west by Chad and Niger, on the west by Algeria, and on the north west by Tunisia. The three component areas of Libya are Tripolitania, in the west, with an area of 110,000 sq miles, Cyrenaica in the east, area 350,000 sq miles, and the Fezzan in the south, area 220,000 sq miles—total for Libya, 680,000 sq miles. The independence of Libya was proclaimed in December 1951; before that date following conquest from the Italians, Tripolitania and Cyrenaica had been ruled by a British administration, at first military, then civil, and the Fezzan had been administered by France. The revolutionary government which came to power in September 1969 has formally re-named the three regions Tripolitania became known as the Western provinces, Cyrenaica the Eastern provinces, and the Fezzan the Southern provinces.

PHYSICAL FEATURES

The whole of Libya may be said to form part of the vast plateau of North Africa, which extends from the Atlantic Ocean to the Red Sea, but there are certain minor geographical features which give individuality to the three component areas of Libya. Tripolitania consists of a series of regions of different level, rising in the main towards the south, and thus broadly comparable with a flight of steps. In the extreme north, along the Mediterranean coast, there is a low lying coastal plain called the Jefara. This is succeeded inland by a line of hills, or rather a scarp edge, that has several distinguishing local names, but is usually alluded to merely as the Jebel. Here and there in the Jebel occur evidences of former volcanic activity—old craters, and sheets of lava. The Jefara and adjacent parts of the Jebel are by far the most important parts of Tripolitania, since they are better watered and contain most of the population, together with the capital town Tripoli.

South of the Jebel there is an upland plateau—a dreary desert landscape of sand, scrub and scattered irregular masses of stone. After several hundred miles the plateau gives place to a series of east-west running depressions, where artesian water, and hence oases, are found. These depressions make up the region of the Fezzan, which is merely a collection of oases on a fairly large scale, interspersed with areas of desert. In the extreme south the land rises considerably to form the mountains of the central Sahara where some peaks reach 12,000 ft. in height.

Cyrenaica has a slightly different physical pattern. In the north along the Mediterranean, there is an upland plateau that rises to 2,000 ft. in two very narrow steps, each only a few miles wide. This gives a bold prominent coastline to much of Cyrenaica, and so there is a marked contrast with Tripolitania where the coast is low lying, and in parts fringed by lagoons. The northern uplands of Cyrenaica are called the Jebel Akhdar (Green Mountain), and here, once again, are found the bulk of the population and the two main towns Benghazi and Derna. On its western side the Jebel Akhdar drops fairly steeply to the shores of the Gulf of Sirte, but on the east it falls more gradually, and is traceable as a series of ridges, only a few hundred feet in altitude, that extend as far as the Egyptian frontier. This eastern district, consisting of low ridges aligned parallel to

the coast, is known as Marmanica, and its chief town is Tobruk.

South of the Jebel Akhdar the land falls in elevation, producing an extensive lowland, which except for its northern fringe, is mainly desert. Here and there occur a few oases—Aujila (or Ojila) Jalo, and Jaghub in the north, and Jawf, Zighen, and Kufra (the largest of all) in the south. These oases support only a few thousand inhabitants and are of much less importance than those of the Fezzan. In the same region, and becoming more widespread towards the east, is the Sand Sea—an expanse of fine, mobile sand, easily lifted by the wind into dunes that can sometimes reach several hundred feet in height and over 100 miles in length. Finally, in the far south of Cyrenaica, lie the central Saharan mountains—the Tibesti Ranges, contiguous with those to the south of the Fezzan.

The climate of Libya is characterised chiefly by its aridity and by its wide alternation of temperatures. Lacking mountain barriers, the country is open to influences both from the Sahara and from the Mediterranean Sea, and as a result there can be abrupt transitions from one kind of weather to another. In winter, it can be fairly raw and cold in the north, with sleet and even light snow on the hills. In summer it is extremely hot in the Jefara of Tripolitania, reaching temperatures of 103°–115° F. In the southern deserts conditions are hotter still. Garian once (incorrectly) claimed the world record in temperature, but figures of over 120°F are known. Several feet of snow can also occur here in winter. Northern Cyrenaica has a markedly cooler summer of 80°–90°, but with high air humidity near the coast. A special feature is the *ghibli*—a hot, very dry wind from the south that can raise temperatures in the north by 30° or even 40° in a few hours, sometimes giving figures of 70° or 80° in January. This sand-laden, dry wind may blow at any season of the year, but spring and autumn are the most usual seasons. Considerable damage is done to growing crops, and the effect even on human beings is often marked.

The hills of Tripolitania and Cyrenaica receive annually as much as 15 to 20 inches of rainfall, but in the remainder of the country the amount is 8 inches or less. A special difficulty is that once in every five or six years there is a pronounced drought, sometimes lasting for two successive seasons. Actual falls of rain can also be unreliable and erratic.

ECONOMIC LIFE

Such conditions impose severe restriction on all forms of economic activity. Although oil has been found in considerable quantities in Libya, physical and climatic conditions make exploitation difficult, and the remote situation of the country, away from the currents of international trade, is a further handicap. But production of crude oil is increasing rapidly each year and in 1969, with the blockage of the Suez Canal giving the country a strong geographical advantage, it topped 150 million tons. The availability of oil revenues has now begun to transform the economic situation of Libya. Plans for extensive development are being drawn up by foreign consultants, with the aim of improving housing, and the fostering of consumer goods industry. Roads, electricity, better water supplies and re-organized town planning are in process of being achieved.

In the better watered areas of the Jafara, and to a smaller extent in northern Cyrenaica, there is cultivation of barley, wheat, olives, and Mediterranean fruit. Some of the best land in Tripolitania is still in the hands of Italian settlers, who are however now very few in numbers. Most land is occupied by Arabs, most of whom are sedentary. The rest engage in shifting cultivation with small plots that are given over to cereals and vegetables for a few years, and then abandoned for a time.

The Fezzan and the smaller oases in Cyrenaica are almost rainless, and cultivation depends entirely upon irrigation from wells. Millet is the chief crop, and there are several million date palms, which provide the bulk of the food. Small quantities of vegetables and fruit—figs, pomegranates, squashes, artichokes, and tubers—are produced from gardens. Along the northern coast, and especially on the lower slopes both of the Tripolitanian Jebel and the Jebel Akhdar, vines are widely grown, chiefly for wine-making. An edict imposing complete prohibition upon Libyan Muslims has, however, led to a restriction of production.

Over much of Libya pastoral nomadism, based on the rearing of sheep and goats, and some cattle and camels, is the only possible activity. In Cyrenaica nomads outnumber the rest of the population, and animal products account for 60 per cent of the total trade, but in Tripolitania main

emphasis is on agriculture, though herding is still important. The latter region also has a number of small local industries, whilst there are very few of these in Cyrenaica, and none in the Fezzan.

The original population of Libya seems to have been Berber in origin, i.e. connected with many of the present-day inhabitants of Morocco, Algeria, and Tunis. The establishment of Greek colonies from about 650 B.C. onwards seems to have had little ethnic effect on the population; but in the ninth and tenth centuries A.D. there were large-scale immigrations by Arabic-speaking tribes from the Najd of Arabia. This latter group, of relatively unmixed Mediterranean racial type, is now entirely dominant, ethnically speaking, especially in Cyrenaica, of which it has been said that no other part of the world (central Arabia alone excepted) is more thoroughly "Arab".

A few Berber elements do, however, survive, mainly in the south and west of Libya; whilst the long-continued traffic in Negro slaves (which came to an end less than thirty years ago) has left a visible influence on peoples more especially in the south but also to some extent in the north.

Arabic, brought in by the tenth century invaders, is now current as the one official language of Libya, but a few Berber-speaking villages remain, and English and Italian are understood by leading Libyans in the north.

HISTORY

In attempting to summarise the history of civilization in Libya, it is not easy to find and to cling to the thread which will take the historian out of the labyrinth of the local histories of small cities of the coast and give him a clear conspectus of the history of the country as a whole. Another science, geography, must lend a guiding hand. Where harbours and roadsteads exist in Libya, which have more or less fertile immediate hinterlands, and which are conveniently sited with respect to the northern ends of caravan routes trading from the interior of Africa, those peoples of the Mediterranean who have from time to time been active as seamen and traders, have established, or maintained "emporia"—small city colonies. These conditions have existed in Libya only at the west and the east ends of the bleak and forbidding Gulf of Sirte where the desert reaches to the sea and separates the modern provinces of Tripolitania and Cyrenaica by a vacuum 250 miles across. Where the desert is, there is nothing; where the semi-desert lies, and around the distant oases of the interior, there are the nomads and the semi-nomads, whose way of life appears to have changed little throughout the centuries and in whose history the main event has been their conversion to Islam. Poor and ignorant, but proud, fiercely individualistic, intolerant of all external controls, they seem perpetually to have resented the civilising influences from without which have clung to the two extremities of the Mediterranean coastline around Sabratha, Tripoli, Leptis at the west end, and ancient Cyrene, Barca, Berenice (now Benghazi) and Derna at the east. When the coastal cities have been in strong hands, their civilising influence has been pushed inland to the limits of cultivable land. When they have been in weak hands, their influence has stopped at their city gates, and the very sands of the desert have invaded what under stronger rulers of the cities bore crops of corn, olives and grapes.

This is the pattern which the student of Libyan history must bear in mind.

From the evidence of Herodotus, and also from that of

modern archaeological research, it appears that in the earliest historical times two races inhabited Libya—the "Libyans" and the "Ethiopians"—the former, of Mediterranean stock, inhabited the coastal areas; the latter, of negroid and African stock, inhabited the interior. They used neolithic stone instruments. They knew how to cultivate. The Garamantes of the Fezzan raised cattle over a thousand years before Christ, Phoenician sailors from the cities of Tyre and Sidon in Syria began to visit Libya to trade for gold and silver, ivory, apes, and peacocks. The perils of their voyages in little ships and the advantages of having emporia at or near the northern ends of the caravan routes led the Phoenicians eventually to establish permanent colonies on the coast, at Leptis, Uai'at (Tripoli) and Sabratha, where more or less safe roadsteads existed. Their most famous colony, Carthage, lay to the west of the boundary of what is now called Libya. But this city, in its maritime and commercial struggle with the ancient Greeks, extended its influence eastward and by 517 B.C. had incorporated the three cities into its Empire.

By this time the Greeks had colonised Cyrene (about 600 B.C.) and raised it to be a powerful city. The Carthaginians, sensitive to competition in Libya, not only drove off an attempt by the son of a Spartan King to found a colony near Leptis, but advanced to contact with Cyrene, where, some time about the beginning of the fourth century B.C., a firm frontier was established against the Cyrenaicans at the Mounds of Philainos, where Mussolini's "Marble Arch" now stands. Cyrene herself fell under the domination of Alexander the Great, and although he was never able to carry out his threat of marching against Carthage, Ptolemy I Soter, heir to Alexander's Egyptian conquests, conquered Cyrenaica for Egypt and extended his empire westwards as far as Sirte.

By about 250 B.C. Carthage was at the height of her power. Her monopolistic policy in commercial and foreign relations reduced the three "emporia" to political non-entity, although their agriculture flourished.

By this time the Romans had substituted themselves for the Greeks as the most powerful Europeans in the Mediterranean. During the struggle between Rome and Carthage which followed, the Tripolitanian half of Libya fell into the power of the Numidians under Massinissa, who allied himself with Rome. After the destruction of Carthage, the three emporia remained under nominal Numidian suzerainty but in ever closer trading relationship with Italy, until Caesar's war against Pompey, when, after his victory at Thapsus over the Pompeians and their Numidian allies, Caesar created the Roman province of Africa Nova. Augustus set this province under a procurator responsible to the Senate who also commanded the Legio III Augusta. Meanwhile Cyrenaica had passed under Roman sovereignty by the testament of the last of her Ptolemaic Kings—Ptolemy Apion—and was eventually created a province about 75 B.C.

The Pax Romana extended itself during the first century after Christ from the Mediterranean to the Fezzan. The second century was for Libya a period of prosperity, peace and civilization, the like of which she has never seen again. In particular under Septimius Severus, himself born in Leptis and the successors of his family, the cities, and especially Leptis, attained the height of their splendour.

This condition did not last. Decline had set in by the middle of the fourth century. The general economic disease which was affecting Roman civilization affected also Africa. Christianity had challenged the spiritual values of the classical world but was itself too full of schisms to provide unity and strength. Libya itself was the scene of fierce internecine struggles caused by the Donatist heresy. Barbarians broke into the province, devastating the countryside, destroying its agricultural system, and spreading insecurity which caused depopulation through flight to the towns. In A.D. 431, Genseric and his Vandals appeared, overran the country, beat down the city walls, and brought ruin in their train. They were the first to introduce that piracy for which its harbours in a later age became notorious. A hundred years later the Emperor Justinian's general Belisarius found little difficulty in reconquering the country for the Byzantine Empire. There was a temporary revival of prosperity but continual rebellions by the Berber tribes soon reduced the country to anarchy.

THE MUSLIM PERIOD

In this condition the first Arab invaders found it. In the Caliphate of Omar, Amr ibn al-As, the conqueror of Egypt, overran the country as far as the Fezzan and Tripoli, the walls of which city he razed. This was in A.D. 643. There followed successive expeditions, mostly for booty, fiercely resisted by the Berbers, in the course of which Qasbi ibn Nafi founded Qarawan (A.D. 670) and actually reached the Atlantic. The majority of the Berbers rapidly embraced Islam, but for the most part in its schismatic forms as Kharijites, Ibadites, and Shi'a. An outlet for their turbulence was found in joining them with the Arabs in the invasion of Spain (A.D. 711).

Schism and continual rebellion induced the Caliph of Baghdad Harun ar-Rashid, to appoint, in A.D. 800, Ibrahim ibn al-Aghlabi as Governor with capital at Qarawan. He founded the Aghlabid dynasty, which became virtually independent of the Abbasid Caliph of Baghdad, but which brought little peace to Libya. A hundred years later a Shi'ite rising overthrew the Aghlabids and founded the Shi'ite Fatimid Dynasty, which from Tunisia conquered Egypt, transferred the seat of their Government to Cairo in A.D. 972, and made Bulukkin ibn Zair Governor of Injiquya. He in turn set up a dynasty under which the land enjoyed considerable prosperity. But, at the beginning of the eleventh century, the Zairid Amr returned to orthodox

Sunnism and acknowledged the sovereignty of the Caliph of Baghdad.

The Fatimid Caliph of Egypt, Al Mustansir, reacted by sending against Libya two nomad Arab tribes which had been kept in Upper Egypt—the Banu Hilal and the Banu Sulaim (A.D. 1049). This invasion was a final catastrophe for medieval Libya. The country was devastated, agriculture abandoned. The fortified cities and in particular Tripoli, alone retained some vestiges of civilization. The next two centuries tell of little but intertribal wars, and the gradual fusion of the Arab and Berber races. Nor do the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries offer much more to record in 'Injiquya'. Murabit dynasts from Morocco contended with the Muwahhid dynasts from the Balearic Islands. From these struggles emerged a dynasty in Tunisia called the Hafsid, whose power declined into a weak and anarchic state that attracted the attention of the new, crusading and imperialistic power of Christian Spain which could not overlook the fact that the cities of the northern coast of Africa had become dens of pirates.

Ferdinand the Catholic sent an expedition under Cardinal Ximenes and Don Pietro of Navarre which took Oran, Bugia, Algiers, and Tunis and then, in 1510, Tripoli. These conquests produced a profound impression on the Muslim world which at that time had become more united under the Ottoman Turks than it had been for six hundred years, when the Abbasid Caliphs were at their zenith. The people outside the cities resisted the Spanish with Ottoman encouragement. Within the cities the Spanish were exposed to the dangers of conspiracy. Moreover they could make little effort to extend their power inland since, after the accession of the Emperor Charles V, Spain became heavily involved in European politics. The citizens of Tripoli intrigued unsuccessfully with the corsair Khair ad-Din, known as Barbarossa, who had made himself Lord of Algiers and had later become the Admiral of the Ottoman Sultan.

In these circumstances the Emperor Charles V confided (A.D. 1530) the Lordship and the defence of Tripoli to the Knights Hospitallers of St. John (later to be known as the Knights of Malta) who had in A.D. 1522 lost Rhodes to the Ottoman Sultan, Suleyman the Magnificent. The Knights were able to maintain themselves there for only 21 years and then Sinan Pasha, who had been sent to reduce Malta but had failed in the attempt, invaded the town and forced the Knights to capitulate.

The Ottoman rulers of Constantinople now proceeded to organise their North African possessions into three Regencies—Algiers, Tunisia, and Tripoli—the last including also Cyrenaica and the Fezzan—each under a Pasha. But their organisation contained from the first the germs of the disease to which it ultimately succumbed. The population of the interior was left almost unadministered. Tribute was levied and collected by a few regular troops, and by the 'Maghzen' tribes from the remaining tribes, in return for the privilege of exemption from title and capitation tax. The system gave obvious opportunities for oppression and rebellion and the division of the people into feudal lords and serfs. Worse still was the hardening of the professional soldiery of the garrisons, the Janissaries, of slave origin, into a military caste in which promotion was by seniority alone and the retired officers of which had the right to a seat in the Pasha's Divan, or Council. The Janissaries became a power within the state. No less dangerous was the influence of the pirate captains—the corsairs. The Pashas subsidised them with arms and equipment and took their recognised share of their prizes. The Captains' Guild, called at Ta'ifa, also became a power within the State. As early as A.D. 1595 the Divan was conceded by the Sultan the right of deciding foreign affairs and taxation. At the beginning of the seventeenth century the Janissaries introduced

the custom of electing a "Dey" who sometimes reduced the Ottoman Pasha to a nonentity, sometimes shared with him the power, and sometimes was himself both Dey and Pasha. The history of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries is one of intrigue, rebellion, sudden death, occasional outbreaks of pestilence, and of a country supported mainly by the depredations of the corsairs upon the merchant-fleets of Christian powers and the enslavement of their crews. In A.D. 1654 Admiral Blake was the first to bombard Tripoli in reprisal for such piracies. The great de Ruyter of Holland followed in 1669 and again in 1672.

In 1711 a local notable, Ahmed Karamanli, of Ottoman origin, and an officer of Janissaries, was proclaimed Dey. He succeeded not only in killing the former Dey and in defeating and killing the new Pasha sent from Constantinople, but also in persuading the Sultan Ahmed III to recognise him as Pasha. For the first time Libya had some sort of autonomous existence. The Karamanli dynasty lasted until 1835. Several of these rulers, and in particular the first and the last (Yusuf ibn Ali Karamanli, who was in power during the period of the Napoleonic wars) were men of strong personality, and capable statesmen who controlled the whole of Libya and improved the political and economic condition of the country. Like the former Pashas, they relied for much of their revenue on piracy. But the Karamanlis learned to make treaties with the maritime powers, bargaining with them to refrain from attacking their ships for a consideration, and for the most part restraining their Captains from breaking such treaties. When they failed to do so the powers would take strong action, as did the United States of America in 1805. The lesser powers naturally suffered most from the corsairs.

Such vast profits had the rulers of the Barbary coast made from piracy during the Napoleonic wars that the smaller powers made the abolition of piracy and of the enslavement of Christians points for discussion at the Congress of Vienna. England was entrusted with the suppression of these evils. It took ten years of naval and diplomatic action on the part of England and the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies to effect this. The suppression of piracy spelt the ruin of the Karamanlis. Yusuf Pasha fell into dire financial straits from which his expedients of adulterating the currency, of state trading, and of pledging in advance the already exorbitant taxes, so far from rescuing him served only to ruin both him and Libya. In 1830 French pressure compelled him to give up even the payments formerly exacted from Christian States for the right to maintain Consuls in Tripoli and for the right to unmolested navigation. In desperation, Yusuf demanded a special "aid" from both Jews and Muslims and this was the signal for revolt.

Probably through fear of the extension of French power in Algiers and Tunis, the Sultan decided to re-occupy Libya and to bring it once more under the direct rule of the Porte. This was in 1835. The rest of Libya's story in the nineteenth century is similar to that of most of the possessions of "The Sick Man of Europe"—corruption, oppression, revolts and their suppression—the towns alone being held by the Turks, with an occasional more energetic or more honest Governor. The period was, however, marked by the diffusion of the propaganda of the Sanusi Mystic Way from the fraternities, founded by Sayyid Muhammad Ali as-Sanusi in az-Zawia al-Baida and Jaghubub, through the south-west of Cyrenaica and amongst the nomads of Southern Tripolitania and the Fezzan. The existence among the coastal population of Tripolitania of strong fraternities of other sects, and especially of the Salamiya, accounts for the failure of the Sanusi Movement to spread there, a fact which perhaps had political effects at a later date during the resistance to the Italians.

ITALO-TURKISH CONFLICTS

On September 29th, 1911, Italy declared war on Turkey for causes more trivial than those which twenty-four years later led to her war with Ethiopia and her denunciation as an aggressor. After a short bombardment Italian troops landed at Tripoli on October 3rd. Italy knew the Turks to be involved in the Balkans, and knew, through her commercial infiltration of Libya, their weakness in Africa. But her attack on Libya was not the easy exercise she expected. The Turks withdrew inland. But the Libyans organised themselves and joined the Turks, to whom the Porte sent assistance in the form of arms and of two senior officers, Ali Fethi Bey and Enver Pasha. The presence in the Italian army of Eritrean troops was a spur to the pride of the Libyans. In October and November a number of actions were fought around Tripoli in which the Italians had little success. A seaborne Italian force then descended on Misurata and seized it, but could make no progress inland. At Ar-Rumeila they suffered a considerable reverse. Turkey, however, defeated in the Balkan War, was anxious for a peace, which was signed on October 18th, 1912. One of the conditions of this peace was that the Libyans should be allowed "administrative autonomy". This was never realised.

Peace with Turkey did not, however, mean for the Italians peace in Libya. Although most of the Tripolitans submitted and were disarmed within two years, the Sanusiya of Cyrenaica under Sayyid Ahmad ash-Sharif, and their adherents in the Fezzan and Tripolitania refused to yield. The Sanusiya maintained a forward post at Sirte under Sayyid Safi ad-Din as-Sanusi. What contact there was between this Sayyid and one Ramadan as-Sueihli of Misurata is obscure. Ramadan had been in the resistance to the Italians and two years later had appeared to be submissive. At all events, he found himself commanding Libyans in an action started by the Italians at Al-Qaradabia in 1914, to push back Sayyid Safi ad-Din. Ramadan and his Misuratis changed sides in this action to the discomfiture of the Italians. By the time that the First World War had started, the Italians held only the coast towns of Tripoli, Benghazi, Derna and Tobruk, and a few coast villages near Tripoli.

The First World War gave Turkey and her German allies the opportunity of fermenting trouble against Italy in Libya. Arms and munitions were sent by submarine. Nuri Pasha from Turkey and Abdurrahman Azzam (late Secretary-General of the Arab League) from Egypt joined Sayyid Ahmad ash-Sharif in Cyrenaica. Ramadan as-Sueihli became head of a government at Misurata. The Sultan, to prevent quarrels, sent as Amir Osman Fu'ad, grandson of Sultan Murad; and Ishaq Pasha as commander in chief in Tripolitania. The strategical objective of these efforts was to tie up Italian forces in Libya and British forces in the Western Desert. The climax of Nuri Pasha's efforts with the Sanusi was their disastrous action in the Western Desert against the British, as a result of which Sayyid Ahmad ash-Sharif handed over the leadership to Sayyid Muhammad Idris. He was compelled to make the treaty of az-Zawiatna with the British and the Italians who recognised him as Amir of the interior of Cyrenaica, provided he desisted from attacks on the coastal towns and on Egypt.

The end of the war in 1918 left Italy weak and the Libyans, deserted by the Turks, weary. The Tripolitans attempted to form a republic with headquarters at Gharian and with Abdurrahman Azzam as adviser. The Italians made a truce with them at Suani ibn Adam, permitting a delegation to go to Rome and entertaining the idea of "administrative independence". Ramadan as-Sueihli visited Tripoli. In Cyrenaica, Sayyid Muhammad Idris as-

Sannusi likewise attempted to come to terms. In 1921 at Sirte the Tripolitanian leaders agreed with him to join forces to obtain Libya's rights and to do homage to him as Amir of all Libya. Meanwhile the delegation to Rome had returned empty handed and Ramadan as Sueshi had been slain in a tribal fight.

ITALIAN COLONISATION

The advent of the Fascists to power in Italy (1922) coincided with the appointment in Tripoli of a vigorous Governor, Count Volpi. Thereafter, it took them until 1923 to occupy and pacify the province of Tripolitania and disarm the population. In Cyrenaica, however, the famous Sayyid Omar al Mukhtar, representing the Amir Muhammad Idris whose health had broken down, kept up the struggle. The Italians realised that the only effective policy was to deprive the Sannusiya of their bases, the oases of the South. Jaghub was occupied in 1925, Zella, Ojila and Jalo in 1927. In 1928 Marshal Badoglio was appointed Governor General and in 1929 he occupied Mirda in the Fezzan. Omar Mukhtar still resisted. The Italians removed into concentration camps at al-Aqila the tribes of the Jebel Akhdar. In 1930 Graziani was appointed to Cyrenaica and the famous barbed wire fence was erected along the frontier of Egypt. Finally, in 1931, cut off from all support Omar Mukhtar, now an aged man, was surrounded, wounded, captured, and hanged.

Starting in the early 1920's, the Italians proceeded to colonise in the sense of that word which is now in disrepute, those parts of Libya which they had occupied, and which geographical and ecological conditions rendered profitable for development. They enlarged and embellished the coastal towns. They extended throughout the cultivable areas a most excellent network of roads. They bored wells. They planted trees, and stabilised sand-dunes. But their civilising policy was weighted heavily in favour of their own race. The object was clearly the settlement in Africa of as much as possible of Italy's surplus peasant population. These were encouraged to come in large numbers. Skilled cultivators of olives, vines, tobacco, barley they needed the best lands and were provided with them. The priority given to the progress of the Libyans was a low one. Primary education for the Libyans was encouraged and schools provided for them. But the main medium of instruction was Italian. Very few Libyans were accepted into Italian Secondary Schools. To avoid Muslim Libyans seeking higher education in Egypt or elsewhere, a small Muslim Higher College was founded in Tripoli. The Libyans avoided sending their children to school although attempts at compulsion were made. They feared lest their children lose their Islamic faith and way of life.

LIBYAN INDEPENDENCE

There followed the Second World War, and the occupation in 1942 of Cyrenaica and Tripolitania by a British Military Administration and of the Fezzan by French Forces. Thereafter until 1950 the country was administered with the greatest economy on a care and maintenance basis. Its final fate was long in doubt, until the United Nations decreed its independence by 1952. On December 24th 1951, Libya was declared an independent United Kingdom with a federal constitution under King Idris the former Amir Muhammad Idris hero of the resistance.

According to the Constitution promulgated in October 1951, the state of Libya was a federal monarchy ruled by King Muhammad Idris al Mahdi al-Sannusi and his heirs, and divided into the three provinces of Tripolitania, Cyrenaica and the Fezzan. The Federal Government consisted of a bi-cameral legislature, i.e. a Chamber of Deputies to which was responsible a Council of Ministers appointed

by the King and a Senate of 24 members, 8 for each province. The King had the right to nominate half the total number of Senators, to introduce and to veto legislation and to dissolve the Lower House at his discretion. The Constitution also provided that Provincial Legislatures should be created for the subordinate provinces of the new realm.

Since the attainment of full independence in December 1951 serious problems, political, financial and economic, have confronted Libya. Not the least of these is the task of fostering amongst the population a sense of national identity and unity. The loyalties of the Muslim Arabs, amongst whom the traditional outlook and habits of the past are very strong, are still given to the village and the tribe rather than the new federal state. Poor communications and the great spaces of desert land together with a lack of the trained personnel indispensable for the establishment of a stable and efficient modern administration which shall itself be a visible embodiment of the ideal of service to the new state are obstacles to the development of a true national sentiment which will require long years of effort for their elimination. Provincial loyalties are still strong. Cyrenaica, which embraces about one quarter of the total population, resisted Italian domination in the period 1911-37 at considerable cost to itself. Since the Sannusi religious order was the main force directing the population of nomads and semi-nomads against Italian rule, it was inevitable that in Cyrenaica not only religious but also political loyalty should become focused on the family of the present King. In Tripolitania, however, which contains about two-thirds of the total population, local loyalties were not concentrated in such a channel and there was a considerable degree of co-operation with the Italians. Antipathies between these two provinces have had a marked influence on the course of internal events since 1951.

The first elections for the Federal Chamber of Deputies were held on February 19th, 1952. 35 out of a total of 55 seats being allotted to Tripolitania, 15 to Cyrenaica and 5 to the Fezzan. The Party of Independence which supported the Constitution obtained 46 of the 55 seats, but in Tripoli itself and the immediate neighbourhood 7 seats fell to the National Congress Party of Tripolitania, whose leader, al-Sa'dawi, opposed the federal principle and advocated the formation of a unitary state with legislative representation distributed according to population, a procedure which would ensure to Tripolitania a great preponderance in the new state. Violent disorders broke out in Tripoli on February 20th and 21st and led to the outlawing of the National Congress Party and the deportation of its leader al-Sa'dawi. This did not mean the end of friction in Tripolitania. In September 1952 a Fundamental Law created for that province a Legislative Council of 40 members (30 to be elected and 10 to be nominated by the King). The first elections were held in March 1953. In January 1954 the King was led to dissolve the Legislative Council of Tripolitania on the ground of its failure to co-operate with the Federal Government. Moreover, there had been sharp differences of opinion between the King and the Federal Prime Minister himself a Tripolitanian, who had tendered his resignation in September 1953 but had remained in office. In February 1954 the King accepted the Minister's resignation. In April a short lived Cabinet was replaced by one of a more stable nature.

Grave financial and economic problems also awaited solution. About 80 per cent of the population of Libya were engaged in agriculture, but owing to the low rainfall, the hot desert winds and primitive farming methods the average yield is small. There were no important mineral resources and only a few industries, most of them in Italian hands. Since 1945 exports had sufficed to meet

only about 50 per cent of the cost of imports, most of which had been in the form of consumer goods needed to maintain the already low standards of life, and not of capital equipment and machinery. Income from foreign military establishments had been estimated as being 50 per cent above the total value of exports. Drought in Cyrenaica (1952) and Tripolitania (1953) has meant a diminished yield of olives, citrus, cereals and the like, and caused a sharp fall in the livestock of the new state. Moreover, the world market prices for esparto grass, a main export from Libya, declined rapidly in 1953; while by that year the stores of war-time scrap, hitherto an important source of revenue, were almost exhausted. The financial situation was reflected in the fact that during the first budgetary period of the new realm, i.e., April 1952–March 1953, Cyrenaica alone spent £1 million more than it could provide from its own revenues and its share of foreign aid.

Efforts were undertaken, with Western technical aid, to increase the economic resources of Libya, e.g., to improve irrigation and initiate schemes for water catchments, to extend re-afforestation, to teach better methods of farming, and to explore the possibilities of extending industries which could process local products and raw materials such as edible oils, fruits, vegetables, fish, etc.

FOREIGN RELATIONS

Since 1951 there have been important developments in the sphere of foreign relations. The first of these was the admission of Libya to the Arab League in March 1953, an event which underlines the social, historical and cultural links that bind Libya to the Arab lands. The second development reflects the economic difficulties of the new state and the close relations which exist with the West. In July 1953 Libya concluded with Great Britain a treaty for a period of 20 years. The United Kingdom, in return for permission to maintain military and air bases in Libya, undertook to grant to the new state an annual sum of £1 million which is to be expended on economic improvements, and a further annual sum of £2,750,000 destined to meet Libya's budgetary deficits. The financial obligations embodied in the treaty will be subject to review after each period of five years.

Since the summer of 1953, Libya has done much to extend her relations with the western powers. In September 1954 a number of air bases were granted to the United States of America in return for economic and financial aid amounting to some 40 million dollars payable over a period of twenty years. It was later announced that the United States had decided to give increased assistance to Libya, subsidies to the sum of 9 million dollars being envisaged for 1956, and of 11 million dollars for 1957. Great Britain, in July 1956, undertook to train and equip an Arab legion on behalf of the Libyan Government. Libya's request to be admitted as a member of the United Nations was approved in December 1955 and in this same year France agreed to withdraw the troops which she had hitherto maintained in the Fezzan. In regard to the Communist world the Libyan attitude has been more reserved. A Soviet ambassador indeed began his duties at Tripoli in January 1955, but an offer of Russian economic help was rejected in March 1956.

At home a certain degree of tension was visible during the first months of 1954, when the Legislative Council of Tripolitania had to be dissolved because of its failure to co-operate with the administration. At the close of 1954 a sharp crisis occurred in the affairs of the ruling house, the King being compelled to declare a state of emergency in Cyrenaica and to banish seven members of his family to the south Libyan desert. On October 20th a royal decree

defined the line of succession to the throne as being restricted to the King, the Queen and their descendants.

In the winter of 1955/56, Libya granted concessions for oil exploration to several American companies. A Libyan university was opened at Benghazi in January 1956 and a national bank in the following April. The critical problem for Libya, a kingdom which suffered each year from a large budgetary deficit, was to ensure that enough funds from abroad should be available to meet the normal expenses of government, to pay for much-needed technical aid and to sustain the proposed programme of internal improvement.

During 1956 Libya negotiated with several European states, seeking either to amend former, or to conclude new agreements. There were reports in December 1956 and again in April of the next year that the Libyan Government would approach Great Britain with a request for a favourable revision of the Anglo-Libyan treaty of 1953. In November 1956 France ratified the pact of friendship that she had made with Libya at the end of 1955. This agreement provided for the withdrawal of some 400–500 French troops from the Fezzan, for a number of minor adjustments in favour of Libya along the frontier with Algeria and for certain concessions to France in regard to the use of air-fields. In October 1956 Libya signed with Italy an agreement resolving financial problems which had arisen as a result of Libya's attainment of independence. Italy undertook to pay Libya £L.1,000,000 within three months and to provide, over a period of three years, credit to Libya of £L.1,750,000 for the purchase of Italian goods.

In May 1956 Libya concluded a trade and payments pact with Egypt, arranging the exchange of Libyan cattle for Egyptian food-stuffs. Provision was also made for the establishment of a joint Chamber of Commerce. At the time of the Suez crisis Libya was obliged, however, to ask the Egyptian military attaché to leave on the grounds that he was engaged in "harmful activities". Libya signed a treaty of friendship with Tunisia in January 1957; this treaty envisaged collaboration between the two states in matters of a cultural and economic nature.

In November 1957 the Turkish Republic made over to Libya military equipment to the amount of 5½ million dollars. There had already been reports of the possibility of Turkish military assistance on the occasion of the visit of the Prime Minister of Turkey to Tripoli in January 1957. Also in November, the United States placed at the disposal of Libya arms to the value of 15 million dollars. Libya also received consignments of arms during this same period from Egypt (October 1957) and from Iraq (January 1958).

It was reported in March 1958 that the U.S.S.R. would be willing to assist Libya with the building of two hospitals under a 2,800,000-dollar aid programme designed to include the training of Libyan health workers at Soviet universities.

The President of the Turkish Republic, Celal Bayar, paid a state visit to Tripoli in February 1958. In June there were discussions between representatives of Libya and Ghana about the establishment of a communications network between their two countries. The Prime Minister of Libya, 'Abd al-Majid Kubar, who had taken office in May 1957 on the resignation of his predecessor, Mustafa ibn Halim, went to London at the end of April 1958 in order to discuss the financial assistance that would be given to Libya during the five years 1958–63 under the terms of the Anglo-Libyan agreement signed in 1953. He announced to the Libyan Parliament in May 1958 that in the five-year period ending on April 1st, 1963, Great Britain would provide subsidies to the amount of £3,250,000 per annum, would make available light arms and equipment for 5,000 Libyan troops and would also continue the programme of

free military training. He also stated that the British Government would no longer give £1 million per annum to the Libyan Development Agency, as it had done since 1953 and that the United States intended to contribute to the Agency 5.5 million dollars during the next five years.

In September 1953 Libya became a member of the International Monetary Fund and of the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development. Official sources stated in May 1959 that Libya would henceforward receive financial aid from the United States not through the various aid organizations of the United States but directly from the United States Government. In June 1959 the U.S. Development Loan Fund made available to Libya 5 million dollars for electric power generation and transmission facilities designed to serve Tripoli and the surrounding region. During the course of 1958 and 1959 a number of discoveries of oil were made in various areas of Libya.

In August 1960 the Libyan Government announced that the U.S.A. had agreed to pay to 600,000 dollars per annum for the use of military bases in Libya. An agreement for technical and economic co-operation was signed at Tripoli on July 8th, 1960, between Libya and the German Federal Government. German experts were to be sent to Libya in order to advise on matters connected with agriculture, irrigation and fisheries, with health services, with training facilities in mechanical and electrical engineering and with the development of tourism. On August 5th, 1961, it was stated at Bonn that the German Federal Government would grant to Libya a long term loan amounting in value to over £5,000,000 for agricultural and industrial projects.

OIL DISCOVERIES

Oil, and the search for new oil resources, had become one of the main interests of the Libyan government. By the end of 1959 some fifteen companies held oil concessions in Libya. An oilfield at Zeltan in Cyrenaica was discovered in June 1959. Before the year was out, six productive wells had been found in Tripolitania, four in Cyrenaica and one in the Fezzan. On May 24th, 1960, the Libyan government promulgated a law establishing a Council of Development (Majlis al-I'mār) to examine the natural resources of Libya and to consider projects and policies of an economic and social character. By the beginning of July 1960 there were thirty five oil wells in production, yielding altogether a little less than 93,000 barrels of oil per day. The development of the oilfields is dealt with in greater detail in the Economic Survey which follows this history.

The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development made public in July 1960 a general report on the Libyan economy. This report expressed the view that oil discoveries would not suffice, at least in the immediate future, to solve the basic economic problems of Libya. No large yield of revenues from oil could be foreseen within the next five years. Agriculture was of vital importance, but the lack of water set great obstacles in the path of improvement, indeed, of the entire Libyan territories perhaps only about 10 per cent could be regarded as cultivable. Fishing and tourism, if suitably fostered, might be able to make an appreciable contribution towards the needs of the Libyan people (estimated as being 35 per cent urban, 40 per cent rural and 25 per cent nomadic in their mode of life).

In August 1964 British Petroleum discovered large oil reserves in eastern Libya not far from the Egyptian frontier, and stated that a pipeline would be built to Tobruk for the exploitation of this field. The Esso Libya corporation confirmed in November that it intended to construct a gas liquefaction plant at Marsa Irega. December 1964 witnessed the opening of a pipeline from the Hofra

oilfield to a new loading terminal at Ras Lanuf on the Gulf of Sirte. Oil production showed a tremendous increase in the 1962-66 period, with exports rising from 8 million tons in 1962 to over 70 million in 1966. Libyan oil has an unusually low sulphur content, which makes it especially suitable for internal combustion engines as less waste products remain after combustion. Most of the oil revenues have been devoted to education, health and communications projects since 1964, in which sphere Libya's facilities have been completely transformed.

GOVERNMENT CHANGES

A general election was held in Libya on January 17th, 1960. Most of the 55 seats were contested but there was no party system in operation. The election was fought mainly on a personal basis. Secret balloting, limited in earlier elections to the urban areas, was now extended to the rural districts. The Prime Minister and the other members of his Cabinet retained their seats. A number of ministerial changes were made however, in February 1960.

In October 1960 the Libyan Chamber of Deputies cancelled a government undertaking to pay £4,000,000 (in the place of an original estimate of £1,900,000) to the company engaged in the construction of the Fezzan Road. The Prime Minister, 'Abd al Majid Kubar, failed to win a vote of confidence and therefore resigned from his office. A new cabinet was formed under the leadership of Muhammad bin Othman al Said. The administration of Muhammad bin Othman was itself recast in May 1961. Decrees issued by King Idris led to the creation of new ministries for Industry and for Petroleum Affairs. The cabinet was increased from fourteen to fifteen members in consequence of the ministerial resignations and appointments made at this time.

There were some more Cabinet changes in the Libyan Government during January 1962, further adjustments came about in October of the same year when by royal decree, the Government headed by Muhammad bin Othman was reshaped, involving four changes of portfolio and the creation of one new portfolio. A further reshuffle in March 1963 was followed on March 20th by the appointment of a new Cabinet under the Premiership of Dr Mohieddine Tekini, ambassador to the U.S.A., in which only four Ministers were retained.

In November 1962 Libya signed with Morocco a pact of friendship and co-operation which covered economic affairs, education, health and communications. Specific agreements designed to give practical implementation to this pact and to promote economic, cultural and social co-operation between the two countries were concluded on December 25th, 1962, in the course of a visit to Libya by a Moroccan delegation led by the Foreign Minister.

The Libyan Minister of Defence visited London in July 1962. Mr Heath the Lord Privy Seal announced on November 23rd, 1962, that the British Government intended to send to Libya two minesweepers which would form the nucleus of a Libyan Navy. A British naval mission was to go to Libya in order to help with the project. It was further stated that a number of Libyan officers would receive training in Britain at the expense of the British Government.

A UNITARY REALM

Dr Tekini stated in April 1963 that his government intended to introduce legislation designed to transform Libya from a federal into a unitary state—a change which would mean increased efficiency and considerable economies in administration. On April 15th the Prime Minister presented to the Chamber of Deputies a Bill which contained a

number of important reforms: (1) the franchise was to be granted to women; (2) Libya would have (as before) a bicameral parliamentary system, but henceforward the King was to nominate all the 24 members of the Senate (heretofore half nominated and half elected); (3) the Kingdom of Libya would cease to be a federal state comprising three provinces (Tripolitania, Cyrenaica and Fezzan), becoming instead a unitary realm divided into ten administrative areas; (4) the administrative councils established in each of the three provinces were to be abolished, the exercise of executive power residing now in the Council of Ministers. Libya became a unitary state by royal proclamation on April 27th, 1963. Each of the ten new administrative areas was to come under the control of a government-appointed administrator, aided by local advisory councils for matters relating to health, labour, education, agriculture and communications.

LIBYA AND AFRICA

A conference of African Heads of Government met at Addis Ababa in May 1963. As a consequence of decisions taken at the conference Libya closed her air and sea ports to Portuguese and South African aircraft and ships. Dr. Fekini paid an official visit to Algeria in August 1963. A joint communiqué issued on August 28th made it known that Libya and Algeria had agreed to enter into a pact of friendship and co-operation. It was reported in October 1963 that a Libyan mission was to visit factories at Milan and Turin devoted to the manufacture of agricultural machinery, and also to make a tour of Italian land reclamation schemes. One aim of the mission would be to explore the possibilities of Italian assistance with reclamation projects envisaged in the Libyan 1963-68 development plan. A Franco-Libyan agreement of 1955 had allowed France to retain in Libya certain military facilities—notably in the field of communications—for the defence of her African territories. The future of this agreement was raised by Dr. Fekini in November 1963. He expressed the view that the recently acquired independence (1960) of Libya's southern neighbours, Niger and Chad, rendered the agreement obsolete and he thought that the whole matter should be considered anew.

On January 22nd, 1964, Dr. Fekini resigned his office of Prime Minister after student demonstrations at Benghazi and Tripoli. The new Prime Minister was Mahmud Muntasser, hitherto Minister of Justice. On February 22nd President Nasser of Egypt had called for the closing of the British and American bases in Libya. The Libyan Government issued a statement on February 23rd to the effect that it did not propose to renew or extend its military agreements with Great Britain and the United States and that it supported the other governments of the Arab world in the resistance to imperialism. Mr. Muntasser stated on March 9th that he had asked Great Britain and the United States to enter into negotiations over the future of their Libyan bases. He amplified this statement on March 16th, when he defined the aim of his government as the termination of the existing agreements with Great Britain and the United States and the fixing of a date for the evacuation of the bases in Libya. The Chamber of Deputies now passed a resolution calling for the achievement of this aim and providing that, if negotiations were unsuccessful, the Chamber would pass legislation to abrogate the treaties and close the bases. The Anglo-Libyan treaty of 1953 was due to expire in 1973. Under the treaty Great Britain maintained a Royal Air Force staging post near Tobruk, an Air Force detachment at Idris airport in Tripoli and Army District Headquarters at Tripoli and Benghazi. The American-Libyan agreement of 1954 was to expire in 1971. Near Tripoli was situated the largest American air-base outside the United States. Under the

treaties Libya had received large amounts of financial, economic and military aid from the United States and from Great Britain. Libyan dependence on such aid had diminished, however, as a result of the swift development of the oil fields, which provided the state with increasing revenues. It was reported in June 1964 that Great Britain had offered to withdraw from her military positions in Tripolitania, the western region of the Kingdom.

At a conference of Economic Ministers held in Tunis on August 30th-September 1st 1964 Algeria, Morocco, Tunisia and Libya signed an agreement stating their readiness in principle to create a system of special relationships amongst themselves in the field of trade exchanges, economic co-operation and the harmonization of tariff policies. During the course of a subsequent conference held at Tangier in November 1964 it was decided to establish between the four states a joint and permanent consultative committee which would serve to harmonize in general the development plans envisaged by the participating governments. The Committee could have an administrative secretariat and a number of specialized commissions. It was also resolved to create an industrial studies centre with a permanent headquarters at Tripoli. The centre was intended to co-ordinate the industrialization projects of the member states.

The Ministers for Economic Affairs of the four Maghreb powers (Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia, Libya) held a conference at Tripoli on May 25th to 27th, 1965. A protocol was signed for the co-ordination of policies in the export field, under which an export office was to be established at Algiers. Other projects envisaged at the conference concerned telecommunications, an industrial studies centre at Tripoli and the development of steel production.

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS

At elections for the Libyan Parliament held in October 1964 moderate candidates won most of the 103 seats. Women received the right to vote in this election. King Idris dissolved the Parliament, however, on February 13th 1965 as the result of complaints about irregularities in the election procedure of October 1964.

The Prime Minister, Mahmud Muntasser, resigned from office for reasons of health on 21st March, 1965, to be succeeded by Husayn Maziq, Minister for Foreign Affairs. A new election for Parliament was held on May 8th, 1965, over two hundred candidates contesting the 91 seats, 16 members being returned unopposed.

The withdrawal of the British troops stationed in Tripolitania took place in February and March, 1966. Britain retained certain facilities at Idris airport near Tripoli, small detachments at Benghazi, Tobruk and the R.A.F. staging post of El Adem, to the south of Tobruk. Discussions on the eventual withdrawal of the remaining British and American forces stationed in Libya were initiated in the latter part of 1967.

The outbreak of the six-day Arab-Israel war in June 1967 was followed by serious disturbances in Tripoli and Benghazi, in which port and oil workers and students, inflamed by Egyptian propaganda, played a prominent part. The British and United States embassies were attacked and the Jewish minorities were subjected to violence and persecution which resulted in the greater part of them emigrating to Italy, Malta and elsewhere. The Prime Minister, Husayn Maziq, proved unable to control the situation and was dismissed by the King on June 28th. Firm measures by his successor, Abdul Qadir Badri, brought a return to order but the antagonisms he aroused forced him to resign in turn in October. He was succeeded as Prime Minister on October 28th by the Minister of Justice, Abdul Hamid Bakkush, a Tripoli lawyer.

An immediate result of the Arab-Israel war in June 1967 was a fall in the Libyan output of crude oil by about 80 per cent because of the boycott of oil supplies from Arab countries to Britain the United States and Federal Germany. There was a gradual return to full production in the months following the conflict however and the ban on the export of oil was lifted in September. The closure of the Suez Canal brought about a considerable increase in Libya's oil exports and general prosperity although the Libyan Government agreed to make annual aid payments totalling £30 million to the U.A.R. and Jordan to alleviate the consequences of the war. Libya's oil output increased by about 50 per cent in 1968 and the country became after only 74 years the second largest producer in the Arab world with the great advantage as a supplier to Europe of being on the right side of the Suez Canal. Another development of importance for the future was the discovery by the Occidental Oil Corporation of immense underground water reserves near Kufra.

The new Prime Minister Abdul Hamid Bakkush was a progressive. His relatively young and well educated administration immediately embarked on a programme of rapid change seeking to modernise Libya's administration reform the civil service and improve the educational system. He also sought to provide the armed forces with up-to-date equipment and under a contract announced in April 1968 the purchase from a British firm of a surface-to-air missile defence system costing £100 million was arranged. An agreement to buy British heavy arms notably the advanced Chieftain tanks followed in spring 1969. In September 1968 however Mr Bakkush was replaced as premier by Muammar el Qaddafi the pace of his reforms having apparently alienated some conservative elements. Both ministers enjoyed close relationships with the Western countries but played little part in Arab politics.

THE 1969 COUP

On September 1st 1969 a military coup was staged in Tripoli whilst the King was in Turkey for medical treatment. Within a few days the new regime gained complete control of the entire country. The coup was remarkable for the absence of any opposition relatively few arrests virtually no fighting and no deaths at all being reported. The 'Revolutionary Command Council' (R.C.C.) initially remained anonymous but was soon revealed as a group of young army officers the leader Muammar Qaddafi being only 27. The aged King refused to abdicate but accepted exile in Egypt when it became obvious that the revolution had been completely accepted by his people. The R.C.C. announced its personal respect for the monarch and declared that he would be allowed to return to Libya as a private citizen whenever he wished. However considerable evidence of corruption within the royal administration was uncovered and a substantial number of royal advisers were arrested or obliged to leave the country.

The provisional constitution announced in November stated that supreme power would remain in the hands of the R.C.C. which appoints the cabinet. There was no mention of any future general election or of a National Assembly and the royal ban on political parties continued. A largely civilian cabinet was appointed under close military supervision. The Ministers of Defence and of the Interior were accused of organizing an abortive counter revolution in December and were tried and sentenced in 1970. In January Col Qaddafi himself became Prime Minister and several of his colleagues also joined the cabinet.

The principal force underlying the regime's policies has undoubtedly been the professed one of Arab nationalism.

Internally this has led to the strict enforcement of the royal law requiring businesses operating in Libya to be controlled by Libyans—banks have been particularly affected by this but oil companies are not at present covered by this law. The remaining British military establishment in Libya requested to leave as soon as possible was finally removed in March 1970 and the much larger U.S. presence at Wheelus Field followed suit in June. Most of the European and American managers teachers technicians and doctors have been replaced by Arabs with equivalent training mainly from Egypt. English translations disappeared from street signs official stationery and publications and most hoardings the use of Arabic alone being permitted. Similarly the Islamic prohibitions on alcoholic drinks and certain Western clothes were officially revived. In July 1970 the property of all Jews and Italians still living in Libya—some 25 000 people—was sequestrated by the government and both communities were encouraged to leave without delay some Jews were however offered compensation in government bonds. With regard to the Italians Col Qaddafi said the Libyan people are receiving back the property usurped by the Fascists who came to impose their tyranny. In the same month the three main oil marketing companies—Shell Esso and an ENI subsidiary—had their distribution facilities nationalized.

Another anti government plot was reported crushed in July 1970. In the autumn two ministers resigned and there were signs of a power struggle developing in the Revolutionary Command Council. The internal dissension apparently increased in the first part of 1970 over the proposed federation with the U.A.R. Syria and Sudan and over President Qaddafi's promises of a constitution and political institutions including an elected president. A step towards introducing these was the announcement in June 1971 that an Arab Socialist Union was to be created as the state's sole party. Such a development would also presumably assist integration with the U.A.R. and Sudan.

In April 1971 the negotiations with the oil companies operating in Libya which had begun soon after the 1969 coup finally ended in a new five year agreement raising the total posted price for Libyan crude to \$3.447 per barrel. In the last stage of the negotiations conducted in Tripoli the Libyan Government also represented the interests of the Algerian Iraqi and Saudi Arabian Governments. Threats of an embargo on the export of crude oil were used as a lever in the negotiations.

FOREIGN POLICY AFTER THE COUP

The new regime almost immediately received recognition—indeed acclaim—from the radical Arab countries and the U.S.S.R. and the rest of the world also granted recognition within a few days. As would be expected from the Arab nationalist inspiration behind the revolution the monarchy's close ties with the Western powers were abandoned in favour of close relations with Egypt in particular. This friendship became the basis of an important triple alliance announced late in 1969 the Sudan being the third member. The alliance was intended to develop both politically—as a strong bulwark against Israel on the West and economically in that the economies of the three countries complement each other to a considerable extent. However when a federation agreement was signed in April 1971 it was Syria which became the third member. Sudan hopes to join the federation later when her domestic situation is more favourable. Tripoli has also adopted a militant position on the Palestine question and this created some diplomatic problems regarding arms contracts.

The royal government's contract to buy a British missile defence system implicitly aimed against Egypt was duly

cancelled; fulfilment of another major British contract, for the advanced Chieftain tanks, was delayed by Britain, which feared that the tanks might reach the Palestine front. Colonel Gaddafi's government has itself ordered over 100 French Mirage jet fighters. When delivered these jets will enormously increase the size and striking power of the small Libyan Air Force, which has no pilots capable of flying such advanced aircraft. Hence there were widespread fears in the West that Egyptian pilots would fly the Mirages, which might then be used to escalate the campaign against Israel. Deliveries of Soviet tanks were reported in the summer of 1970.

Within the Arab world, the coup appeared to have re-orientated Libya away from the Maghreb towards the Middle East; in the summer of 1970 Libya withdrew from the Maghreb Permanent Consultative Committee. There was also little evidence of any closer relationship with the communist powers. China was recognized in June 1971, and the U.S.S.R. has been given due credit for its Middle East policies. But communism is regarded in Libya as a "foreign" ideology, antipathetic to more "progressive" Arab socialism (as in Sudan). Hence in July 1971 Gaddafi was ready to help President Nimer of Sudan to regain power after a coup led by communists had ousted him. A regular BOAC flight from London to Khartoum was forced down over Libya and two leaders of the coup, one of whom, Maj. al-Nur, was travelling back to become head of state, were taken from the plane and handed over to Sudan,

where they were almost immediately executed by the restored régime.

Although in July 1970 the Libyan Government followed the U.A.R. in accepting the American proposals for a cease-fire with Israel, it has continued its militant statements on the Middle East problem. President Gaddafi has stated that a peaceful solution is impossible, and has, more recently, rejected the UN Security Council resolution on which the Rogers initiative was based. During the fighting between Palestine guerrillas and the Jordanian army in September, Libya redirected its financial aid from the government to the guerrillas and broke off diplomatic relations with Hussein's government. It also criticized the failure of the Iraqi troops stationed in Jordan to assist the guerrillas. But Libyan threats to intervene in Jordan on the guerrilla's behalf have proved empty, and the conference of heads of state Gaddafi called at the end of July 1971 to discuss the Jordanian Government's final assault on the commando bases only issued more threats.

Relations with Tunisia improved in the last half of 1970 after initial concern in Tunis in 1969 at the radical leanings of the new Libyan regime, and President Gaddafi headed a delegation which visited Tunisia in February 1971. Relations with Morocco were severed in July 1971 after the Libyan Government prematurely gave its support to an attempt to overthrow King Hassan which had failed within twenty-four hours.

ECONOMIC SURVEY

In some respects the economy of Libya is unique among the countries of the Middle East. In most of the Arab countries which have achieved their independence since the end of World War II, the basis for some kind of economic viability already existed—in the Sudan, for instance, or even in the Levant states. But the three provinces of Tripolitania, Cyrenaica and the Fezzan (now officially known as the Western, Eastern and Southern provinces respectively), which were welded together in 1951 to make the United Kingdom of Libya had never formed an economic unit. Moreover, their economic life, in the twentieth century at any rate, had largely if not entirely been dependent upon help from abroad—from the Italian colonisers between the wars, and from the British and their allies after 1943. In the 1950s, per caput income was less than £18 and agriculture was the basis of the economy, employing 80–90 per cent of the population. It also formed the bulk of exports (together with scrap metal salvaged from World War II wreckage). But even in the pre-oil record export year of 1957, exports only reached £14.8 million while non-oil sector imports totalled £21.3 million. In the same year, domestic revenue only covered £9.6 million of the government's ordinary and development expenditure of £17 million. The deficits in trade and government expenditure were covered by foreign aid, oil company exploration activities and the expenditure of foreign (U.S.A. and U.K.) military bases. The discovery of oil has transformed the economy. Between 1962 and 1968, national income increased by 344 per cent from £131 million to £798 million and gross national product increased by 458 per cent from £163 million to £909 million. The deciding factor was the increase in the value of oil exports during the period—by 835 per cent; exports accounted for 51 per cent of gross domestic product (G.D.P.) in 1968.

The structure of G.D.P. has also been profoundly affected by the advent of oil and in some ways has been

distorted by it so that while other sectors have grown absolutely, their importance has declined relatively. As a whole, G.D.P. (at constant prices and factor cost) increased by 365 per cent between 1962 and 1968. The value of agriculture grew by almost 30 per cent, wholesale and retail trade increased by 231 per cent, construction by 385 per cent, manufacturing by 90 per cent and ownership of dwellings by 29 per cent. At the same time, the value of mining and quarrying decreased from 9 to 3 per cent of G.D.P., trade from 9 to 6 per cent, transport and communication from 6 to 3 per cent, manufacturing from 6 to 2 per cent, and ownership of dwellings from 17 to 5 per cent; only the value of construction actively maintained its share of G.D.P. at 7 per cent. The share of mining increased from 28 to 61 per cent of G.D.P. In foreign trade 99.9 per cent of exports are petroleum and products and a healthy trade surplus is being maintained. This surplus was £532.6 million in 1969. Government ordinary and development allocations have grown enormously and for 1971–72 have been set at £501 million. Since the 1969 revolution, the direction of the economy has been re-channelled somewhat with the advent of increasing state intervention, termed by President Qadhafi as "Islamic socialism". The government has at least a 51 per cent share in a number of sectors including banking and insurance, public transport, some sections of the construction industry and some manufacturing concerns. There is also a state petroleum company, LINCO. At present, however, all oil production is in private hands but rigorously overseen by the Ministry of Petroleum. Until the country's oil resources began to be exploited not more than 25 per cent of the population lived in the towns. This is no longer true, and the drift to the towns has caused a serious problem. Something like half of the rest of the population are settled in rural communities, and the other half are seminomads, who follow a pastoral mode of life. The Western provinces are the smallest, but they include Tripoli, which

is the business capital of Libya the population of the Tripoli district being 379 925 in 1964. The main town of Cyrenaica is Benghazi the population of the Benghazi district in 1964 being 278 826 but Cyrenaica is an area three times the size of Tripolitania. The Fezzan is about twice as large as Tripolitania and its chief town is Sebha. The overwhelming majority of the population of Libya is Arab or Berber by race with Negroid races predominating in the Fezzan. In Tripolitania there were 35 000 Italians but their number has recently been much reduced. The only other important settled minorities are the Maltese in Tripoli and a Greek community in Tripoli and Benghazi. The Jewish community in Libya once of some importance has diminished rapidly in number and importance during recent years. The population is growing rapidly and is estimated to have increased between the census of 1964 and the middle of 1968 by nearly a quarter of a million the UN estimate of the latter date being 1 803 000.

AGRICULTURE

Until the discovery of oil the basis of the Libyan economy was agriculture. However the oil industry gives direct employment to no more than a small fraction of the population so although the prosperity brought by oil has attracted many people to the towns agriculture is still of some importance. In 1957 Mr John Lundberg examining Libya's economic position for the United Nations Technical Assistance Administration asserted that at least 80 per cent of the population was employed in agriculture. Agriculture in Libya was then carried out by primitive and traditional methods. The British 1955 *Overseas Economic Survey of Libya* for instance said that it is a common sight to see Arabs ploughing by means of a camel dragging a pointed stick through the ground or threshing by means of bullocks or donkeys treading a circular path over a heap of barley or wheat. It is true that during the Italian colonisation an effort was made to develop the country by modern methods through settlers heavily subsidised by the Italian Government. But these more advanced techniques were employed in a very small part of the country only and had little effect on the agricultural production of the country as a whole. By 1960 almost 70 per cent of the population lived on farms.

It was estimated in the United Nations survey mentioned above that out of the total area of the country, namely 1 759 000 square km, no more than about 142 000 square km, or about 8 per cent of the whole was cultivable. Tripolitania possesses about 101 000 square km of the cultivable area and Cyrenaica about 39 000 square km. In the Fezzan there is no more than 16 500 hectares of irrigated gardens in the oases and perhaps 740 000 hectares of date palms. This however is far from being the whole story for the cultivable area in Tripolitania and Cyrenaica something like 80 per cent is used for grazing so that the area available for agriculture proper is comparatively small. The area under irrigation has increased steadily and has reached about 501 000 hectares according to a 1968 United Nations estimate. The present government is now sponsoring several land reclamation and irrigation projects including the Kufra project to irrigate 10 000 hectares and the Tawargha project to reclaim 3 000 hectares. In mid 1970 all Italian owned land and property in Libya including 37 000 hectares of cultivated land was confiscated and plans were made to distribute the expropriated lands to Libyan farmers with government credits for seed fertilisers and machinery. In addition the government is undertaking a major road building effort to include 2 400 kilometres of new rural roads and 1 200 kilometres of new highways.

A census of agriculture carried in 1960 by the Ministry of National Economy and published in 1963 gave the area sown to cereals in 1960 as about 18 000 square km. But the area sown in a given year depends largely on the amount and the timing of the rainfall. Animal husbandry has therefore been the basis of farming in Libya. According to the census of agriculture there were in 1960 some 2 509 000 sheep and 2 391 000 goats in the country. The sheep are mainly of the fat tailed Barbary type like the goats they are used for meat milk and wool. The 1960 census gave the number of cattle as 223 000. They were used principally for draught and transport like the donkeys and camels of which there were 510 000 in 1960. Official estimates for 1967 show a marked fall in all classes of livestock. All in all livestock has been the most important single source of income to the farmers. Of the cereal crops barley which is the staple diet of the Arabs is far and away the most important while wheat was grown extensively by the Italian settlers in Tripolitania. Production fluctuates widely with the rainfall. In the drought year 1947 for instance the country's production of barley and wheat was 22 000 and 6 000 tons respectively and substantial imports were needed whereas two years later barley production was 177 000 tons and that of wheat nearly 18 000 tons. The 1960 census of agriculture gave the production of barley throughout the country in that year as about 233 000 tons of wheat as about 68 000 tons. In 1968 production of barley was about 98 000 tons and of wheat about 51,000 tons.

Next in value after the barley crop is that of olives which were planted by the Italians in large areas in the coastal strip of Tripolitania. The Italians also planted about 300 000 citrus trees in Tripolitania and Libyan oranges and tangerines have been successfully marketed in the United Kingdom. Dates are grown in oases in the Fezzan and on the coastal belt and form an important article of food. Other important food crops are tomatoes almonds castor beans and groundnuts which are grown mainly in Tripolitania. Production has increased rapidly since 1945. An important crop is that of esparto grass (*stipa tenacissima*) which grows wild in the Jebel. It is used for the manufacture of high qualities of paper and bank notes and was formerly the most important article of export. It is handled by the National Esparto Development Corporation of which the government owns 80 per cent of the shares. It is curious that the plant sulphur which made Cyrene famous in antiquity and which is well known from Herodotus and from the celebrated Arkesilaos vase in Paris has not been identified with any certainty.

Much has been done by the government to develop the country's agriculture though one of the difficulties with which it has to contend is the high degree of fragmentation of holdings except in Cyrenaica where holdings are larger than average. All the same mechanisation has begun and the 1960 census of agriculture gave the number of tractors in the country as 4 080. A mission from the Food and Agriculture Organisation was set up outside Tripoli shortly after the country obtained its independence. The mission carried out a number of experiments on plant adaptability and fertilisers and similar matters on sheep breeding and fruit growing and among other things set up an experimental plant to process dates. This may be of importance up to the present the quality of Libyan dates has not been good enough to compete on world markets. An agricultural co-operative society was established in 1956 to improve farming standards. There is a National Agricultural Bank authorized in co-operation with the Ministry of Agriculture to make loans to farmers at low rates of interest.

The growing revenues which the government now derives

from oil have of course enabled it to expand greatly the aid given to agriculture. Thus in the budget for 1971-72, the allocation to the Ministry of Agriculture was £170 million, a sum which was a good deal larger than the total value of the country's exports in 1960 before oil was exported; and the development budget for 1971-72 provided for the expenditure of £150 million on agriculture. Quite apart from this, new possibilities for agriculture were created by the discovery of water in large quantities during 1968 at Kufra, in the south east of the country. The discovery was made by Occidental Oil, one of the oil companies operating in Libya (see below).

FORESTRY AND FISHING

Of some importance, too, have been the efforts made by the government to deal with the problem of afforestation. The north of the country is supposed at one time to have been covered with forests, but the goat and other enemies of the trees have reduced the wooded area to a negligible figure. The Italians, it is true, attempted to encourage reafforestation, but their plantations suffered severely in the war, and though the British administration planted many trees, there is still much to be done. In 1968, for instance, the government announced its intention to reafforest 5,500 hectares. A promising small-scale experiment to stabilise the soil with a synthetic rubber spray and then planting eucalyptus saplings was undertaken successfully in 1971. Although the Arabs of Libya are not a seafaring people, fishing is potentially of importance. The off-shore waters abound in fish, especially tunny and sardines. Most of the fishing is done by Italians, Greeks or Maltese, however, and though there are several tunny factories it was said by an official British report on Libya's economy that "though catches could easily be increased, the local fishermen forcibly oppose any increase in order to keep prices up". The government further hopes by training fishermen and by introducing trawlers and modern methods of refrigeration to develop a fishing industry. Of special importance are the sponge-beds along the wide continental shelf off the Libyan coast. These are exploited by foreign fishermen and divers, mainly Greeks from the Dodecanese, and the sponges are generally sold in Greece or exported to Western Europe and the United States by Greek merchants.

OIL

That oil was present in both Tripolitania and Cyrenaica had long been suspected, and for several years after Libya became independent, a large number of the bigger oil companies carried out geological surveys of the country. In 1955 a petroleum law came into force setting up a petroleum commission, which was empowered to grant concessions on the basis that any profits would be divided equally between the government and the operating company, and that parts of each concession had to be handed back to the government after a given period of years. Under this law, still in effect but with amendments, concessions were granted to many American companies and to British, French and other foreign groups. In 1969 33 firms held concession rights.

From 1958 onwards, important strikes were made in many areas. By 1968 Libya had become the fourth largest exporter in the world, with a production in that year of 126 million tons and a revenue from the tax and royalty paid by the companies estimated in the fiscal year 1969-70 at £1356 million. In 1970 there was a further increase in oil production to 166 million tons, and it was estimated that government revenue for that year would amount to about £1554 million. The Libyan authorities expect their revenue from oil to reach £1818.6 million annually to 1975, since the successful conclusion of crude posted price negotiations with the oil firms in Tripoli in 1971.

A government survey published in 1970 covering 1969 stated that some 6,395 persons were directly employed in the oil industry, of whom 2,627 were foreigners. During the year 1969 there were on the average 23 oil companies actively operating in the country spending about £177 million in Libya, of which about £150 million went on transport services and other contractors and about £16 million in wages. By March 1970 2,558 wells had been completed, of which only 1,153 were dry. In January 1970, there were 21 companies producing and exporting oil. Total crude oil production in 1970 amounted to 166 million tons and natural gas production totalled 713,562,325 cubic feet. Exports take place from five different ocean terminals connected to the various fields by pipeline built by the five groups which have made the major finds. The pipeline system and the terminals are however available to other groups which are producing oil.

The earliest of the five ocean terminals is that opened at Mersa Brega in the Gulf of Sirte in October 1961. The pipeline was built to Bir Zelten, some 200 miles south of Benghazi, where Esso Standard (Libya) had found oil in 1959. This group also opened a refinery at Mersa Brega in 1967, and has installed a gas liquefaction plant to prepare gas for shipment to Italy and Spain. The second terminal to be opened, in 1962, was that at Ras el Sidr, to the west of Mersa Brega. This was built by the Oasis group, in which originally three American companies, Continental Oil, Marathon, and Amerada held equal shares, though Amerada sold half of its holdings to Royal-Dutch Shell in 1966. Oasis' original find was at Hofra, from which the pipeline runs to the sea at Ras el Sidr. A third group consisting of Mobil and the German firm Gelsenberg also found oil near Hofra, but built another pipeline to a terminal at Ras Lanuf, just east of Ras el Sidr, which was opened in 1964.

The fourth of the terminals to be opened was at Mersa el Hariga near Tobruk early in 1967. From Mersa el Hariga a pipeline some 320 miles long runs to Sarir, near which British Petroleum and its American partner, Bunker Hunt, had made an important find in 1964, and another two years later. The fifth and latest is at Zuetina, about 150 miles south of Benghazi. This was opened in 1968, as the terminal for a pipeline about 135 miles long to two fields at Augila and Idris. Here an American Company, Occidental Oil, which did not even obtain its concession until early in 1966, had found oil in large quantities. As already stated there are a number of other companies producing oil besides the five major groups mentioned, but of these others the only one which up to the end of 1967 was of real importance was the Amoseas group, in which two American companies, Standard of California and Texaco are equal partners. This group is producing oil from the Nafoora field, not far from Augila and has a pipeline connected to the ocean terminal at Ras Lanuf. During the first eleven months of 1969, exports by the Oasis group from Ras el Sidr were the largest, at a rate of about 28 million tons a year, followed by those of Esso from Mersa Brega at 27 million tons, those by Amoseas, Mobil and Gelsenberg from Ras Lanuf at 23 million tons, those by Occidental from Zuetina at 22 million tons, and those by B.P. from Mersa el Hariga at 11 million tons.

The growth of the oil industry has been particularly rapid since the closing of the Suez Canal in 1967 because from North Africa to Western Europe, one of the world's principal centres of consumption, is of course a much shorter haul than from the Persian Gulf via the Cape of Good Hope. All the same, Libya's importance as an exporter has been recognized since 1962, when she became a member of the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC); in the autumn of 1965 a law was passed bringing the arrangements under which the producing companies pay tax and royalties to the Libyan

LIBYA—(ECONOMIC SURVEY)

government into line with those in force in the other Middle Eastern countries which are members of OPEC. Hitherto the price used by the companies to calculate the profits on which tax was assessed had been the price they actually realized on world markets. The new law stipulated amongst other things that the price used should be the so-called posted price instead which for many years had been much higher than the operating companies eventually accepted. Negotiations began in the autumn of 1969 between the government and the companies with the object of increasing the posted price and came to fruition in April 1971 with the signing of the Tripoli agreements which raise the base posted price per barrel to 40 per cent API Libyan crude to \$3.07 with temporary adjustments bringing the total posted price per barrel to \$3.47. The agreement also included annual incremental price rises until 1975, settlement of company income tax rates at 55 per cent (except for Occidental Oil), an assured re-investment in exploration, secondary recovery or gas projects and a guaranteed supply of crude to LINOCO sufficient for local consumption. Libya is also with seven other countries a member of OPEC, the Organization of Arab Petroleum Exporting Countries.

In 1968 a Libyan General Petroleum Company (LIPETCO) was set up by the government to act as its instrument for developing the industry being empowered to engage in all phases of the industry inside and outside Libya by itself or by participation with others. Its functions were taken over in 1970 by the Libyan National Oil Corporation (LINOCO). The Corporation has already taken over the marketing of oil products in Libya and has concluded agreements for co-operation in exploitation for oil with six foreign countries. These are ERAP and ENI, two concerns owned respectively by the French and Italian governments and Ashland, an American oil company. A similar agreement with another American oil company, Chappagna Oil Corporation, was cancelled in October 1969. In 1971 LINOCO awarded contracts for a £125 million refinery at Zawia and for a petrochemical complex near Mersa Brega.

INDUSTRY

No large manufacturing industries yet exist. Before the Italian occupation primitive handicrafts produced simple consumer goods for domestic needs. The Italians developed a few industries concerned with public utilities: building timber and construction engineering, textiles, tanning and leather, but in Cyrenaica almost all disappeared in the course of World War II. Though in 1949 there were according to the U.N. survey about a hundred establishments in Tripolitania using mechanical power. The largest employers of labour before the discovery of oil were the British and the American air base at Wheelus Field. Finally returned to the Libyan authorities in 1970 followed by the port and harbour authorities and other public utility concerns. According to the 1961 industrial census 46,000 were employed in industry out of a total labour force of 405,000. There were 911 industrial concerns with five or more employees each as well as 7,000 smaller scale firms. Manufacturing industry is largely confined to processing local agricultural products. These include carpet weaving, tanning and leather working, shoes, building materials (gypsum and cement), matches and soap and detergent manufacture. Food processing includes a government tobacco and cigarette factory, a date packing plant, four tomato canning plants, castor and olive oil presses, several flour mills, soft drinks firms and until the 1969 revolution breweries. There are also a number of service industries with government participation. These include all insurance firms and commercial banks, a contracting firm and nation wide public transport. Plans are also in hand to build a whole range of factories in the near future ranging from prefabricated construction materials to

cables, glass and pharmaceuticals. In petrochemicals contracts were awarded for two major projects of LINOCO, the national oil firm, in 1971: a refinery at Zawia and a petrochemical complex to be located near Brega.

Before the discovery of oil the country's standard of living was low even by Middle Eastern standards. The income per head of the population in the early 1950s was less than £1.18 and the amount of revenue from taxation per head was only a third of that raised in Egypt. Undernourishment was frequent and though tropical diseases are not endemic there was a comparatively high death rate and certain afflictions generally associated with undernourishment such as trachoma were common. The country has received technical assistance from the World Health Organization, and in 1952 this body and the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund organized a successful mass campaign against tuberculosis. In addition the uncertainty of the climate often led to unemployment or under-employment and except for skilled labour which is difficult to find outside the European communities, wages were low and frequently paid in kind, particularly in the country. The vast wealth created for the country by oil since 1960 is of course rapidly changing these conditions. One notable example is the improvement in the water supply: early in 1969 Libya placed an order for a very large desalination plant to be constructed at Benghazi by a British firm. It will have a capacity of 4.3 million Imperial gallons per day.

EXTERNAL TRADE

Until oil was produced Libya's exports consisted almost entirely of agricultural products and its imports of manufactured goods. In 1960 for instance imports were valued at £1.604 million and exports at £1.40 million leaving an adverse balance of £1.364 million. However £1.21 million of the total value of imports in 1960 was accounted for by goods imported for the account of the oil companies. If this figure is excluded the adverse balance of visible trade was £1.33 million. Oil was first exported in the autumn of 1961 and in that year the value of imports was £1.533 million of which the value of goods imported for the account of the oil companies was £1.126 million. The total value of exports in 1961 was £1.799 million including crude oil valued at £1.41 million so that the adverse balance of visible trade if imports for the oil companies were excluded was £1.328 million.

So rapid was the increase of oil exports in 1962 that in the third quarter of that year the value of exports exceeded the value of imports for the first time and the total value of exports in that year was £1.505 million, six times the value of exports in the preceding year. Imports in 1962 were valued at £1.734 million. In 1969 imports totalled £1.4413 million and exports £1.7739 million of which £1.7712 or 99.9 per cent was accounted for by oil.

Apart from oil other exports pale into insignificance consisting principally of hides and skins, groundnuts, almonds, metal scrap and various re-exports. For many years Libya's main market was Italy. Thus in 1960 Italy took about 36 per cent of Libya's total exports with the United Kingdom and the Netherlands taking about 9 per cent each. The export of oil changed this pattern. In 1968 27 per cent of Libya's exports went to West Germany, 19 per cent to Italy and 18 per cent to the United Kingdom. Their relative positions remained the same in 1969 but changed again in 1970 when Italy regained first place from West Germany. Imports have consisted of a wide variety of manufactured goods such as textiles and motor vehicles but also of timber, chemicals and other raw materials. In addition many foodstuffs have to be imported such as tea, sugar, coffee and in years of drought wheat and flour. In 1968 the principal suppliers were Italy with 25 per

cent of the total value, the U.S.A. with 17 per cent and the United Kingdom with 12 per cent.

Over the seven years from 1951 to 1957, the adverse balance of visible trade averaged about £110.3 million a year. During the same period the net visible income averaged about £4 million a year, and the balance was made good by foreign economic aid. The principal source of the country's invisible income consisted of British and American expenditure on maintaining bases in the country and of the expenditure of foreign companies prospecting for oil, though some contribution was no doubt made by civil aviation, for there are two important international airports, near Tripoli and Benina, outside Benghazi.

All this was changed by the exploitation of Libya's oil. Adjusted for balance of payments purposes, 1961 showed an adverse balance of visible trade amounting to £46.7 million. This fell to £23.4 million in 1962, and the following years showed a favourable balance of visible trade increasing to £212 million in 1966, £248 million in 1967, when oil exports were temporarily suspended because of the Arab-Israeli war, to £435 million in 1968 and £533 million in 1969. In 1969 the balance of payments showed a surplus on current account of £117.8 million, after allowing for investment and other income remitted abroad. The annual surpluses now realized on the current account of the balance of payments are reflected in a steady increase in the foreign assets of the Bank of Libya, which rose from £31.2 million at the end of 1961 to £567.9 million at the end of 1970.

FINANCE

As a result of substantial financial assistance from abroad and in the last decade from the development of the oil industry, it has been possible to maintain a remarkable degree of stability in the external value of the currency. Libya is a member of the sterling area, and until the devaluation of the pound sterling in November 1967, the Libyan pound of 100 piastres was kept at parity with sterling ever since it replaced the notes of the military administration introduced during the Second World War. However, in November 1967, the Libyan government did not follow the United Kingdom in devaluing its currency, with the result that the parity for the pound sterling became 85.7 Libyan piastres instead of 100 Libyan piastres. For five years the currency was managed by a currency board including representatives of the United Kingdom, France, Italy and Egypt. Its functions were taken over in April 1956 by the Bank of Libya, which was created to act as a bank of issue and government banker and generally to perform the functions of a central bank. The backing for the notes in circulation consisted entirely of sterling. The oil boom greatly increased the level of wages, particularly those of clerical and skilled workers. This in turn led to a rise in prices and in the cost of living, the index of which had risen to 151 for Europeans (1955=100) by October 1963. In 1964 a new cost of living index was introduced based on a survey carried out in Tripoli in 1962. The index (January 1964=100) stood at 138 for September 1970.

An Industrial Development Corporation was created in 1963 with a capital of £700,000 to help small industrial concerns. Apart from official or semi-official concerns of this kind, most Libyan banks developed as subsidiaries of foreign banks. However, amongst the first decrees issued by the Revolutionary Council was one which required 51 per cent of the capital of all banks operating in Libya to be owned by Libyans; the majority of directors, including the chairman, of each bank had to be Libyan citizens. The royal government had followed a similar policy without compulsion, and a number of foreign banks had accordingly already "Libyanized" themselves. In December 1970, all commercial banks were nationalized, with government

participation set at 51 per cent of bank shares. In addition, all foreign-held shares of banks entirely owned by Libyans continue to operate. There are now only five commercial banks in the country including one formed at the same time by the amalgamation of the former commercial section of the central bank with two small Libyan banks.

Until the country was assured of an income from oil, a large part of the government's ordinary expenditure was met by foreign aid. Thus in the year 1961-62, expenditure was estimated to amount to £118 million, but of this £3.6 million was met by grants from the United States, and a further £3.2 million from the United Kingdom. In addition, a sum of £111.3 million was granted to Libya by way of official aid for development, and the value of wheat and other cereals given to Libya by the United States Government was nearly £2 million. Similarly, expenditure in the year 1962-63, estimated at £19.6 million, was met largely by foreign aid. The great growth of oil revenue has completely changed this situation; in recent years the government has been able to devote something like half of its income to development expenditure. After the 1967 Arab-Israeli war, the government agreed, in Khartoum in 1968 at a conference of Arab States, to contribute subsidies to Egypt, Jordan and Syria. That to Jordan was cut off in September 1970. For the year 1969-70 the government's total revenue was estimated to be £426 million, of which £356 million was expected to come from oil and £70 million from ordinary revenue, the largest item being from customs and excise duties, £38 million. Of the total, £190 million was allocated to ordinary budgetary expenditure and £145 million to development expenditure. The 1970-71 ordinary budget was £183 million and that for development budgets increased substantially—the first to £201 million (including a new item, £20 million as assistance to public organizations) and the second to £300 million.

The beginnings of a well-coordinated development programme started in 1960 when the World Bank, after its study of the range of Libya's problems, published its recommendations for the country's economic development which envisaged the launching of a five-year plan costing £20 million. A plan was drafted by the Development Council (originally set up to coordinate various aid programmes). The government hardly had time to consider the programme before it became clear that the country was likely to derive very large revenues from the oil industry. The plan was accordingly redrafted several times; and in the summer of 1963 Parliament approved a plan calling for the spending of £173 million over the period from 1963 to 1968. This plan also was overtaken by the growth of the oil revenue; in the fiscal year 1968-69 alone the allocation to development was put at £123 million. In 1968 the government invited the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development to send a team of experts to Libya to advise them once more on industrial, agricultural and social development, no doubt in the light of the even greater oil revenues expected in the near future.

Details of a second five-year plan for the years 1969-74 were published in March 1969. It provided for total expenditure over the period of £11,149 million, of which £177 million was allocated to public works, £162 million to communications, £150 million to agriculture, £128 million to housing and £116 million to education. After the 1969 revolution, the second five-year plan was put aside and development allocations were made on a yearly basis. The development budget for 1970-71 was set at £200 million while that for 1971-72 was increased by 50 per cent to £300 million. Of that total, £50 million was set aside for agriculture, £40 million each for public works and housing, and communications, £32 million each for industry and local government and £22 million each for the petroleum industry.

B.S.-E.

STATISTICAL SURVEY

AREA AND POPULATION

AREA (sq. km.)	POPULATION	
	1964 Census	1969 Estimate
1,759 500	1,564 369	1,875 000

There are about 35 000 Italian settlers in Libya. About 30 per cent of the population are nomadic or semi nomadic.

POPULATION BY DISTRICT

(1964 Census)

Tripoli . . .	379 925	Khoms . . .	136,679
Benghazi . . .	278,826	Jebel Akhdar . . .	88,016
Zavia . . .	190,708	Darna . . .	84,112
Jebel Gharbi . . .	180,883	Sebha . . .	47,436
Misrata . . .	145,894	Ubari . . .	31,890

AGRICULTURE

DISTRIBUTION OF LAND
(1960 census—'000 hectares)

	TRIPOLITANIA	CYRENAICA	FEZZAN
Arable . . .	1,605	742	28
Pasture . . .	1,121	15	—
Permanent Crops, Forests	154	37	7

LIVESTOCK
(Estimates—'000)

	1966	1967
Sheep . . .	1,505	1,627
Goats . . .	1,347	1,405
Cattle . . .	110	116
Camels . . .	275	256

PRINCIPAL CROPS

(tons)

	1968	1969	1970
Barley . . .	98,421	123 955	52,808
Wheat . . .	52,541	78,421	21,112
Olives . . .	140,109	33 110	71,154
Citrus Fruits . . .	22,617	21,956	20 050
Groundnuts . . .	12,792	10 104	10 685
Almonds . . .	2 588	3 569	3,787
Tomatoes . . .	123 252	129 018	136 413
Dates . . .	56 728	55,125	49,111
Potatoes . . .	11,803	11,958	9 982

Tobacco leaf production (1968) 1.6 million kilos, (1969)
1.4 million kilos. Grapes are also grown in quantity.

LIBYA—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

INDUSTRY

(Value of Output in £L'000—Large establishments only)

	1968	1969
Food Manufacturing . . .	7,690	7,468
Beverage Industries . . .	3,625	3,974
Tobacco Manufactures . . .	8,648	8,040
Chemicals and Products . . .	4,773	5,087
Textiles . . .	1,543	1,800
Cement and Products . . .	1,197	1,991
Fabricated Metal Products . . .	1,728	1,869
TOTAL (incl. others) . . .	31,433	32,813

OIL

CRUDE OIL PRODUCTION
(metric tons)

1963	22,130,000
1964	41,500,000
1965	58,500,000
1966	72,290,000
1967	83,500,000
1968	125,400,000
1969	150,000,000

FINANCE

1 Libyan pound = 100 piastres.

£L1 = £1 3s. 4d. sterling; 35.7 piastres = U.S. \$1.

£L100 = £116 13s. 4d. sterling = U.S. \$280.

DEVELOPMENT BUDGET

1970-71
(£L '000)

Agriculture and agrarian reform . . .	50,000
Industry	20,480
Education and National Guidance . . .	11,419
Information and Culture	2,162
Public Health	5,904
Transport and Communications	27,145
Municipalities	25,493
Housing	32,816
Public Works	18,410
TOTAL (including others)	200,000

ORDINARY BUDGET

(1970-71: £L million)

Education and National Guidance . . .	43.9
Defence	30.0
Police and Public Security	25.0
TOTAL (including others)	182.7

DEVELOPMENT COUNCIL FIVE-YEAR PLAN

In April 1969 a new Five-Year Plan came into effect.
Total expenditure over the 1969-74 period is to be £L 1,145 million.

BALANCE OF PAYMENTS

(£L'000)

	1968			1969		
	Credit	Debit	Balance	Credit	Debit	Balance
Goods and Services:						
Merchandise	666,873	230,015	436,858	774,114	240,832	533,282
Non-monetary gold	—	1,674	— 1,674	—	1,963	— 1,963
Miscellaneous	26,794	326,706	— 299,912	36,952	392,513	— 355,561
Total	693,667	558,395	— 135,272	811,066	635,308	— 175,758
Transfer Payments	755	46,030	— 45,275	1,321	15,832	— 14,511
CURRENT BALANCE	694,422	604,425	89,997	812,387	651,140	161,247
Capital and Monetary Gold:						
Non-monetary Sectors	222,824	246,794	— 23,970	337,262	294,573	42,689
Monetary Sectors:						
Commercial banks	1,573	110	1,463	108	2,286	— 2,178
Libyan institutions	6	49,096	— 49,090	240	134,502	— 134,262
Monetary gold	—	6,298	— 6,298	—	—	—
Total	224,403	302,298	— 77,895	337,610	431,361	— 93,751
CAPITAL BALANCE	—	77,895	— 77,895	—	94,851	— 94,851
Net Errors and Omissions	12,102	—	12,102	—	24,000	— 24,000

LIBYA—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

EXTERNAL TRADE

(£L 000)

	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969
Imports	114 416	144 662	170 145	230 200	241 301
Exports	282 000	332 338	417 329	669 800	772 765

SELECTED COMMODITIES

(£L 000)

IMPORTS	1967	1968	1969	EXPORTS	1967	1968	1969
Food and Live Animals	26 272	27 608	30 672	Crude Petroleum	416 426	664 287	771 837
Beverages and Tobacco	1 943	2 259	2 495	Groundnuts	249	245	112
Mineral Fuel	5 712	6 751	7 649	Hides and Skins	259	204	283
Animal and Vegetable				Castor Oil Seed	58	7	16
Oils and Fats	2 805	1 829	995	Wool and other Animal			
Inedible Crude Mater				Hair	20	55	—
als excluding Fuel	4 118	5 479	4 58				
Chemicals	7 582	11 930	12 635				
Manufactures	41 018	61 872	56 098				
Machinery	60 740	80 562	95 479				
Miscellaneous	19 937	30 899	30 695				

PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES

(£L 000)

IMPORTS	1966	1967	1968	1969
Italy	39 981	48 761	56 801	54 788
USA	18 139	21 384	38 780	45 152
UK	22 195	18 563	26 410	29 768
German Federal Republic	14 882	13 269	19 073	21 426
Netherlands	3 474	7 234	12 518	8 871
France	7 177	10 359	10 872	12 015
Belgium	2 300	2 757	2 967	3 318
Japan	4 517	6 757	8 484	11 747
China People's Republic	n.a.	n.a.	4 392	5 388
Lebanon	n.a.	n.a.	5 287	3 726

EXPORTS OF CRUDE OIL

(£L 000)

COUNTRY	1966	1967	1968	1969
UK	51 209	57 465	127 964	106 405
German Federal Republic	118 156	97 572	141 428	167 732
Italy	39 612	84 877	145 590	178 618
France	41 115	51 062	70 302	89 871
Netherlands	35 399	39 043	52 430	78 457
USA	19 124	11 708	38 252	39 548
Belgium	14 511	23 249	21 549	30 327
Spain	12 229	17 827	38 623	38 503
TOTAL (incl others)	350 007	416 426	664 287	771 837

TRANSPORT

ROADS

	1967	1968	1969
Private Cars . . .	60,292	73,579	86,814
Lorries	28,960	34,547	39,947
Buses	617	700	727
Taxis	2,921	3,731	3,884

SHIPPING

	SHIPS ('000 N.R.T.)		CARGO ('000 metric tons)	
	Entered	Cleared	Loaded	Unloaded
1967	4,406	4,443	23	2,627
1968	4,672	4,616	21	3,039
1969	4,908	4,886	27	3,099

CIVIL AVIATION

	1967	1968	1969
Number of Passengers			
Entering	151,979	190,439	180,113
Leaving	154,604	186,869	180,264
Cargo Unloaded (tons) .	4,454	7,553	10,009
Cargo Loaded (tons) .	1,653	1,467	2,069

EDUCATION

(1968-69)

STATE SCHOOLS	SCHOOLS	STUDENTS	TEACHERS
Primary	1,069	270,617	9,162
Preparatory	144	29,181	2,076
Secondary	25	7,181	608
Teacher-Training . .	23	5,159	466
Technical	11	1,259	196

Source: Census and Statistical Dept., Ministry of Economy and Trade, Tripoli.

THE CONSTITUTION

A new provisional constitution of 37 articles was proclaimed in December 1969. The following is a summary of its principal features:

Libya is a democratic and free Arab Republic with sovereignty of the people who constitute part of the Arab nation and whose objective is comprehensive Arab unity.

The official religion of the state is Islam but the state guarantees religious freedom.

Supreme authority is vested in the Revolutionary Command Council which has power to appoint the Council of Ministers, to sign and modify treaties and to declare war. It retains power over the armed forces and the diplomatic corps.

All citizens are equal and the foundations of the country are built on family unity.

The state will aim to achieve socialism by means of

social justice which forbids all forms of exploitation. It will work towards the liberation of the national economy from every foreign influence, guiding it towards productivity and stability.

The property of the state is also the property of the public. Private property cannot be exploited and is guaranteed by the state. It can only be expropriated as laid down by law.

Freedom of speech is guaranteed as long as it does not transgress the principles of the revolution.

The extradition of political prisoners is forbidden.

All titles, including those granted by the previous government, have been revoked.

Medical care is a guaranteed right for all citizens; education will be compulsory until the end of primary stage (now at the age of nine).

THE GOVERNMENT

REVOLUTIONARY COMMAND COUNCIL

Chairman: Col MUHAMMAR AL GADDAFI

Members: Maj ABDUL SALAM JALLOUD, Maj BASHIR AL SAGHIR HAWADY, Maj MUKHTAR ABDULLAH AL GERWY, Capt ABDUL MONIEM AL TAHER EL HUNY, Capt MUSTAFA AL KHARUNY, Maj AL KHOWEILDY AL HAMIDY, Capt MUHAMMAD NEJM, Capt AWAD ALI HANZA, Capt ABU BAKR YUNIS JABER, Capt OMAR ABDULLAH AL MEHEISHY, Lt MUHAMMAD ABU BAKR AL QUARRIF

CABINET

(August 1971)

Prime Minister and Minister of Defence: Col MUHAMMAR AL GADDAFI

Minister of Finance, the Economy, Industry and Minerals and Deputy Premier for Production: Maj ABDUL SALAM JALLOUD

Minister of Education and National Guidance: Maj BASHIR AL SAGHIR HAWADY

Minister of Housing and Municipalities: MUHAMMAD ABU BAKR MUGARYIF

Minister of Arab Unity and Foreign Affairs: (vacant)

Minister of Communications: Maj MUKHTAR ABDULLAH AL GERWY

Minister of Justice: MUHAMMAD ALY AL JADY

Minister of Health: Dr MEFTAR AL USTA OMAR.

Minister of Agriculture and Agrarian Reform: MUTTASIM ALI TABOU

Minister of Petroleum: EZZEDIN MABROUK

Minister of Labour and Social Affairs: ABDUL ATY AL ABEIDY.

Minister of the Interior: Maj AL KHOWEILDY AL HAMIDY.

DIPLOMATIC REPRESENTATION

REPRESENTATIVES OF LIBYA ABROAD

(A) Ambassador, (CA) Chargé d'Affaires

Algeria: MUHAMMAD BLSAIRI Algiers (A)
Austria: IZZ AL DIN GHADAMSI Vienna (A)
Belgium: AREF BEN MUSA, Brussels (A)
Chad: ABELSALAM AL FAKI Fort Lamy (A)
Czechoslovakia: CADEK LATRASH Prague (A)
Denmark: KEURI BEN AMER Copenhagen (A)
France: QADRI MIFTAH AL-ATRASH Paris (A)
German Federal Republic: JALAL MUHAMMAD DUGHAILI, Bonn (A)
Greece: AHMAD RAJAB TAITOUR Athens (A)
Iraq: SALIH SINOUSI ABDUL SAYYID Baghdad (A)
Italy: ABDALLA SIKTA, Rome (A)
Japan: HASAN HADI ABU KHARAS Tokyo (A)
Jordan: (vacant), Amman (A)
Kuwait: AHMAD SHARIF QASHSHOUT, Kuwait (A)
Lebanon: ISMAIL SIDDIQ ISMAIL, Beirut (A)
Malta: ABDUL SATTAR THULTHI Valetta (A)
Mauritania: MUHAMMAD AHMAD MAGRI Nouakchott (A)
Netherlands: (see United Kingdom)
Niger: AHMED S MAAREF, Niamey (CA)
Nigeria: RAMADAN ABDUL KARIM GHURABAL, Lagos (A).

Pakistan: IBRAHIM ALI JAAFARI Islamabad (A)
Saudi Arabia: MOHIEDDIN MASOUDI, Jeddah (A)
Spain: MUHAMMAD UHMAIDAH HARRAGAH, Madrid (A)
Sudan: KIJURFIDEL MONTASSER, Khartoum (A)
Switzerland: ALI MUHAMMAD UMAISH, Berne (A)
Tunisia: SALEM BEN AL AMINE, Tunis (A)
Turkey: ABU BAKR AMIN ZUGALLAI, Ankara (A)
U.S.S.R.: YOUSIF ABDULLAH QIZLER, Moscow (A)
United Arab Republic: Col SAAD AL DIN BUSHWEIRAB, Cairo (A)
United Kingdom: KHAIRI MUHAMMAD BIN AMIR London (A) (also accredited to Netherlands)
United States: ABDULLAH SHIBANI SUWAISI Washington (A)
Venezuela: ALI SUNNI MONTASIR, Caracas (A)
Yemen Arab Republic: HUSSAIN SAYYID SHARIF, Sana'a (A)
Yugoslavia: YAHYA ZAKARIYA MUQADDI, Belgrade (A)

United Nations: MAHMOUD SULEIMAN MAGHRIBI, New York (Perm Rep)

EMBASSIES ACCREDITED TO LIBYA

(Tripoli unless otherwise stated)

(E) Embassy; (L) Legation.

Algeria: Tripoli (E); *Ambassador:* ALI KAFI.**Austria:** Rome, Italy (L).**Belgium:** 1 Via G.B. Da Poste (E); *Ambassador:* ELIE LUYCKX.**Canada:** (address not available); *Ambassador:* IBERVILLE FORTIER.**Czechoslovakia:** Sharia Arimondi 27 (E); *Ambassador:* JAN TELUCH.**Denmark:** Rabat, Morocco (L).**France:** Sharia Almalika (E); *Ambassador:* GUY GEORGY.**German Federal Republic:** Sharia Solarolli (E); *Ambassador:* (vacant).**Greece:** Sharia Giakarta 48 (E).**India:** Cairo, U.A.R. (E).**Iraq:** Via Bianchini (E); *Ambassador:* IZZAT KHUDERI.**Italy:** Sharia Wahran 1 (E); *Ambassador:* LUDOVICO BORROMEI.**Japan:** Cairo, U.A.R. (E).**Lebanon:** 7/9 Sharia Malika Fatma (E); *Ambassador:* MIDHAT FITFIT.**Malta:** (address not available); *Ambassador:* LAWRENCE OZZARD LOW.**Netherlands:** Tunis, Tunisia (E).**Pakistan:** Cairo, U.A.R. (E).**Saudi Arabia:** Sharia Mizran, Monte Vozolyo (E); *Ambassador:* ABDULMUSSIN ALZEID.**Spain:** Sharia Pastorelli-Sharia Fabbri (E); *Ambassador:* FERNANDO R. P. Y. DE CHAVARRI.**Sudan:** Cairo, U.A.R. (E).**Sweden:** Rabat, Morocco (L).**Switzerland:** Tunis, Tunisia (E).**Tunisia:** Sharia Edoardo Bianchini 11 (E); *Ambassador:* AMOR FEZZANI.**Turkey:** Tariq al Fatah 36 (E); *Ambassador:* MUSTAFA BOROVALI.**U.S.S.R.:** Sharia Solarolli (E); *Ambassador:* IVAN YAKUSHIN.**United Arab Republic:** Sharia Maazi (E); *Ambassador:* MUHAMMAD GAMAL AL DIN SHUEIR.**United Kingdom:** 30 Tariq al Fatah (E); *Ambassador:* PETER TRIPP.**United States:** Sharia Malika Fatma (E); *Ambassador:* JOSEPH PALMER.**Yugoslavia:** Sharia Monte Pasubio (E); *Ambassador:* MIRKO OSTOVIC.

Libya also has diplomatic relations with Albania, Argentina, Bulgaria, Chad, Ethiopia, Finland, Ghana, Guinea, Kuwait, Mauritania, Niger, Norway, Poland, Somalia, Venezuela and the Yemen Arab Republic.

PARLIAMENT

The former Senate and House of Representatives have been dissolved by the new military regime, and the provisional constitution issued in December 1969 made no mention of elections or a return to Parliamentary procedure. However, in January 1971 Col. GADDAFI announced that a new Parliament would be appointed, not elected; no date was mentioned. The ban on political parties, which existed under the royal government, continues in force.

JUDICIAL SYSTEM

President of the Supreme Court: ALI MANSOUR.

The law of the Judicial System of 1954 established the following courts: the Federal Supreme Court, the Courts of Appeal, the Courts of First Instance and the Summary Courts. Sittings are in public, unless the court decides to hold them *in camera* in the interests of decency or public order. Judgment is in all cases given in public. The language of the courts is Arabic, but there is a translation office attached to each Court to help non-Arabic speaking parties, judges or lawyers.

The **Supreme Court** consists of a President and judges appointed by the Revolutionary Command Council. Final judgements passed by the Courts of Appeal or Courts of First Instance sitting as appellate courts are executable despite any relative objection for cassation before the Supreme Court.

Courts of Appeal exist in each of the three provinces, consisting of a President, Vice-President and three judges; judgments must be given by three judges. Each Court of Appeal includes a Court of Assize consisting of three judges.

Courts of First Instance are set up in the provinces, consisting of a President, Vice-President and a number of judges; judgment in these courts is given by one judge.

Summary Courts, composed of one judge, exist within the territorial jurisdiction of every Court of First Instance. Appeals from Summary Court judgments lie to Courts of First Instance sitting as appellate courts.

The **People's Court** is a special court set up by decree in October 1969. It will deal with any crimes the Revolutionary Command Council sees fit to refer to it, but will be particularly concerned with cases of political or administrative corruption.

RELIGION

Muslims The Libyan Arabs practically without exception follow Sunni Muslim rites

Chief Mufti of Libya Sheikh TAHER AHMED AL ZAWI

Christians The Christ an community numbered about 35 000 mostly Italian Roman Catholics before the 1969 revolution its numbers have been greatly reduced by the departure of the Italians during 1970 The Roman Catholic Cathedral in Tripoli was transformed into a mosque in November 1970

THE PRESS

DAILIES

TRIPOLI

Al Hornya Sharia An Nasr 11 P.O.B. 2020 Editor MAHDI EL KAGICI

al Ra'id (The Guide) Istiklal St. Tatanaki Bldg 2nd Floor B P.O.B. 911 Tripoli 1 1956 daily Arab c

Chief Editor ABDUL GADIR ABU HARROUS circ. 11 000
Al Thawrah (The Revolution) Maidan 9 August 1 1969 official journal Ed tor MAHMOUD ABD AL KAZIQ MANNAN

BENGHAZI

al Hakika Sharia Tunis 4 P.O.B. 626 1 1964 weekly independent Arabic Editor MUHAMMAD BECHIR AL HUNI circ. 18 000

Libyan Times Sharia Tunis 4 P.O.B. 1513 1 1967 independent English Editor KASHAD B. EL-HUNI circ. 9 000

PERIODICALS

TRIPOLI

Arab Oil Review 4 Sharia Omar Ibn Abdulaziz 4 every two months English and Arabic.

Attalia (The Vanguard) 2 Sharia Tahrir 1 1958 weekly Progr and Editor SALEM SHITA circ. 6 000

Il Giornale di Tripoli (Tripoli News) Sharia Al Badadia Palazzo Vigna, Tripoli 1 1960 Italian weekly independent Editor MUHAMMAD MURABET circ. 4 500

al Hadaf Badri Bldg Sharia 24 December P.O.B. 6135 Tripoli weekly sports

al Jundi Tripoli Libyan Army publication weekly
Libyan Economist Tatanaki Bldg Sharia Istiklal P.O.B. 2469 Arabic and English monthly

The Tripolitania Gazette published by the Tripolitanian Administration Arabic English and Italian legal fortnightly

BENGHAZI

Arrabhib Arabic 1 1911 weekly general privately owned

al Bashair P.O.B. 73 1 1953 political and general weekly circ. 3 500

The Cyrenaica Gazette published by the Department of Justice Arabic

Cyrenaica Weekly News Sharia Omer Kattab P.O.B. 7 1 1957 English weekly circ. 6 000 Editor M BENSOWZID

Elzaman weekly political and general Progr OMAR ASHAB

al-Rakeb Arabic 1 1961 weekly Editor RAJAH MOHAMMED AL MOGHRAHI

SEBHA

The Fezzan Gazette published by the Department of Justice Arabic

Sebha Fezzan owned by the Ministry of News and Guidance Arabic weekly political and general

NEWS AGENCIES

Libyan News Agency Tripoli 1 1965 to work in conjunction with the Ministry of Information and Guidance. Serves the Libyan radio network newspapers and Government departments

FOREIGN BUREAUX

DPA Reuters and Tass have offices in Tripoli.

PUBLISHER

Dar Libya Publishing House P.O.B. 2487 Benghazi 1 1966 general books

RADIO AND TELEVISION

Libyan Broadcasting and TV Service P.O.B. 333 Tripoli P.O.B. 274 Benghazi 1 1957 (TV 1968) broadcasts in Arabic and English from Tripoli and Benghazi under the direction of the Minister of Information and Guidance Dir Gen Ess IBRAHIM OMER EL TEWEIR

In 1968 there were 76 000 radio sets

A National Television Service was inaugurated in December 1968

FINANCE

On November 14th 1969 the Revolutionary Command Council published a decree requiring that all banks should become locally registered with 51 per cent Libyan ownership. Several foreign banks had already taken this step of the remaining four banks Barclays DCO the largest bank in Libya was bought by the state and renamed the Al Jumhounya Bank in February 1970 All banks in Libya were completely nationalized on December 22nd 1970 several being merged to form larger units

BANKING

(cap = capital p u = paid up dep = deposits £L = Libyan Pound m = million)

CENTRAL BANK

Bank of Libya P.O.B. 1103 Tripoli br at Benghazi 1 1963 central bank with facilities for commercial business cap p u £Lm Gov K M SHERKALA

Bank of North Africa P.O.B. 374 Sharia Istiklal Tripoli 1 1965 in succession to British Bank of the Middle East which retains a minority interest brs at Tripoli (3) Benghazi (2) Ajdabiya and Mersa Brega cap p u £L550 000 Chair HAJ MUHAMMAD BEN ALI MAN DIR K V R JEFFERIES

Wahda Bank P.O.B. 2308 2 8 Maidan Ikkal Tripoli Nationalized Dec 1970 Chair and Man Dir BASHIR M SHARIF

Industrial and Real Estate Bank of Libya P.O.B. 2297 Tripoli 1 1965 state industrial development and house-building finance agency cap £L45m Dir-Gen SAID A LISHANI

LIBYA—(FINANCE, OIL, TRADE AND INDUSTRY)

al Istiqlal Bank (*Bank of Independence*): Giaddat Istiqlal 75, Tripoli; f. 1970 (formerly the Banco di Napoli).

Masraf al Gumhouria: Giaddat Istiqlal, P.O.B. 3224, Tripoli; f. Nov. 1969 as successor to Barclays Bank D.C.O. in Libya; government owned; 17 brs., at Benghazi (3), Tripoli (7), Agedabia, Beida, Derna, Tobruk, Misurata, Zavia and Zliten; cap. and deposits £L24m.; Chair. AHMED EL SHERIF.

Nadha Arabia Bank, S.A.L.: 24th Dicembre St., P.O.B. 277, Tripoli, and Midan 9th August, P.O.B. 211, Benghazi; f. 1967, in succession to the Banque Misr, which retains a minority interest; cap. £L500,000.

National Agricultural Bank of Libya: P.O.B. 1001, Tripoli; f. 1955; cap. p.u. £L6.2m.; Chair. S. SHARMIT; Man. Dir. MAHMOUD ABOUSHREIDA.

al Orouba Bank (*Bank of Arabism*): P.O.B. 235, Benghazi; formerly the Arab Bank.

Sahara Bank: Adrian Pelt St., P.O.B. 2151, Benghazi; f. 1964; Bank of America held a minority interest until Dec. 1970; Chair. Dr. A. N. ANEIZI; Man. Dir. JOHN C. CRAIG.

Société Africaine de Banque: 209-215 Sharia Ist September, Tripoli; f. 1964; Société Générale de Banque holds a minority interest; cap. p.u. £L250,000; Man. in Tripoli MAX CONSTANT.

al Uma Bank (*Bank of the Nation*): 1 Giaddat Omar Mukhtar, P.O.B. 685, Tripoli; formerly the Banco di Roma.

INSURANCE

Some twenty of the major European insurance companies, and some from other Arab countries, are represented in Libya. In December 1970 the state took over a 60 per cent share in all insurance companies, domestic and foreign, operating in Libya.

OIL

Petroleum affairs in Libya are now dealt with entirely by the reorganized Ministry of Petroleum Affairs. The Petroleum Supreme Council is a special body within the Ministry, under the chairmanship of the Minister, to study petroleum policy and methods of exploitation, and to advise on laws and regulations concerning petroleum matters.

Ministry of Petroleum: P.O.B. 256, Tripoli.

Libyan National Oil Corporation (LINOCO): P.O.B. 2655, Tripoli; f. 1970 as successor to the Libyan General Petroleum Corporation, to undertake joint ventures with foreign companies; to build and operate refineries, storage tanks, petrochemical facilities, pipelines and tankers; to take part in arranging specifications for local and imported petroleum products; to participate in general planning of oil installations in Libya; to market crude oil and to establish and operate oil terminals; Chair. ANIS A. ISHTEIWI.

The following are the principal foreign companies operating in Libya.

American Overseas Petroleum Ltd. (AMOSEAS): P.O.B. 693, Tripoli; equally owned by Texaco and Standard of California; Gen. Man. WARREN J. GLOSS.

Amoco Libya Oil Co.: P.O.B. 982, Tripoli; Pres. and Resident Man. JOHN D. TUOHY.

Aquitaine Libye: P.O.B. 282, Tripoli; subsidiary of Société Nationale des Pétroles d'Aquitaine; operates in association with Hispanoil, Murphy Oil and Elf Libye and

with AMI and DEA; shares concession with Elf Libye; operates joint venture with Libyan National Oil Corporation (LINOCO) and Elf Libye.

BP Exploration Co. (Libya) Ltd.: P.O.B. 263, Benghazi.

Nelson Bunker Hunt: P.O.B. 20, Benghazi.

Esso Sirte Inc.: P.O.B. 565, Tripoli; Pres. and Board Chair. H. de N. WYNNE.

Esso Standard Libya Inc.: P.O.B. 385, Tripoli; exploration, production, transportation, refining, marketing of crude oil and other hydrocarbons; transportation and marketing of petroleum products and related specialties; Pres. and Board Chair. H. H. GOERNER.

Gelsenberg A.G.: P.O.B. 2537, Tripoli; Gen. Man. Dr. HEINZ J. VORNHECKE.

Mobil Oil Libya Ltd.: P.O.B. 690, Tripoli; Gen. Man. J. G. LUTTRELL.

Occidental Petroleum Corporation of Libya, Inc.: P.O.B. 2134, Tripoli; runs a pipeline from the Intisar field to a terminal at Zuetina; present production 700,000 BPD; Pres. and Dir. DUDLEY E. MILLER.

Oasis Oil Company of Libya Inc.: P.O.B. 395, Tripoli; operator for Continental, Marathon, Amerada and Shell companies; Pres. HAL F. NABORS.

TRADE AND INDUSTRY

CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE

Tripolitania Chamber of Commerce and Industry: Sharia Teheran 5, Tripoli; f. 1952; Pres. ABDUL LATIF KEKHIA; Sec.-Gen. KAMIL AREIBI; 30,000 mems.; publs. *Quarterly Bulletin*, *Commercial Directory* (annual, English and Arabic).

Cyrenaica Chamber of Commerce, Industry and Agriculture: P.O.B. 208-1286, Benghazi; f. 1953; Pres. ABDALLAR H. LABBAR; Vice-Pres. ABDU I. ABDUNNABI; 4,517 mems.; publ. *Commerce and Economy* (quarterly, Arabic and English).

DEVELOPMENT

General Agrarian Reform and Land Development Authority (GARLDA): Tripoli; f. 1970; an autonomous governmental organization which has the function of land reclamation and resettlement of farmers, particularly nomads, on governmental and tribal virgin lands throughout Libya.

Industrial and Real Estate Bank of Libya: Tripoli and Benghazi; f. 1965; state industrial development and house-building finance agency, cap. £Liom., Dir. MOHAMED RABEL.

Kufrah Agricultural Project Authority: Ministry of Agriculture, Tripoli; f. 1970 to develop the Kufrah Oasis in south-east Libya.

Libyan Industrial Corporation: P.O.B. 4388, Tripoli; f. March 1970; Chair. UMAR ABDULLAH MUHAISHI; Deputy Chair. AYAD IRDADI.

NATIONALIZED INDUSTRIES

National General Contracting Company: Tripoli; f. 1970 to carry out contracting work at home and abroad.

State Tobacco Monopoly: P.O.B. 696, Tripoli; develops the production and curing of tobacco; leaf production (1970) 2 million kilos, manufactured tobacco production 170,000 kilos.

LIBYA—(TRADE AND INDUSTRY TRANSPORT TOURISM)

TRADE UNIONS

National Trade Unions Federation (affiliated to ICFTU)
P.O.B. 734, 2 Sharia Istanbul Tripoli f 1952 Sec
Gen. SALEM SHITA 30 000 mems Publ *Attaha*
(weekly)

Union of Petroleum Workers of Libya Tripoli also branch
in Benghazi

TRADE FAIR

Foire Internationale de Tripoli P.O.B. 891 Tripoli annual
fair in February March Chair and Dir Gen AHMED
MURTADI

TRANSPORT

RAILWAYS

Cyrenaica Government Railway Benghazi built 1917 27 by
Italians re-opened 1948 the system consists of two lines
extending from Benghazi as follows Benghazi Barce
108 km.) goods and passenger service Benghazi-Soluk
(55 km.) goods and passenger service and 24 km. of
track in Benghazi Docks Superintendent MUSTHA
BIZOV

ROADS

The most important road in Libya is the national coast
road 1 822 km. in length which runs the whole way from
the Tunisian to the Egyptian border passing through
Tripoli and Benghazi. It has a second link between Barce
and Lamluda, which is 141 km. long. A new highway
linking Tripoli and Benghazi is under construction. The
other federal road (completed in 1962) runs from a point
on the coastal road 120 km. south of Misurata through
Sebha (capital of Fezzan) to Ghat near the Algerian border
(total length of 1 250 km.). There is a branch 260 km. long
running from Addan to Sirte. There is a new road cross
ing the desert from Sebha to the frontiers of Chad and Niger.

In addition to the national highways Tripoli has a
about 1 200 km. of black top and macadamized roads and
Cyrenaica about 500 km. Practically all the towns and
villages of Libya including the desert oases are accessible
by motor vehicle but the going is sometimes rough.

General Corporation for Public Transport (GCPT) Tripoli
f. 1971 to manage public transport utilities throughout
the country

SHIPPING

Principal ports are Tripoli Benghazi Port Brega and the
Oasis Marine Terminal at Es Sider. Port Brega was opened
to oil tankers by King Idris on October 25th 1961. A
30-inch crude oil pipeline connects the Zeltan oilfields with
Marsa El Brega. Another pipeline joins the Sirir oilfield
with Marsa Hariga the port of Tobruk and a new pipeline
from the Idris field to Zuetina was opened in 1968. There
is another oil port at Ras Lunnuf.

Maritime Transport Corporation Tripoli f. 1970 to handle
all projects dealing with maritime trade.

The following shipping companies are among those
operating services through Libyan ports.

Abdurrahman R. Kikhla and Co. (Shipping Division) f.
1968 offices in Tripoli P.O.B. 401 Gaddat Istiklal
230 Benghazi P.O.B. 157 Sh. Rifa'at Tobruk
P.O.B. 16

The Libyan Transport Co. Benghazi Sharia Omar El
Mukhtar P.O.B. 93 f. 1949 hrs at Baida Tobruk
Marsa Brega and Cairo Dirs A S FERGIANI A T
BUTER A F JIAFAR

Mitchell Cotts & Co. (Libya) Ltd. Tripoli Sharia Sidi
Aissa P.O.B. 393 Benghazi P.O.B. 202

Giaher Agency f. 1946 membership 25 Head Office
Tripoli 12 16 Jebba St.

National Navigation Co. of Libya Tripoli 67 Bagdad St.
P.O.B. 2437 Benghazi P.O.B. 139 f. 1964 regular
services from Tunisian French Spanish Moroccan
Algerian Turkish and Italian ports to Tripoli and
Benghazi Man N BENAMOR

The Tripolitania Enterprises Co. (TECO) Ben Basi
Bldg Omer Mukhtar St. P.O.B. 149 Tripoli f. 1948
Man Dir A M. MEKATI

The Tripolitania Shipping Agency Tripoli Sharia Istiklal
8-10-12 P.O.B. 2299

Tirrenia Società per Azioni di Navigazione Tripoli
Gaddat Istiklal 69 71 Benghazi G. Gabriel c/o
Libyan Transport Co. Sharia Omar El Mukhtar 19

CIVIL AVIATION

There are three civil airports.

Idris Airport situated at Castel Benito 21 miles from
Tripoli.

Benina Airport 12 miles from Benghazi
Sebba Airport

Libyan Arab Airlines P.O.B. 350 Benghazi Tripoli
Office P.O.B. 2555 f. 1965 services to Tripoli
Athens Cairo Rome Tunis Malta Paris Beirut,
London Frankfurt and Geneva domestic services
throughout Libya. Fleet includes two Boeing 727 three
Caravelle 6R aircraft and two Fokker F 27 Chair
ANDELKERIM BALLOU

Libyan Aviation Ltd. Benghazi Domestic services.

Unair (Libyan National Airways) P.O.B. 3583 Tripoli
f. 1962 domestic services Pres Z Y LENGHI Gen.
Man P W BARKER

Libya is also served by the following foreign airlines
Alitalia B.E.A. Caledonian B.U.A. C.S.A. (Czechoslovakia)
K.L.M. Luftthansa The Malta Airlines M.I.A.
Royal Air Maroc Saudi Arabian Airlines Swissair
Tunisair T.W.A. U.A.A. U.T.A.

TOURISM

Ministry of Tourism Tripoli

Tourism is so far largely undeveloped in Libya but
major potential attractions include the superb Roman
remains at Leptis Magna Sabratha and Cyrene the fine
climate and hundreds of miles of unspoiled beaches.

EDUCATION

One of the consequences of Libya's long history of successive foreign occupations and subjugation to foreign domination has been the extreme paucity of educational facilities for the indigenous peoples.

In 1921 only four Arab primary schools were in existence in Tripolitania, with a total of 611 pupils, and there was a similar lack of development in respect of native education in Cyrenaica.

During the following years some expansion took place, and by 1939 there were in Tripolitania 70 Italo-Arab primary schools with 6,884 Arab and 170 Italian pupils, 13 girls' trades schools with 944 pupils, a secondary school, and an arts and crafts school with 85 students. In addition, evening classes were started for adult Arab illiterates, and in 1928 Arabs were permitted to join Italian secondary schools. Small numbers of Arabs also gained admittance to Italian and Egyptian universities. Koranic schools also increased in numbers from 52 with 1,792 pupils in 1921 to 496 schools with 10,165 pupils in 1939. For Jews there were 19 primary schools (2,645 students), 2 trade secondary schools with 101 pupils, and 15 private schools catering for 1,939 pupils.

Up to the year 1939 the educational system for Arabs in Cyrenaica was similarly under-developed. At that time not more than 37 elementary schools were in existence with a total of 2,600 Arab pupils, and for Jews there were 5 elementary schools with 621 students.

Due to the destruction of towns and communications and to the evacuation of many people to the interior during the Second World War, education was badly disrupted, and at the end of the war there was a great demand for educational facilities. Secondary education was no longer limited to the few places permitted in Italian schools and Libyan schools of all grades rapidly increased in number. A steady expansion of all educational services occurred between 1943 and 1949, followed by a considerable acceleration after the United Nations' decision of November 21st, 1949.

The numbers attending kindergarten, primary and secondary schools increased from a total of 6,808 in 1943-44 to 250,000 (including 50,000 girls) in 1967. The numbers of teachers rose similarly, from 219 in 1943-44 to 8,500 in 1967. Elementary education is compulsory for children of both sexes, although a few children in the smallest most scattered villages in Fezzan do not yet attend school. There were 20 kindergarten, 1,040 primary and 21 secondary schools in 1967, when secondary pupils and technical students amounted to 5,000 and 1,060 respectively.

In 1958 the University of Libya opened in Benghazi with Faculties of Arts and Commerce, followed the next year by the Faculty of Science near Tripoli. Faculties of Law, Agriculture, Engineering and Teacher Training have since been added to the University, which had 231 teachers and 2,494 students in 1967-68.

The International Labour Organization runs a Technical and Clerical Training Centre in Tripoli with about 400 students. There are also in Tripolitania and Cyrenaica 4 Teacher Training Schools (2 male and 2 female), with a total of 1,563 students and 131 teachers; 2 Agricultural training centres with 223 students; 4 Commerce and Industry Centres with 425 students; 1 Mechanical Engineering school with 22 students and a Handicraft Institute with 70 students. A Legal Studies centre was opened in Tripoli in 1957.

Tripoli College in Tripoli is a joint effort of the British Council in collaboration with the Libyan Government, with a 50 per cent Libyan intake, other places being open

to British and other foreigners. Paid education is for children up to 12 years. The British School, in Benghazi, for children up to 11 years, is run on the same basis. There are some 30 private Italian schools and institutes, and others are run by French, Greek and German authorities.

In addition some hundreds of students are studying in the United Kingdom, the United States, the United Arab Republic, Italy, Lebanon, Belgium and other countries.

Libya operates a national programme for the eradication of illiteracy. About 23,000 adults are currently studying in literacy classes conducted in the evening.

In the 1968-69 general budget, more than £L 35 million was allocated to education, representing about 17.5 per cent of the total expenditure. In addition, generous allocations were made for the five-year development plan which began in 1968-69.

LEARNED SOCIETIES

British Council: 16 Zawiat ad-Dahmani, Tripoli (P.O.B. 643); Rep. W. R. KEIGHT, M.B.E.; library of 7,000 vols.; office at Benghazi P.O.B. 368; Regional Dir. B. POTTER; library of 7,000 vols.

Centre Culturel Français: 12 Sciarra Karaci, P.O.B. 312, Tripoli; f. 1955; Dirs. R. LEVEAU, G. JANOT.

Goethe-Institut: P.O.B. 225, 14 via Toselli, Garden City, Tripoli; f. 1962; 3,000 vols. in library; Dir. Dr. WOLFGANG ULE.

Intellectual Society of Libya: 136 Shar'a Baladia, P.O.B. 1017, Tripoli; f. 1959; Pres. Dr. A. N. ANEIZI.

Istituto Italiano di Cultura: 144 Shar'a al-Baladia, Tripoli; Dir. Dott. RINA VERGARA CAFFARELLI.

Petroleum Exploration Society of Libya: P.O.B. 820, Tripoli; f. 1966; publs. Field excursion guide books.

U.S. Information Center: American Center, Shar'a al-Baladia, Tripoli; Country Public Affairs Officer JOHN F. HOGAN; also at Benghazi, Beida and Sebha; libraries and reading rooms.

LIBRARIES

American Cultural Center Libraries: Al Qayrawaan St., Tripoli.

Tripoli: f. 1951; 10,000 vols.; Librarian Mrs. PATRICIA ALLENSWORTH.

Benghazi: f. 1951; 2,000 vols.; Librarian ALI WRSHI-FANI.

Libraries in Sebha and Beida were closed in 1970.

Archives: Castello, Tripoli; f. 1928; controlled by Department of Antiquities, Ministry of Education, Tripoli; extensive collection of documents relating to the history of Tripolitania, mostly in Turkish from the Ottoman period; Dir. MAHMOUD SADIQ ABUHAMED.

Government Library: 14 Shar'a al-Jazair, Tripoli; f. 1917; 35,500 vols.; Librarian BASHIR AL-BADRI.

Islamic University Sayid Muhammad Ali Sanusi Library: Beida; f. 1960; formerly at Jaghhub; 16,000 vols. including the famous Jaghhub MSS.; Dir. Shaikh ABDULHAMID DIBANI.

Istituto Italiano di Cultura Library: 144 Shar'a al-Baladia, Tripoli; f. 1953; 7,800 vols.

Ministry of Endowments (Al Awqaf): Maidan ash-Shuhadat, Tripoli; f. 1870; 4,000 vols.; Librarian AHMAD GHANABA.

LIBYA—(LIBRARIES MUSEUMS UNIVERSITY SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES)

- Ministry of Information and Guidance Libraries** c/o Maidan ash Shuhada Tripoli
Tripoli f 1961 7 000 vols Librarian UMAR MUHAMMAD FARJANI
Benghazi f 1963 4 100 vols Librarian ABDULLATIF AL FITURL
- Public Library** Shar a Umar al Mukhtar Benghazi f 1955 11 000 vols Librarian AHMAD GALLAL
- Qurinna Library** Mukhtar St Benghazi Arab French and English books
- Supreme Court Library** Shar a ash Shatt Tripoli f 1953 1 700 vols Librarian MUHAMMAD AL-AJALI AZ-ZAHRA
- U.A.R. Cultural Centre Library** 310 Shar a Umar al Mukhtar Tripoli f 1955 26 000 vols Librarian MUHAMMAD ABDULMAGHAM DI AB
- University of Libya Library** Benghazi f 1955 40 300 vols in Arab c 37 300 in other languages (mainly English) 275 periodicals taken Acting Librarian AHMED GALLAL

MUSEUMS

- Department of Antiquities** Castello Tripoli Responsible for all museums in the former Tripolitan a Controller of Antiquities BAIGAT AL KARAMANLI
Archaeological Museum Castello Tripoli
Leptis Magna Museum of Antiquities Horns
Natural History Museum Castello Tripoli
Sabratha Museum of Antiquities Sabratha
- Department of Antiquities, Eastern Region** Beida responsible for archaeological sites throughout the former Cyrenaica including Ptolemais (Tulmaytha) Appolonia (Susa) and the mosaics at Qasr Libya Controller AWAD M SADAWYA Assistant Controller BREYK ATIYAH
- Department of Antiquities, Fezzan** Sebha f 1961 a museum exhibits the important finds from Jerma (Jarma) and the Ubani Ghat track Dir Dr AYUN ASST. DIR M BOUBAKR

UNIVERSITY

UNIVERSITY OF LIBYA BENGHAZI Founded 1955

- President** Dr OMAR T SHEBANI
Vice President Dr HADI ABULUGHA
Registrar JEBRIL M ZARWALI
Number of teachers 309
Number of students 3 588
Faculty of Arts Qasr El Manar Palace Benghazi f 1955
Dean Dr MANSOUR M KHUKYA
Number of teachers 55
Number of students 1 161

- Faculty of Commerce and Economics** Benghazi f 1957
Dean Dr ABDUL HAFID ZELITNI
Number of teachers 20
Number of students 544

- Faculty of Science** Tripoli f 1957
Dean YOUSIF MUHARIQ
Vice Dean Dr DAWOD S DAWOD
Number of teachers 59
Number of students 349

- Faculty of Law** Benghazi f 1962
Dean IBRAHIM EL MANDAWI
Number of teachers 18
Number of students 411

- Faculty of Agriculture** Tripoli f 1966
Dean Dr MOHAMMED SHAGROOM
Vice Dean Dr MUSTAFA BENHALIN
Number of teachers 31
Number of students 253

- Faculty of Engineering** Tripoli f 1961 as College of Advanced Technology Tripoli became a Faculty of the University in 1967

- Dean** Dr MOUSA OMAR
Vice Dean Dr AMIN SHEGLILA
Number of teachers 68
Number of students 465

- Faculty of Teacher Training** Tripoli f 1965 formerly Higher Teachers' Training College became a Faculty of the University in 1967

- Dean** Dr KHAIIRI SUGHAIR
Vice Dean Dr SALEM HAJJAJI
Number of teachers 53
Number of students 405

SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

- Agricultural Training Centres** Sidi Mesri Tripolitanian under Libyan American Joint Services Principal Mr DAVIES there is a similar centre in Cyrenaica
- Arts and Crafts School** Shar a 24 December Tripoli Principal Mr SALIM ZEGALLAI
- Islamic University** Sayid Muhammad Ali Sanusi El Beida the training of Koranic teachers and advanced study of the Koran Dir of Studies Shaikh MAH DIBANI other Islamic training centres exist in Tripoli Misurata and Zawia Benghazi and Jaghbub and Sebha
- Posts and Telecommunications Institute** P O B 2428 Tripoli f 1963 library of 550 vols Dir K MARA BUTACI
- Technical and Clerical Training Centre** Tripoli f 1954 Principal J STEPHENS
- Women's Teachers' Training College** Shar a an Nasr Tripoli f 1954 48 teachers 605 students Principal RABAB ADHAM

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Morocco

PHYSICAL AND SOCIAL GEOGRAPHY

The Kingdom of Morocco is the westernmost of the three North African countries known to the Arabs as Djezira el Maghreb or "Island of the West". Intermediate in size between Algeria and Tunisia, it occupies some 172 000 square miles and has an extensive coastline facing both the Atlantic and the Mediterranean. However, as a result of both its position and the existence of massive mountain ranges within its borders Morocco has remained relatively isolated from the rest of the Maghreb and has served as a refuge for descendants of the original Berber-speaking occupants of north-west Africa.

The population in 1969 was estimated at 15,030 000 and the overall density was 70 per square mile. About 35 per cent of the total are Berber-speaking peoples living mainly in mountain villages while the Arabic-speaking majority is concentrated in towns in the lowlands, particularly in Casablanca, which is the largest city in the Maghreb, in Marrakesh, the old southern capital, and in Rabat (population 370 000), the modern administrative capital. There were some 450 000 Europeans living in Morocco before the country attained its independence from the French in 1956 but since then their number has greatly diminished.

The physical geography of Morocco is dominated by the highest and most rugged ranges in the Atlas Mountain system of north west Africa. They are the result of a phase of mountain building that took place in the geologically recent Tertiary era when sediments deposited beneath an ancestral Mediterranean Sea were uplifted, folded and fractured. The mountains remain geologically unstable and Morocco is liable to severe earthquakes, such as the appallingly destructive one that took place at the port of Agadir in 1956.

In Morocco the Atlas Mountains form four distinct massifs which are surrounded and partially separated by lowland plains and plateaux. In the north, in the zone of the former Spanish Protectorate, the Rif Atlas comprise a rugged arc of mountains that rise steeply from the Mediterranean coast to heights of over 7,300 feet. Their limestone and sandstone ranges are difficult to penetrate and have functioned as an effective barrier to east-west communications. They are inhabited by Berber farmers who live in isolated mountain villages and have little contact with the Arabs of Tetuan (population 117,000) and Tangier (population 166,220) at the north western end of the Rif chain.

The Middle Atlas lie immediately south of the Rif from which they are separated by the Col de Taza, a narrow gap which affords the only easy route between western Algeria and Atlantic Morocco. They rise to nearly 10,000 feet and form a broad barrier between the two countries. They also function as a major drainage divide and are flanked by the basins of Morocco's two principal rivers, the Oum er Rba which flows west to the Atlantic and the Moulouya which flows north-east to the Mediterranean. Much of the Middle Atlas consists of a limestone plateau dissected by river gorges and capped here and there by volcanic craters and lava flows. Semi-nomadic Berber tribesmen spend the winter in valley villages and move to the higher slopes in summer to pasture their flocks.

Southward the Middle Atlas chain merges into the High Atlas, the most formidable of the mountain massifs, which rises to over 13,000 feet and is heavily snow-clad in winter. The mountains are aligned in a chain from south-west to north-east and they rise precipitously from both the Atlantic lowland to the north and the desert plain of Saharan Morocco to the south. The contrast between the two sides is very striking, the northern slopes are covered by forest and scrub while the southern slopes consist of bare sunbaked rock. Eastward the chain loses height and continues into Algeria as the Saharan Atlas. The central part of the massif is made up of resistant crystalline rocks which have been eroded by former glaciers and present streams into a wilderness of sharp peaks and steep-sided valleys, but elsewhere limestones and sandstones give rise to more subdued topography. There are no easily accessible routes across the High Atlas but numerous mountain tracks make possible the exchange of goods by pack animal between Atlantic and Saharan Morocco. A considerable Berber population lives in the mountain valleys in compact, fortified villages.

The Anti Atlas is the lowest and most southerly of the mountain massifs. Structurally it forms an elevated edge of the Saharan platform which was uplifted when the High Atlas were formed. It consists largely of crystalline rocks and is joined to the southern margin of the High Atlas by a mass of volcanic lavas which separates the valley from the river Sous, draining west to the Atlantic at Agadir, from that of the upper Draa, draining south-east towards the Sahara. On the southern side of the chain barren slopes are trenched by gorges from which cultivated palm groves extend like green tongues out into the desert.

The only extensive area of lowland in Morocco stretches inland from the Atlantic coast and is enclosed on the north, east and south by the Rif, Middle and High Atlas. It consists of the Gharb plain and the wide valley of the River Sebou in the north and of the plateaux and plains of the Meseta, the Tadia, the Rehamna, the Djebilet and the Haouz farther south. Most of the Arabic speaking people of Morocco live in this region.

Northern and central Morocco experiences a "Mediterranean" type of climate, with warm wet winters and hot dry summers, but this gives way southward to semi-arid and eventually to desert conditions. In the Rif and the northern parts of the Middle Atlas mean annual rainfall exceeds 30 inches and the summer drought lasts only 3 months, but in the rest of the Middle Atlas, in the High Atlas and over the northern half of the Atlantic lowland rainfall is reduced to between 30 and 16 inches and the summer drought lasts for 4 months or more. During the summer intensely hot winds from the Sahara, known as the Sirocco or Chergui, occasionally cross the mountains and sweep across the lowland desiccating all that lies in their path. Summer heat on the Atlantic coastal plain is tempered however by breezes that blow inland after they have been cooled over the cold waters of the Canaries current offshore.

Over the southern half of the Atlantic lowland and the Anti Atlas semi-arid conditions prevail and rainfall decreases to between 16 and 8 inches a year. It also

becomes very variable and is generally insufficient for the regular cultivation of cereal crops without irrigation. East and south of the Atlas Mountains, which act as a barrier to rain-bearing winds from the Atlantic, rainfall is reduced still further and regular cultivation becomes entirely dependent on irrigation.

The chief contrast in the vegetation of Morocco is between the mountain massifs, which support forest or open woodland, and the surrounding lowlands which, when uncultivated, tend to be covered only by scrub growth of low, drought-resistant bushes. The natural vegetation has however been widely altered, and in many places actually destroyed, by excessive cutting, burning and grazing. This is particularly evident in the lowlands and on the lower mountain slopes where such scrub species as juniper, thuya, dwarf palm and gorse are common. There is little doubt that cork oak covered a large part of the Atlantic lowland but today only the "forest" of *Mamora* remains to suggest the former abundance of this valuable tree. The

middle and upper slopes of the mountains are often quite well wooded, with evergreen oak dominant at the lower and cedar at the higher elevations. The lowlands to east and south of the Atlas Mountains support distinctive types of steppe and desert vegetation in which esparto grass and the argan tree (which is unique to south-western Morocco) are conspicuous.

Since Morocco gained its independence territorial disputes have arisen with Algeria, Mauritania and the Spanish Sahara. During the period of French occupation the south-eastern frontier with Algeria was never precisely defined and the Moroccan government has claimed an area beyond it which extends into all three neighbouring countries. The claim is based on the fact that in medieval times Moroccan rule was effective over much of the western Sahara and it is associated with the recent discovery of large iron ore deposits in the area together with the expectation of finding valuable reserves of oil.

D.R.H.

HISTORY

The Phoenicians and after them the Carthaginians established staging posts and trading factories on the coasts of Morocco. Still later, the Romans established in what is now northern Morocco the province of Mauritania Tingitana, the frontier or *limes* passing a little to the south of Rabat, Meknès and Fez. Muslim warriors raided into Morocco under Uqba b. Nafi in A.D. 684–85. It was not, however, until the first years of the eighth century that the Muslims began to bring Morocco under durable control, their forces, under Musa b. Nusair, reaching the Tafilalet and the Wadi Draa. The Berber tribesmen of Morocco rallied to the cause of Islam and had a large share in the Muslim conquest of Spain after A.D. 711. Religious ideas of a heterodox character—i.e., the ideas of the Khawarij, who constituted the first of the great schismatic movements inside Islam—won much support among the Berbers of Morocco. The spread of Kharijite beliefs, the fierce particularism of the Berbers and their refractoriness towards all forms of political control, led to a great rebellion in 739–40, which had as its chief consequence the fragmentation of Morocco into a number of small Muslim principalities.

It was Idris, a descendant of al-Hasan, the son of the Caliph Ali and of Fatima, the daughter of the Prophet Muhammad, who, fleeing westward after an unsuccessful revolt against the Abbasid Caliph in Iraq, founded the first of the great Muslim dynasties ruling in Morocco. The Idrisid régime lasted from 788–89 to 985–86. Idris, the founder of the new state, died in 792–93, after reducing most of Morocco and also Tlemcen to obedience with the aid of the Berber tribesmen who had rallied to his cause on his arrival in the western Maghreb. His son, Idris II, founded Fez, the capital of the Idrisids and a notable centre of Muslim life and civilisation in the Maghreb. After the death of Idris II (d. 828–29) the régime fell into decline. Morocco now endured for some two hundred years a long period of internecine conflict, of tribal revolt and of warring principalities. At the same time it had to face external danger in the form of pressures from the Umayyad Caliphate of Cordoba in Spain (at the apogee of its power and splendour in the reigns of Abd al-Rahman III (912–61) and al-Hakam II (961–76)) and also from the Fatimid Caliphate established and consolidated in Ifriqiya (i.e. modern Tunisia and eastern Algeria) during the years 908–69.

It was after this long period of turmoil and fragmentation that Morocco entered into the most splendid phase of its medieval history. There now arose, amongst Berbers of Sanhaja descent who followed a nomadic mode of life in the regions near the Senegal, the religious movement of the Almoravids (al-Murabitun—"people of the ribat", i.e., of a fortified abode devoted to spiritual retreat and also to jihad or war against the infidel). The chieftain of these Berbers, Yahya b. Ibrahim, brought back from Mecca Abd Allah b. Yasin to spread the true doctrine of Islam among his people. The Almoravids soon passed over from the pursuit of the ascetic life to war on behalf of the true faith. The tide of conquest in Morocco gathered momentum under the amir Abu Bakr and led, after his death, to the establishment of a vast Almoravid state in the time of Yusef b. Tashufin (d. 1106), who in 1062 founded Marrakesh and extended the domination of the Almoravids over all Morocco and much of Algeria. In 1086 he halted the southward advance of the Christian reconquista in Spain and then annexed the Muslim lands there to the Almoravid territories in North Africa. His successor Ali b. Yusuf (d. 1142) consolidated and maintained the empire, but thereafter the power of the Almoravids fell into a rapid decline. The Saharan nomads who had been the dynamic force behind the movement became absorbed, as it were, into the rich milieu of Andalusian Muslim civilization. Dynastic discord and incompetence among the Almoravid amirs hastened the collapse of the régime. The Christians in Spain took Saragossa in 1118 and began a new phase of their reconquista. And in the Atlas mountains of Morocco a new religious force was preparing to burst out over the Moroccan scene. Seven years later, in Morocco, the Almohads rose in revolt against the Almoravids and after 22 years of stubborn conflict took Marrakesh in 1147.

A religious leader, Muhammad b. Tumart (d. 1130), who had studied at Cordoba, Mecca and Baghdad, taught amongst the Masmuda Berbers of the High Atlas doctrines of a strict unitarian character and assumed for himself the designation of al-Mahdi, "the rightly guided one". Amongst the Masmuda he gathered around himself a nucleus of Berber adherents—the "Unitarians", i.e., al-Muwahhidun or Almohads. After the death of Ibn Tumart in 1130 one of his ardent disciples, a Berber of the Kumiya tribe named Abd al-Mumin, became the Khalifa of the Mahdi. Under the guidance of Abd al-Mumin (d. 1163) the Almohads took

Marrakesh in 1147 and then in the years 1151-59 over ran the rest of Morocco and the North African lands as far east as Tripolitania and Cyrenaica. The Almohads reached the summit of their splendour in the reign of al Mansur (1184-98), who brought Muslim Spain under Almohad control and checked the menacing advance of the Christians at the battle of Alarcos (1196). Under his successor Muhammad al Nasir (1199-1214) the Almohads suffered a serious defeat in battle against the Christians of Spain at Las Navas de Tolosa (1212). Thereafter the Almohad empire began to decline. The Hafsids made themselves independent in Ifriqiya (1235-56). Much of the Central Maghreb came under the control of the Abd al Wadid amirs ruling at Tlemcen. At the same time a new Berber house—the Merinids, of Zenata Berber origin—rose into prominence, conquering Fez in 1248 and Marrakesh in 1269 and thus bringing to an end the last remnants of Almohad rule.

THE MERINIDS

The Merinids, whose effective power lasted for about one hundred years, came from eastern Morocco, over ran first the northern regions of Morocco and then the lands in the south. Their attempts to reconstitute the empire of the Almohads met with no durable success. Revolt against their domination was not infrequent in the southern regions of Morocco. Several campaigns undertaken to regain control of the eastern Maghreb brought no more than transient gains, both Ifriqiya and Tlemcen escaping from their domination. Nor could the Merinids establish themselves in Spain although their interventions there did hinder the Christian reconquista and gave the Muslim state of Granada enough time to consolidate its resources and thus gain the strength to resist the Christians until 1492. The decline of the Merinid régime saw the culmination of a process long since in train. Nomadic tribes of Arab origin—the Hilal and the Sulaym—penetrated into the Maghreb during the course of the 11th and 12th centuries. Other Badawi elements infiltrated through the northern reaches of the Sahara during the later phases of Almohad rule. With the gradual disintegration of the Merinid state the Badawi tribes thrust westward through the Atlas mountains and penetrated into the heart lands of Morocco. These Badawi invasions, although causing widespread disruption and confusion, contributed much to the arabisation of Morocco and the neighbouring lands. During the years of Merinid decline, dynastic quarrels led to political disintegration, with the result that rival states came into being at Fez and Marrakesh, Morocco, until 1465, was a prey to prolonged internal discords which ended at least in part only with the emergence of another régime of Zenata Berber origin—the Wattasid régime (1465-1549). The Wattasids had no long pre-eminence; their failure to halt the progress of the Portuguese and the Spaniards, who had begun to establish themselves along the Atlantic and the Mediterranean shores of Morocco, being one of the main reasons for their rapid decline.

THE LINE OF SHARIFS

A new movement of resistance to the intrusions of the Spaniards and above all of the Portuguese (by 1500 the masters of Ceuta, Tangier, Arcila, Agadir, Mazagan and Safi on the western coast of Morocco) was born amongst the religious confraternities amongst the marabouts and the 'shorfa' (descendants of the Prophet) in Morocco who now led the jihad, or war on behalf of the Muslim faith, against the Christians. Out of this situation arose the Saadian régime, originating in a line of Sharifs from the region of the Wadi Draa on the Saharan side of the Atlas mountains. The Saadians took Fez in 1520 and Marrakesh in 1548. Their prestige was due to their status as descend-

ants of the Prophet and to their success in driving the Portuguese from most of their possessions on the Atlantic littoral of Morocco—a success which culminated in their defeat of the Portuguese at the battle of Alcazarquivir in 1578. The most famous of the Sharifs, Ahmad al Mansur (1578-1603) resisted the pressure of the Ottoman Turks on his eastern frontier with Algeria and in 1591 sent out a large expedition which seized Timbuktu and Goa on the Western Sudan, returning with rich plunder in the form of slaves and gold. Al Mansur, realising that his house had no strong tribal support such as earlier dynasties had owned, organised the Saadian régime on a new foundation (the Makhzan)—a system under which various Arab tribes enjoyed exemption from taxes in return for armed service to the state. Much depended, in such a system, on the character of the Sultan. If he were strong and able, all might be well, but in practice the political influence of the sultans tended to fluctuate in accordance with their skill or incompetence. The tribal rivalries would break out anew, the endless tensions between the nomadic and the settled elements in the population became intensified, whenever the central government was weak or ill directed. At such times the 'Bled as-Siba' (the areas of dissidence—in particular the Atlas Mountains) set their tribal autonomies against the forces of the 'Bled al Makhzan' (the controlled areas). The period of Saadian rule, which ended in 1668, was however, one of considerable prosperity for Morocco. Sugar cane culture was encouraged, gold brought by caravan from the Sudan added to the resources of the régime, close commercial contact was made with the lands of southern and western Europe, amongst them England.

Yet another wave of popular religious sentiment brought to power a new house—known under the designations Alawi, Hasani or Filali—which still reigns in Morocco. The Alawi Sharifs had their origin amongst the Berbers located in the oases of Tafilalet, i.e., Saharan Morocco. Under the guidance of the Alawi house Berber forces took Fez in 1644 and Marrakesh in 1668. The reigns of Rashid II (1664-72) and, above all, of Mulai Ismail (1672-1727) established the Alawi régime on a firm basis and saw Morocco more thoroughly pacified and more solidly united than it was ever to be again until the time of the French occupation. Ismail used as one of his main instruments of rule a powerful corps of negro troops, some stationed close to his capital, Meknes, others established in a network of Qasbahs (fortresses) which covered most of the land. He also had at his command a strong force of European renegades. Among the main achievements of Mulai Ismail must be numbered the occupation, in 1684, of Tangier (English since 1662) and the capture, in 1689, of Larache (Spanish since 1610). Mulai Ismail concluded with France in 1682 a commercial agreement, which was confirmed later in 1787, precedence being then accorded to the consuls of France over the consuls of all other nations.

Mulai Ismail had managed to thrust back the pressure of the Sanbaja Berbers, who were beginning to move down from the Middle Atlas into the lowland areas of Morocco. His successors did not win the same degree of success, with the result that after the death of Ismail in 1727, a period of confusion ensued in Morocco until the rise of yet another able prince, the Sharif Muhammad b Abdallah (1757-1790). Muhammad founded Mogador in 1765 and drove the Portuguese from Mazagan in 1769. He entered into a pact of friendship and commerce with Spain in 1767. A brief period of conflict with Spain followed in 1774 but a new agreement was negotiated between Morocco and Spain in 1780.

Muhammad b Abdallah and his immediate successors Mulai Sulaiman (1792-1822) and Mulai Abd al Rahman (1822-59) made strenuous efforts to maintain the control of the central régime in the face of tribal dissidence and

to ward off the possibilities of foreign intervention in the affairs of Morocco. The French conquest of Algiers in 1830 was bound, however, to have repercussions in Morocco. Mulai Abd al-Rahman gave assistance to Abd al-Qadir, the amir who led the Muslim resistance to France in Algeria during the years 1832–47. During the course of their campaigns against Abd al-Qadir the French met and defeated a Moroccan force at Wadi Isly in 1844.

A dispute over the limits of the Ceuta enclave, which was under Spanish rule, led in 1860 to a brief war between Morocco and Spain. Spanish troops under General O'Donnell defeated the Moroccans at Los Castillejos and seized Tetuan. A further engagement at Wadi Ras in March 1860 brought the war to a close. A peace settlement followed, under the terms of which the Ceuta enclave was enlarged and Spain was given indemnities amounting to 100 million pesetas. Morocco also granted to Spain a territorial enclave on the Atlantic coast opposite the Canaries (Santa Cruz de Mar Pequeña, now Ifni).

FRENCH RULE

France, with her hold on Algeria secure, began to turn her eyes towards the Western Maghreb—but the rivalries among the great Powers long hindered the establishment of a French protectorate over Morocco. In April 1904, however, Great Britain agreed to recognise the pre-eminence of French interests in Morocco in return for a similar recognition of English interests in Egypt. A convention between France and Spain in October 1904 assigned to Spain two zones of influence, one in northern and the other in southern Morocco. The Germans now sought to intervene in Moroccan affairs and at the conference of Algeiras in 1906 secured the adherence of the Great Powers to the economic "internationalisation" of Morocco. A sharp crisis in 1911, when the German gun-boat *Panther* appeared at Agadir, ended in a Franco-German settlement, the Germans now recognising Morocco as a French sphere of influence in return for territorial concessions in the Congo. In March 1912 Morocco became a Protectorate of France, with a French Resident-General empowered to direct foreign affairs, to control defence and also to introduce internal reforms. A new convention of 1912 between France and Spain revised the earlier agreement of 1904: Spain now received her zones of influence in Morocco (though somewhat diminished in extent)—but from France as the protecting power and *not* from the Sultan.

The first French Resident-General in Morocco was General Lyautey (1912–25). He established effective control, before 1914, over the plains and lower plateaux of Morocco from Fez to the Atlas mountains south of Marrakesh; then, before 1918, over the western Atlas, the Taza corridor connecting with Algeria and some areas of the northern highlands. French troops helped Spain to subdue the formidable rebellion (1921–26) of the Riff tribesmen under Abd al-Krim. This success meant the subjugation of the northern mountains and allowed the French to turn with unimpeded vigour to the reduction of the Middle Atlas and the Tafilalet—a task accomplished by 1934, when the pacification of the whole of Morocco could be regarded as complete.

It was at this time that nationalist sentiment began to make itself felt in Morocco. A "Comité d'Action Marocaine" now asked for a limitation of the protectorate. This "Comité" was dissolved in 1937, but nationalist propaganda continued against the French régime. Morocco rallied to the cause of France in 1939 and to the Free French movement in 1942. A Party of Independence (Istiqlal), formed in 1943, demanded full freedom for Morocco, with a constitutional form of government under Sultan Muhammad b. Yusuf, who supported the nationalist

movement. The Istiqlal, strong in the towns, did not find great favour at this time among the conservative tribesmen of Morocco, who tended to concentrate their resistance to reform on western lines around Thami al-Glawi, the Pasha of Marrakesh. The tensions between the new and the old ideas in Morocco became much sharper in 1953. Sultan Muhammad b. Yusuf had long adhered to the aims of the Istiqlal movement. He had fallen into disagreement with the French administration, refusing to issue *dahirs* (decrees) authorising various measures that the French desired to see in force. In May 1953 a number of Pashas and Caids, with al-Glawi, the Pasha of Marrakesh, at their head, asked for the removal of the Sultan. Berber tribesmen began to converge in force towards the main urban centres in Morocco such as Rabat, Casablanca and Fez. On August 20th, 1953, the Sultan agreed to go into exile in Europe, but not to abdicate. Muhammad b. Arafa, a prince of the Alawi house, was now recognised as Sultan. Attempts to assassinate him occurred in September 1953 at Rabat and again in March 1954 at Marrakesh. The situation continued to be tense, with outbreaks of violence occurring here and there throughout Morocco in 1954–55 and nationalist fervour running high.

INDEPENDENCE—1956

Sultan Muhammad b. Arafa renounced the throne and withdrew to Tangier in 1955. Muhammad b. Yusuf, on November 5th in that year, was recognised once more as the legitimate Sultan. A joint Franco-Moroccan declaration of March 2nd, 1956, stated that the Protectorate agreement of 1912 was obsolete and that the French government now recognised the independence of Morocco. A Protocol of the same date covered the transitional phase before new agreements between France and Morocco, still to be negotiated, could come into effect. The Sultan would now have full legislative powers in Morocco. Henceforward a High Commissioner was to represent France in the new state. France undertook also to aid Morocco with the organization of its armed forces and to assist in the re-assertion of Moroccan control over the zones of Spanish influence, the sole legal basis for which was the Franco-Spanish convention of 1912. On November 12th, 1956, Morocco became a member of the United Nations.

In August 1956 the Istiqlal proclaimed the need to abrogate the Convention of Algeiras (1906), which had "internationalised" the economic life of Morocco, and also to secure the withdrawal of all foreign troops from the land. An international conference met at Fedala, near Casablanca, in October 1956, to consider the future of Tangier, administered since 1912 under an international régime. In October 1956 Tangier was restored to Morocco. A Royal Charter of August 1957 maintained in general the former economic and financial system in force at Tangier, including a free money market, quota-free trade with foreign countries and a low level of taxation. In 1959 Tangier lost its special status and was integrated financially and economically with Morocco, but a Royal decree of January 1962 made it once more a free port. The Istiqlal, in 1956, had envisaged the creation of a "Great Morocco" which, according to a map published in July of that year, would include certain areas in South-West Algeria, the Spanish territories in North-West Africa and also Mauritania, together with the French Sudan (i.e., the Republic of Mali). The Sultan of Morocco and his government reiterated these claims in the years which followed the achievement of Moroccan independence. Moreover, in 1958, a number of personalities prominent in the political life of Mauritania, amongst them the Amir of Trarza in the extreme south-west of the Republic, withdrew to Morocco and found a welcome there. Morocco began in 1960 an intensive propaganda and diplomatic campaign

against Mauritania, asking in August 1960, that the question of Mauritania be placed on the agenda of the United Nations. The Political Committee of the UN General Assembly debated the question in November, but without agreeing to a formal resolution.

The problem of the Spanish territories in North West Africa also came to the fore at this time. During the course of a visit which Sultan Muhammad b Yusuf made to Madrid in April 1956, soon after Morocco became independent, Spain had recognised the independence of Morocco, renouncing also the northern zone of the protectorate assigned to her in Morocco under the terms of the Franco-Spanish convention of 1912. One factor in the general situation was the existence in the western Sahara of irregular Moroccan forces (the "Armée de Libération du Grand Sahara") reputed to have some connection with the Istiqlal. These irregular forces attacked the Spanish enclave of Ifni in southern Morocco on November 23rd, 1957, but after some stiff fighting had to withdraw in the first week of December. During the first three months of 1958 irregular bands also raided into the Spanish territories of Sagua al Hamra and Rio de Oro and into the northern fringes of Mauritania. A combined Franco-Spanish operation cleared the irregulars from the Spanish territories and the adjacent lands by the beginning of March. The Moroccan government had declared that it was not responsible for these incursions. Negotiations between Morocco and Spain held at Cintra in Portugal, led in April 1958 to an agreement under which Spain, in accordance with the settlement reached in April 1956, relinquished to Morocco the southern zone of her former protectorate. There was to be friction yet again between the two states in the summer of 1962, when Morocco extended her territorial limits from six to a distance of twelve miles from her shoreline—a move most unwelcome to Spanish fishermen who often visited Moroccan coastal waters.

In December 1965 the United Nations passed a resolution urging the government at Madrid to decolonize Ifni and the Spanish Sahara. However, no action was taken and in September 1967 the Foreign Minister of Morocco visited Madrid to talk over the situation. The following December the UN adopted a new resolution, requesting Spain in consultation with Morocco and Mauritania, to organize a referendum in the Spanish Sahara under its auspices. The referendum would enable the local populations to have a voice in determining their own future. At the same time the UN Secretary-General was urged to appoint a special commission empowered to visit the Spanish Sahara and examine the conditions prevailing there.

KING HASSAN II

On July 9th Prince Moulay Hassan was proclaimed heir to the throne and on August 15th 1957, Sultan Muhammad assumed the title of king. The prince, on the death of King Muhammad in January 1962, ascended the throne as Hassan II. In November 1962 King Hassan announced details of a new constitution (later approved through a referendum held in December 1962). The Kingdom of Morocco was declared to be a sovereign state—monarchical, constitutional, democratic and social in its form of government. The state religion was Islam, the official language, Arabic. All adult men and women would have the franchise. To all citizens the constitution guaranteed freedom of movement, speech and opinion and the right to join political and trade union organisations. The King was empowered to appoint and dismiss the Prime Minister and the Ministers of State and to preside over the Cabinet. Morocco would have a House of Representatives elected by universal direct suffrage for a term of four years, and a House of Councillors (i.e., a Senate), two-thirds of its

members chosen by an electoral college consisting of members drawn from the provincial, prefectural and communal councils and one third selected by the trade unions and by the Chambers of Handicrafts, of Commerce and Industry and of Agriculture.

An election for the House of Representatives (chosen under a system of single member constituencies) was held on May 17th, 1963. A 'Front for the Safeguarding of Constitutional Institutions' (F D I C)—a pro government organization—had been formed in March 1963. The main opposition came from the left wing 'National Union of Popular forces' (U N F P) and from the conservative Istiqlal. As a result of the election the distribution of seats in the new House of Representatives was—F D I C, 69 seats, Istiqlal, 41 seats, U N F P, 28 seats, Independents, 6 seats. The F D I C had shown itself to be the strongest in the eastern and southern areas of Morocco, the U N F P had found its best support in the main towns such as Casablanca, Rabat, Agadir and Tangier, while the Istiqlal did well in the former Spanish (northern) zone and the adjacent areas, and also in the region of Marrakesh. The elections to the House of Councillors, held on October 13th, 1963, gave 107 seats to the F D I C, 11 to Istiqlal and two seats to Independent members. King Hassan opened the first Parliament of Morocco on November 18th, 1963.

Moroccan troops in July 1962, had entered the region south of Colomb-Béchar in Algeria—a region never officially demarcated. The Moroccan press also launched a strong campaign in support of the view that the Tindouf area in the extreme south west of Algeria should belong to Morocco—a claim of some importance, since the area contains large deposits of high grade (57 per cent) iron ore and is believed to have also considerable resources of oil and natural gas. King Hassan paid an official visit to Algeria in March 1963, as a result of which, in March and again in April, the two states entered into a number of agreements relating to technical, economic, administrative and cultural matters. Morocco and Algeria came into violent conflict, however, in October 1963. Morocco and France, in the Lalla Marnia agreement of 1845 had defined their common frontier from the coast southward to Teniet al-Sassi (a distance of some 80 miles), the frontier to the desert lands to the South remaining undemarcated. French forces from Algeria occupied the Touat oases, however, in 1899–1900 and also Colomb-Béchar in 1901. An agreement of 1912 defined the border from Teniet al-Sassi to Colomb-Béchar (the "Vannier Line"), which the Sultan of Morocco recognised in 1928 as the administrative and financial frontier. French forces from Algeria occupied the Tindouf area in 1934. Morocco now, in the years after the attainment of her independence, recognised as valid only the agreement of 1845.

In September 1963 Moroccan auxiliaries began to move southward from Tagout into the region of Hassi Beida and Tinjoub about 250 miles south west of Colomb-Béchar and 200 miles north-east of Tindouf. There was sharp fighting in this area from October 8th to November 4th, 1963. With the mediation of President Keita of Mali a cease fire was signed at Bamako on October 30th. The Council of Foreign Ministers of O A U (the Organisation for African Unity) met at Addis Ababa on November 18th and created an arbitration commission, which thereafter (December 3rd 5th, 1963 to January 23rd 27th, 1964) held discussions at Abidjan in the Ivory Coast and at Bamako in Mali, Morocco and Algeria submitting evidence in support of their respective territorial claims. On February 20th, 1964, an agreement was reached on the establishment of a demilitarised zone.

It was announced at Rabat on February 2nd, 1964 that Morocco and the United Arab Republic would resume diplomatic relations with each other. These relations had

been suspended and the respective Ambassadors recalled in October 1963 as a result of U.A.R. support for Algeria in its border dispute with Morocco.

Relations between Morocco and Algeria improved in the course of 1964. April 1964 witnessed an exchange of prisoners taken in the late hostilities and also the withdrawal—its work completed—of the joint Mali-Ethiopia Commission. Morocco and Algeria resumed normal diplomatic relations in May 1964. At Tlemcen, also in May, a joint technical commission reached agreement on a number of points—on the re-opening of the common frontier (achieved on June 8th 1964), on freedom for the nationals of either state, expelled from the other, to return to their homes, on compensation for such expelled nationals, on the ending of all measures of detention directed against the citizens of either state as a result of the pre-existing dispute, and on further discussions designed to explore the possibilities of technical, economic, financial and administrative co-operation between the two countries. The Special Commission of Arbitration established by the O.A.U. in November 1963 continued its work in 1964, meeting on a number of occasions in Morocco and Algeria. A more amicable relation also became evident between Morocco and Mauritania. The Ministers of Information of these two states met at Cairo in July 1964 during the course of an African Summit Conference. An understanding was reached to bring an end to the 'war' of radio propaganda and criticism hitherto active between Morocco and Mauritania.

King Hassan II paid an official visit to Tunisia in December 1964—a visit which marked the full renewal, between Morocco and Tunisia, of the good relations disturbed when, in 1960, Tunisia had recognized the independence of Mauritania. Diplomatic relations between Morocco and Tunisia had been restored somewhat earlier in May 1964. The visit of King Hassan to Tunis had as its outcome the renewal of a number of conventions (first concluded in 1959) which related to judicial affairs, radio and television, cultural relations, transport, labour problems and public health. Two further agreements now negotiated took the form of a diplomatic and consular convention and of an establishment convention granting to the nationals of one state resident in the other equal rights with local citizens, save in the sphere of politics.

In May 1964 Morocco concluded with UNESCO an agreement to establish at Tangier an administrative training and research centre for Africans, with special emphasis on the training of senior personnel for development projects. At Tunis, on September 9th-October 1st 1964, the Economic Ministers of Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia and Libya agreed to create special relationships between their respective countries in the field of economic co-operation, trade exchanges and the co-ordination of tariff policies. A further conference at Tangier in November 1964 led to the formation of a permanent joint consultative committee served by an administrative secretariat and by a number of subordinate and specialized commissions (*see* separate Chapter in Part I). The Committee, which would meet at least once a quarter, under the chairmanship of each state in rotation, was to harmonize the development programmes of the participating countries. At this same time it was also resolved to establish an Industrial Studies Centre, with its headquarters at Tripoli and with the co-ordination of industrial projects in the member states as its main function. King Hassan, in December 1964, inaugurated the work of a Superior Council for National Promotion and Planning, a consultative organ of Government, as envisaged in the Constitution of Morocco. A three-year programme (1965-1967) now came under discussion, the main emphasis

resting on agriculture, on industrial projects connected with the preserving and treatment of agricultural products, on the training of civilian personnel and also on the advantages to be drawn from tourism.

The Moroccan Government envisaged in 1964 a development programme for the mountainous Rif area, where the UN Food and Agricultural Organisation had completed a study project embracing agricultural re-education schemes, modernisation of farming methods through the use of instruction centres, and the adoption of techniques against soil erosion and for the improvement of crops, sheep and cattle. Progress was also made towards limiting the incidence of river flooding in northern Morocco through a system of barrage controls on the Sebou and Ouerrha rivers.

In August 1964 there was a re-organization of the Moroccan Government. The new Cabinet, under the leadership of M. Hajj Ahmad Bahnini, consisted in the main of members chosen from the Front for the Defence of Constitutional Institutions (FDIC). This re-organisation was interpreted as foreshadowing a possible attempt of King Hassan to broaden the basis of Government through close co-operation with members of the Opposition—i.e., with the Istiqlal and with the National Union of Popular Forces (UNFP). Istiqlal held its national congress at Casablanca on February 14th, 1965. M. Allal al-Fassi was re-elected as its President. The congress adopted resolutions for the economic liberation of Morocco and for an increased measure of agrarian reform. It also asked for new political elections free from Government intervention.

INTERNAL DEVELOPMENTS 1965-71

The first half of 1965 was a time of political tension in Morocco. A circular from the Minister of Education, issued in March 1965, imposed on all students over seventeen years of age some form of technical training. To numerous students it seemed that the circular might lead to their exclusion from professional and civil service careers. At Casablanca, on March 23rd, demonstrations amongst the students developed into riots with the rapid participation of workers, amongst whom rising prices and growing unemployment had caused much unrest. Police and troops had to fire on the demonstrators before order could be restored: over 100 people were estimated to have been killed.

At the opening of a new session of Parliament on May 3rd, 1965, the King made an appeal for the formation of a government of National Union. He had begun discussions earlier, on April 20th, with the leaders of the political parties, with the Presidents of the two Chambers of the Parliament and also with prominent political figures. The King proposed a programme of development for Morocco—a programme which emphasized the need for industrial advance with the aid of foreign capital, the introduction of measures designed to encourage investment, the stabilization of the cost of living and the limitation of the birth-rate. Amongst the reforms now put forward was the suggestion that the Government should take over all lands granted by former Sultans to the various tribes, dedicated as religious endowments, or owned formerly by the French Government and by French colonists, and share them out amongst the peasant population, the beneficiaries receiving in addition financial and technical assistance from the state. There were proposals, too, for administrative reform: the Civil Service would be recruited through a system of competitive examinations, and a special court, established under a law promulgated in April 1965, would sit in judgement on officials accused of corrupt practices.

The appeal of King Hassan II to the main political parties met with no pronounced success. Dissension continued in the Parliament. M. Hajj Ahmad Bahmri, the Prime Minister, resigned from the Democratic Socialist Party of which he was President on June 4th 1965. On June 7th King Hassan proclaimed a state of emergency under which he himself assumed full legislative and executive power within Morocco. New elections it was stated would be held after the Constitution had been revised and submitted to a referendum. On July 1st the King announced the nationalization of the export trade of citrus fruit, vegetables, fish products and handicraft goods under the *Office Chérifien de Contrôle et d'Exportation*. Together with the phosphate industry over 60 per cent of Moroccan export trade was now nationalized. Further nationalization was carried out in 1966 and 1967.

In July 1967 King Hassan relinquished the post of Prime Minister to Dr Mohammed Benhima and in 1967 and 1968 there were eight major cabinet reshuffles. Considerable student unrest continued in this period.

1969 saw a gradual return to full political activity, though still under royal direction. Municipal and rural communal elections were held in October, although these were boycotted by opposition parties and the successful candidates mostly stood as independents. Following this Dr Mohammed Benhima, Prime Minister since July 1967, was replaced by Dr Ahmed Laraki, formerly Foreign Minister. A national referendum on a new constitution was at last held in July 1970; official figures claimed that over 98 per cent of the votes were affirmative, despite general opposition from the main political parties, trade unions and student organizations. Elections for a new single chamber legislature were held in August. Of the 240 members, 90 were elected by direct suffrage, 90 by local councils and 60 by an electoral college. The results were that 158 elected members were independents, 60 were of the government party *Mouvement Populaire* and 22 from opposition parties.

In July 1971 there was an unsuccessful attempt by a section of the army to overthrow the King and establish a republic. The attempt was led by Gen. Mohammed Medbouh, Minister of the Royal Military Household, and Col. Mohammad Ababou. Together with some 1,400 military cadets they attacked the King's palace at Skhirat while he was celebrating his birthday with members of the government, foreign diplomatic corps and many other guests. Although the rebels at one point had captured the King and his ministers and controlled the radio station and the Interior Ministry, they were soon overwhelmed. Many of their own men apparently rallied to the King while the rest of the army counter-attacked quickly. The revolt was suppressed in under 24 hours. Over 150 of the rebels were killed in the fighting. The King escaped unhurt but some of his generals, a minister and an ambassador were among those killed and other guests were wounded. The King later said that there had been foreign involvement in the abortive coup, which he described as Libyan-style. A few hours after the revolt had begun the Libyan Government had alerted its armed forces to be ready to defend the Moroccan revolution. Relations between the two countries were later severed. The coup attempt appears to have been engineered by right-wing army officers, angered by the King's too lenient treatment of dissent on the left.

FOREIGN RELATIONS 1966-70

In June 1966 Morocco signed two agreements with Yugoslavia—the one for joint participation in oil prospecting the other for the exploitation of potash deposits. Oil

exploration has not so far been promising. Some oil (about 100,000 tons a year) is available at two small fields—at Sidi Rhamem and at Harisha. Morocco also made with Yugoslavia in 1966 arrangements for the working of some potash, copper, lead and zinc resources.

During 1966-67 Morocco viewed with unease the arrival in Algeria of Soviet planes, guns and tanks. The Moroccan government felt that the flow of arms into Algeria was creating a serious military imbalance in North Africa. Some of the new equipment which Algeria had received from the U.S.S.R. had been sent so it was said to the western areas of Algeria, where the Tindouf region was still a matter of dispute between Morocco and Algeria. In November 1966 Morocco acquired from the U.S.A. a number of military jets which formed a counterpoise to Soviet planes known to have reached Algeria. The King visited the United States in February 1967. Reports current at the time intimated that the U.S.A. was prepared to make available arms worth some 15 million dollars in order to strengthen the defences of Morocco. In March 1967 King Hassan urged Algeria to discontinue its military programme and to enter into negotiations with Morocco or else to accept the suggestion that a United Nations disarmament commission should visit Morocco and Algeria.

In the Arab-Israeli war in June 1967 the Moroccan government gave voice to its support of the Arabs, anti-Zionist cause but did not commit its troops to the fighting. After the Arab defeat, brief outbursts of public demonstration were followed by an unofficial commercial boycott of the 70,000 strong Jewish community in Morocco. The government's condemnation of this boycott was unpopular with trade unionists and was challenged by the General Secretary of the U.M.T. Mahjoub Ben Seddik who was promptly arrested and sentenced to eighteen months imprisonment on a charge of undermining the respect due to the authority of the state.

In October 1967 the Moroccan government signed an agreement with the U.S.A. which would make available to her some 34 million dollars of economic aid. In February 1968 Herr Brandt, the Federal German Foreign Minister, visited Rabat for talks. Among matters discussed were a number of economic projects which it is hoped with German assistance to undertake in Morocco. King Hassan himself visited Iran in April 1968 in order to discuss economic co-operation.

One principal event of the undisturbed political scene since the Palestine war was the Spanish surrender of the small coastal enclave of Ifni. Spain's possession of Ifni, Ceuta, Melilla and the Spanish Sahara to the south of Morocco has long been a cause of friction between the two countries. The Moroccan Government has made much of the apparent inconsistency between the Spanish campaign against Gibraltar and Spain's determined retention of its African colonies. Ifni, held by Spain since 1860, is a poor territory with little obvious economic or strategic potential and its Spanish population is small. It might well have been handed over before but for Moroccan insistence on negotiating on the other territories, Ceuta and Melilla, are Spanish populated and rich phosphate deposits have been discovered in the Sahara, so a voluntary Spanish surrender of these colonies appears unlikely. Morocco officially took over Ifni on June 30th 1969.

Moroccan diplomacy achieved several notable successes in the 1969-70 period. Rabat was host to both the Islamic summit conference held in September 1969 following the fire at the Al Aqsa mosque in Jerusalem and to the fifth Arab summit conference in December 1969. Morocco did not take a very active part in either meeting—just as it did not participate in the hostilities in Palestine—but its official acceptance of Mauritania's presence in September was to lead to the dropping of her claim to that country.

later in the year. Full diplomatic recognition and an exchange of ambassadors followed in January 1970; in June 1970, a treaty of solidarity, good neighbourliness and co-operation was signed between the two countries. Relations with France improved following the general pattern in the Arab world, and the diplomatic missions in Paris and Rabat were returned to full ambassadorial status for the first time since the Ben Barka affair in 1966. Relations were further improved with the visit to Morocco by the French Foreign Minister, M. Schumann in December

1970. As a result of talks, a Franco-Moroccan inter-governmental commission was set up, to meet at least once a year.

In May 1970 final agreement was reached in the frontier dispute with Algeria. A joint commission will map out a delineation maintaining the boundaries of the colonial period. The disputed region of Gara-Djebilet, rich in iron ore deposits, thus becomes the property of Algeria, but Morocco will have a share in a joint company to be established to exploit these deposits.

V.J.P.

ECONOMIC SURVEY

Morocco is endowed with a number of assets. The country has a congenial climate, varied soils with good agricultural potential and important mineral resources. There is an emerging industrial sector, a small, but growing managerial class and the beginnings of an industrial force. The economic infrastructure (transport, communications, electric energy) is at an advanced stage. The beauty of the country and its climate offer opportunities for the growth of tourism. However, the movement out of the country of capital and trained personnel in the period immediately before and after independence was a severe setback to economic growth, and the G.N.P. fell to 8,530 million dirhams in 1959. This was followed by an extremely poor harvest in 1961, although thanks to favourable capital movements, growth was more satisfactory in 1962, when the gross national product reached 10,650 million dirhams. This improvement continued in the period 1963-69, when the G.N.P. rose at an annual average rate of 3.9 per cent in real terms to 16,110 million dirhams in the latter year. Of the major total sectors of production, only mining and industry grew faster than the national average in 1968-69 (by 4.3 per cent and 4.3 per cent a year respectively). Agricultural production rose by less than 1 per cent annually over this period, as did the activity in the various service sectors while construction and public works showed a decline.

The problems that Morocco has had to face are familiar ones for those countries called "underdeveloped"—a fast-rising population (3-3.2 per cent per annum), nourished for the most part by an out-of-date agricultural system, and to a considerable extent dependent on foreign capital for financing any substantial increase in the country's productive capacity. National income per capita is relatively low at 1,060 dirhams. The King himself once stated that Morocco is a rich country with poor people. The wealth of the country is most unequally distributed between the landowners and the small number of urban industrialists and merchants on the one hand and the rural masses and small but growing urban proletariat on the other.

The share of G.N.P. devoted to investments is about 13 per cent, a low level by world standards. Unemployment is a serious problem; it is estimated that 40 per cent of the youth between the ages of 20 and 30 are unemployed. A substantial trade deficit has been built up and deficits continue, requiring to be balanced by foreign loans and aid. A Development Plan for the years 1960-64 had to be abandoned because its target for investment proved over-ambitious and its target of a 6 per cent increase in Gross Domestic Product proved an unrealizable objective. A Development Plan for the period 1965-67 was adopted, its primary objective consisting of ensuring an output growth rate higher than the population growth rate, thus permitting per capita incomes to rise and living standards to improve.

A new Five Year Plan (1968-72) has now been adopted. It calls for expenditures of \$998 million over the five year

period and aims to achieve an annual growth rate of 5 per cent by 1973. The development plan concentrates on agriculture and related industries, mineral resources, tourism, health, education and technical training programmes. The first full year (1969) of the plan was a good one for the Moroccan economy. The country's gross domestic product rose at the target rate of 5 per cent, while total investment rose by 10 per cent and retail prices increased by only 3 per cent. The only major cloud on the horizon was the flood damage experienced in Morocco in early 1970. It is estimated that about 150,000 hectares of land were under water and unfit for agriculture. Of this 15,000 hectares were sugar-beet fields, 44,000 hectares cereals, 15,500 hectares potatoes and other crops and 5,000 hectares citrus fruit. The loss of 15,000 hectares of sugar-beet land is expected to halt production in the sugar refineries and force the government to use hard currency to import sugar from abroad to replace the loss of local output. The 5,000 hectares of citrus land will probably have to be completely replaced. The serious nature of this damage is readily appreciated when it is realized that Morocco's economic prosperity in the near future depends to a considerable extent on the successful execution of the ambitious agricultural projects envisaged in the new development plan. If successful, these projects would greatly reduce imports of foodstuffs, thus saving valuable foreign exchange, relieve the unemployment problem, which is serious, and improve the purchasing power of the rural population, thereby increasing the market for the products of new and expanding industries.

Morocco also has a great need for investment, and it must receive the assistance of private industry, as well as of foreign governments and international agencies, in helping it to expand its assets and to use them to best advantage. The country has features which should help considerably towards its development, including a convenient geographical position, considerable natural resources, an excellent communications system and a booming tourist industry. The number of tourists entering Morocco has shot up by almost one-quarter in the last three years to total 716,367 in 1969. The official target of 1 million visitors to Morocco by 1972 appears realistic.

AGRICULTURE AND FISHERIES

Agriculture is the key to the economy of Morocco. Three-quarters of Morocco's population of 15 million people live in the countryside, and 65 per cent of the active labour force is engaged in agriculture, livestock-raising and fishing. Thus agriculture provides the means of livelihood of the majority of the population, supplies about 90 per cent of the country's domestic food requirements and in the region of 50 per cent of the country's total merchandise exports. The agricultural sector contributed 21 per cent of the gross domestic product in 1968.

Changing climatic conditions cause substantial year-to-year variations in agricultural output. In years with

bumper harvests such as 1958 the contribution of agriculture to the gross domestic product rises to over 30 per cent whereas in years with particularly poor crops such as 1961 the corresponding contribution is in the region of 20 per cent. The principal crops are cereals especially wheat and barley beans and chickpeas and other legumes canary seed, cummin and coriander linseed olives almonds and citrus fruits Esparto grass is put to several uses including the manufacture of vegetable horsehair and is exported for paper making. Recently vast areas of esparto grass have been brought into economic use by the establishment of a pulp industry based on this grass and on the eucalyptus tree. Forest resources almost entirely in the patrimony of the state include cork (covering approximately 310 000 hectares) cedar argon oak and various conifers Tizra wood is exported for tanning. The production of wine is important 1 751 000 hectolitres being produced in 1967-68 half as much as in 1966-67. Since 1967 as a result of difficulties in the sale of wine particularly in sales to France till then the largest client Morocco has been looking for other wine markets and reducing the area of its vineyards by converting them to orange groves. Out of the 75 000 hectares formerly devoted to vineyards only 59 000 hectares were used for this type of production in 1969 and production sagged sharply to 700 000 tons in that year. Morocco now expects that France will be forced by its own bad harvest to make wine purchases from abroad including most of the Moroccan harvest of 1969 and the stocks of 400 000 hectolitres held over from previous years. In the opening of an annual quota of 1 million hectolitres of Moroccan wine France agreed to buy 100 000 hectolitres at prices similar to those at which French production is purchased and 400 000 hectolitres at less favourable conditions which are still good enough to attract Moroccan producers. Of the remaining 600 000 hectolitres 120 000 hectolitres may be sold to French overseas territories 200 000 hectolitres on the local Moroccan market and 170 000 hectolitres may be processed into other products such as vinegar. There were in 1966 2.9 million cattle 15 million sheep and 7.8 million goats. Pasture is often thin the quality of herds is poor and stock numbers are declining. The country is largely self sufficient in foodstuffs. The main foods it needs to import are sugar dairy products and wheat (hard wheat is exported and soft wheat is imported). Agricultural produce and products derived therefrom accounted in 1968 for 56 per cent of all exports. Exports of citrus in 1969 brought in 389 million dirhams. Oranges provided the bulk of this figure and find their most important markets in France West Germany the U.S.S.R. and the Netherlands. Exported tomatoes at 146 million dirhams were more important than wine valued at 60 million dirhams in 1969. Morocco is the world's second largest citrus fruit exporter after Spain exporting 550 000 tons of its annual output of 700 000 tons of oranges. After the treaty with the EEC becomes valid in 1969 Moroccan citrus fruit will be liable to a duty of only 4 per cent in Common Market countries as against the present rate of 20 per cent in all EEC countries except France where it is duty free. Morocco does not only export citrus fruits but also fruit juice. The industry is still in its early stages and the 38 000 tons of fruit which were processed in 1965-66 has risen rapidly to 78 000 tons in 1968-69. Nearly 18 million litres and 2 600 tons of concentrate have been exported mainly to the U.S.A. Brazil and South Africa.

Fishing is a valuable industry. The total catch in 1968 was 219 920 metric tons of which sardines amounted to 167 613 tons. The main fishing ports are Safi in the southern part of Morocco and Agadir. There is also some activity at Essaouira and Casablanca. Little fish is consumed fresh or exported fresh (9 775 tons in 1968). Fish processing is very important and exports in 1967 were

valued at 124 million dirhams (mostly sardines with some tunny fish and mackerel). Moroccan sardines have been known for many years on the world market for their flavour and high quality. There are also substantial exports of fish meal and other products for use as fertilizers and animal foodstuffs.

The agricultural scene is a dual one on the one side a system of holdings inherited from and in many cases still owned by European farmers with an emphasis on cash and export crops and on the other the Muslim farmers who are much less prosperous and who raise crops mainly for their own consumption. The traditional arable farming comprises 800 000 to 1 000 000 holdings covering approximately 4 million hectares and is characterised by the small size of the holdings the legal complexity of rights governing their tenure low productivity and the predominance of cereals and stock raising. Not all animal husbandry is carried on by Moroccans 15 per cent of the 1960 animal census was owned by Europeans. Irrigation plans have not made great headway due to the conservatism of the farmers and the complexity of the legal situation (much of farming and grazing land is owned by the state tribes and religious communities—individual ownership formalised by title deeds is still relatively unusual but is spreading). Cereals are grown on more than 80 per cent of the cultivated land. 1968 was a particularly good year for Moroccan agriculture. Climatic conditions were favourable and the Ministry of Agriculture made great efforts to improve fields. Over 30 000 hectares were treated with fertilizer. The cereals harvest (50 million quintals) and the olive harvest (300 000 tons) were double the size of the 1967 harvests. Exports of citrus fruits at 610 000 tons increased by 20 per cent compared with the 1966-67 season. Wheat output in 1967-68 totalled 2 550 000 tons compared with 1 300 000 tons in 1966-67.

Morocco produced 21 700 tons of untreated cotton in 1969-70 compared with 19 100 tons in 1968-69. These figures confirm the gradual recovery in cotton production although they are still far below the official forecasts of 42 000 tons in 1970-71. Over half of Morocco's cotton is exported to Western Europe 25 per cent to India and 15 per cent to Eastern Europe the remaining 10 per cent is used in Moroccan industry.

'Operation Labour' was initiated as part of the 1958 59 Development Plan to teach the peasants to modernize their production methods but the exodus of large numbers of skilled French personnel after independence sabotaged the programme. It was calculated in 1955 that only about 275 000 hectares owned by Moroccans were cultivated with the aid of any machinery 9 600 tractors and 3 000 combine harvesters were in operation at the end of 1963. The continuance of this general situation means that there is continual migration to the towns. Experts stress that an essential preface to agricultural improvement is the rationalization of the holdings but at the moment the government has had to concentrate on the problem of the contrast of the poverty of the Muslim sector of agriculture with the comparative prosperity of European farming.

At the time of independence the extent of European holdings was put at just over one million hectares divided into 5 900 holdings. These produced about 25 per cent of the gross value of all crops 80 per cent of all wine and citrus fruits 33 per cent of vegetables and 15 per cent of cereals. Thus there has been continual pressure for a takeover of land owned by Europeans. This resulted in the 1959 nationalisation of about 30 000 hectares of land run by expatriate foreign owners. In September 1963 the government designated 250 000 hectares of *lots de colonisation* (land worked by Europeans on terms amounting to less than outright ownership) for nationalization. It is estimated that 400 000 hectares remain in foreign hands.

As a result of government action and the conclusion of production contracts, two industrial crops of outstanding importance for the Moroccan economy are in vigorous expansion, namely, sugar beet and cotton. Each occupied more than 11,500 hectares in 1965, whereas together they covered barely 2,000 hectares 10 years previously. Market gardening, especially in irrigated areas yields more income per unit of land than most other crops. Output of tomatoes and miscellaneous green vegetables is fairly constant, but potato output fluctuates widely from one year to another. A year of weak prices can be disastrous for small market gardeners, who are nevertheless unwilling to submit to output controls. Output of pulses especially broad beans and chick peas has expanded fairly steadily since 1957. In 1966, 32,000 tons of chick peas and 96,000 tons of broad beans were produced.

A total sum of £63 million is due to be spent on dams and irrigation networks under the five-year plan with a view to increasing the irrigated area by 158,000 hectares. The first of a series of six dams to be built during the plan period was completed in November 1970. The dam, located at Ait Aidel on the River Tersaout will increase the irrigated area in the Haouz plain from 3,000 to 30,000 hectares. A hydro electric plant with a capacity of 60 million kilowatt-hours a year is also planned.

MINING AND INDUSTRY

Although the occupation of Morocco by France and Spain was inspired largely by political motives characteristic of the time, the material profits of the Protectorate then established derived mainly from the rich mineral resources. Moreover, the fact that these countries already possessed mineral processing plants meant that the minerals in Morocco were—and still are, for the most part—exported in a raw state. The most important mineral deposits are phosphates—Morocco is the second most important producer after the United States and the largest exporter in the world—and this represents about half the value of total production of minerals in Morocco; 30,871 workers were employed in this industry in 1964. In addition, Morocco is the fourth largest world producer of cobalt and sixth among the manganese-producing countries. Morocco also possesses important deposits of lead and zinc and lesser resources of several other metals, including copper and tin. The chief phosphate deposits are at Khouribga and Yousseoufia and are controlled by the state *Office Chérifien des Phosphates* (OCP). National consumption of phosphates, however, is very small at the moment and is coped for by a factory for super-phosphates and hyper-phosphates in the Safi complex near Casablanca, which produces about 100,000 tons a year. At present, the total bulk of production is exported and provided 27.5 per cent of total Moroccan exports in 1966. The main clients are France, the U.K., Spain and the Benelux countries. Unlike many other mineral exporting countries the percentage of phosphate exports to total exports has steadily been rising; in 1962 exports were 430 million dirhams and in 1969 551 million. Output of phosphate rock was set at 10.7 million tons in 1969. A major development in 1968 was the inauguration of work on new deposits at Ben Guerir near Marrakesh. The aim is to produce 10 million tons a year from open cast workings. The production target of the three mining centres is 13.5 million tons in 1971. This continued development of the country's phosphate deposits clearly offers enormous prospects for increased economic expansion.

Most of the other mineral products have not shown such a dynamic growth since independence as has phosphates. Iron is mined in Ait Amar and Uixan. Production reached 1,577,000 tons in 1960 but was only 820,000 tons in 1969. The lack of a steel industry within the country has

not encouraged high activity in this sector. Manganese is the chief dollar earner and output has generally reflected this fact with 130,576 tons being mined in 1969, about 35% of which are treated in the Sidi Marouf factory. Lead and zinc are often found together in deposits in Morocco, i.e. at Boukber, Touissit, Aouli and Mikbladen. The output of zinc has so far not repeated the total of 101,000 tons achieved in 1959. Production in 1962 and 1963 was just 57,900 tons in each year, and all this was exported unprocessed. Output improved considerably in 1964 reaching 80,971 tons and further impressive gains were registered in 1965 and 1966. In 1967 output fell slightly to 83,000 tons from 94,000 tons in 1966; this was followed by a further fall to 68,000 tons in 1968 and a slight improvement to 72,000 tons in 1969. About 30 per cent of lead production goes through the lead foundry at Oued el Heimer. Production totalled 117,680 tons in 1969, and was a very valuable export commodity bringing Morocco 135 million dirhams in foreign earnings. Cobalt is also produced from Bou Azzer (14,097 tons in 1969), and copper (8,400 tons in 1967). The total value of exports of metalliferous minerals in 1969 was 266 million dirhams. Developments expected in the near future include a U.S.S.R. project to develop lead, zinc and silver deposits in the Great Atlas and also extensive copper ore prospecting in the Anti-Atlas area of South Morocco. This will be undertaken by Occidental Petroleum Inc. of Los Angeles, under an agreement signed with the Ministry of Industry and Mines in 1967. The Soviet Union has also agreed to build a 60 MW. anthracite-fired power station at Djerada by 1971. In 1967 the Moroccan Government bought out Spanish interests in Minas del Rif, the largest domestic iron ore deposit situated near Nador and Melilla on the Mediterranean Coast. The takeover came at a difficult period for the mine, in as much as any expansion or indeed maintenance of production is heavily dependent on considerable new investment, since available open-cast ores have diminished considerably and gallery mining will have to be undertaken. Already output has dropped sharply and is likely to continue to decline.

Morocco's mineral resources also provide it with energy through coal and small quantities of petroleum. The coal deposits are at Djerada south of Oujda. This was one of the most important concerns of the Spanish Protectorate, and in 1964 the government mining organization BRPM assumed a controlling interest in the company operating the Djerada mines. The theoretical production capacity of Djerada's anthracite mines is 600,000 tons per year but this has not been achieved since the end of the Protectorate, when in 1957 production was 521,000 tons. Since then output has sagged, amounting to 482,000 tons in 1967 and 451,000 tons in 1968. Any marked improvement in the situation depends largely on progress being made with the iron foundry and steel complex project; the original plans assumed that the foundry would need 160,000 tons of coal per year. To a certain extent the coal industry has been affected by the concentration in electricity projects on hydro-electricity at the expense of thermal generation. Thermal plants accounted for half of electricity production in 1953 but only for 10 per cent in 1965. In 1965, 1,158 million kW. were generated hydraulically and 123 million kW. thermally. This is a reflection of heavy investment in electric power and currently there is excess capacity; minimum production capacity (in the case of worst water conditions) was put at 1,200 million kWh. and this will be swelled by the coming into service of the Mekra-Klila dam. Total production was 1,695 kWh. in 1969. Production and distribution are state-controlled through *Energie Electrique du Maroc*; the frequency is 50 cycles per second. Petroleum exists in moderate quantities and a new find was made in 1962 at Sidi Rhalem in the Essaouira region, but in spite of

prospecting in the Doukkala, Draa and Tarfaya regions, no other important fields have been located. Esso Exploration Inc., started activity in 1967, on off shore permits south of Agadir. Production has declined in recent years from 100,000 tons in 1965 to 58,560 tons in 1969. All of this is refined in the country in a topping unit jointly owned by the government agency, SAMIR, and the Italian oil firm, ENI, set up in 1961 at Mohammadia and in another refinery inherited from the French at Sidi Kacem. However, a great part of the refineries' need for crude oil is satisfied by imports, and oil continues to be an expensive import item.

The Bureau of Mining Research and participation (BRPM) is undertaking large scale prospecting for hydrocarbons both alone and in association with private partners. Encouraging results have been found by Esso in the province of Tarfaya. In early 1970 a team of Soviet technicians discovered a deposit of cobalt in the region of Ouarzazate. Two Japanese companies, Nitsui Metal and Mining, and Nittetsu Mining, have agreed to form a consortium with the Moroccan Government and a French company (Omnium Nord Africain de France) to build a factory to process copper extracted from a mine 130 kilometres to the east at Casablanca. The factory will have a capacity to treat between 800 tons and 1,000 tons of ore per day and will come into operation in mid 1972. The Japanese companies will import about half the factory's production.

Several projects are proceeding for the exploitation of deposits of copper ores, fluorine and silver, and notably the Upper Moulaya lead zinc mines to be opened up by Zellidja with the BRPM.

The mining industry has been placed on the list of industries which benefit under the Investment Code from a series of incentives and advantages designed to promote private investments, according to a decree published in December 1969. Another decree virtually abolished the export tax on minerals by lowering it from 5 per cent *ad valorem* to 0.5 per cent on iron, antimony, cobalt, manganese, baryte and fluorine ores, fullers earth, lead zinc and silver metals. For lead, zinc and copper ores the tax is reduced on a variable scale related to world prices of these minerals.

Industry is perhaps the least stagnant sector of the economy and certainly promises the highest rate of growth in the immediate future. Even so, the extent of manufacturing is still relatively small, accounting for 17 per cent of GNP in 1968. The growth of manufacturing in Morocco (5 per cent a year on average during 1960-68) has been directed largely towards the light industries. Although the majority of the population has very little purchasing power, there is nevertheless a fairly large market for many consumer goods among the two to three million people who are better off. Encouraged by government promotion, many new enterprises have been established to produce goods that formerly had to be imported. An export orientated industry has also emerged during the past few years, particularly in the field of food-processing. This consists mainly of fruit juice plants and canneries (fish and vegetables) as well as the edible oil industry. Of special importance for the domestic market are the flour milling, sugar refining and tobacco processing industries. Next to the food industries in importance are the textile and leather industries. A metal products industry is also well established, while in the chemical sector the most significant plants are a crude oil refinery which started production in 1962 and the Saff plant which processes Morocco's most important mineral phosphate. The country's timber industry is also expanding rapidly. In 1967 timber production met 52 per cent of the country's needs. Output was apportioned as follows: 112,000 tons of alfa grass, 32,000

tons of rosemary, 6,700 tons of cork oak and 7,000 tons of brier root. All the cork oak output was exported, as well as 36,000 tons of alfa grass and 46,000 tons of cellulose. Several foreign companies have recently boosted the country's manufacturing capacity. General Tire and Rubber Co. of Morocco started manufacture in 1961, the SAMIR/ENI refinery came on stream in 1962 and the Société Marocaine de Constructions Automobiles late 1962. Investment in sugar mills is vital and the second national refinery built by CEKOP at Sidi Slimane in the Rharb valley, began production in June 1963. An additional sugar refinery was opened in 1966 and two more are planned to reduce Morocco's dependence on imports. The Saff chemical complex, opened in June 1965, produces sulphuric acid (1,300 tons daily), phosphoric acid (450 tons daily), triple super-phosphates (200,000 tons a year), and diammonium phosphate (150,000 tons a year). This helps to supply the country's great need for agricultural fertilizers. Morocco is at present heavily dependent on imported textiles but considerable investment (some of it from a World Bank loan granted in 1962) has been made in increasing the capacity of the local industry, especially in cotton cloth. Industrialization plans for the future include two new sugar refineries and projects for the manufacture of vegetable oil, PVC, iron and steel, artificial fibres and fertilizer. Increased demand for fertilizers will justify the installation of a second chemical plant for the processing of ammonium phosphate. Particularly worthy of note is Morocco's long term sugar plan which is designed to promote national sugar production in such a way as to bring about a steady reduction in imports. According to the plan, an integrated sugar industry will be formed, through the addition of sugar works to the existing refineries and through the development of sugar crops, notably beet, which is already being grown successfully in some parts of the country. At present, Morocco has ten sugar units of which four are refineries with an annual production of 400,000 tons of refined sugar equivalent to 40 per cent of the country's requirements. Construction started in early 1971 on a new sugar works in the province of Nador. The unit will have a productive capacity of 30,000 tons of crude sugar per year, which should cover the requirements of Eastern Morocco.

About half of the industrial labour force is concentrated in Casablanca. There is substantial unemployment and after the last shipments of agricultural exports this is swelled by the seasonal laying off of workers (packers, etc.). Many workers emigrate for lack of employment opportunities and recently the pace of this emigration has stepped up mostly to France. Some Moroccans are working in Gibraltar, and substantial employment opportunities may open up there owing to the withdrawal of the Spanish labour force. The remittance of these workers' wages helps to strengthen the balance of payments. Fez and Marrakesh contain most of the artisans.

The conditions under which Morocco's industrial development surged forward since the war explain to some extent the present structure of industry. Some sections such as fish canning and edible oils and fats are over equipped, while others are under equipped. The textile industry, for instance, meets only about 35 per cent of local demand. Often the equipment is not fully integrated or balanced, for example, textiles have had an imbalance between spinning and weaving capacity. Recent trends indicate that many of these problems are being faced. The latest modern equipment is being installed to improve quality and increase profits.

"Moroccanization" of the country's business is taking place gradually. In April 1971 King Hassan II outlined that several hundred private enterprises owned by foreigners in Morocco would be gradually transferred to

Moroccan control. The King has taken particular care to point out that Moroccanization does not mean nationalization. Instead he sees it as the negotiated transfer of private enterprises from foreign to Moroccan hands with adequate immunities paid. Hence, it is anticipated that there will be no sweeping legislation, no arbitrary nor unilateral action but a flexible and gradual process. The first targets will be importers of branded products and insurance companies. Since Moroccanization is to be applied to the "tertiary sector" (sales and services) it is presumed that banks and other businesses, such as shipping and forwarding agents, will also be taken over eventually. Ten of the sixteen foreign banks in Morocco have anticipated the move by taking in Moroccan shareholders, two of them majority holdings.

TRADE AND PAYMENTS

Morocco runs a deficit in her trade with other countries but in 1961-65 the trade gap was narrowed from an exceptional level of 526 million dirhams registered in 1961 to 108 million dirhams in 1965. In the 1962-64 period exports have grown at an average annual rate of almost 6 per cent while import controls have kept the average growth of imports to less than 1 per cent a year. However, since 1965 the trend has been less favourable, with exports rising modestly from 2,176 million dirhams in 1965 to 2,455 million dirhams in 1969 and imports rising rapidly from 2,291 million dirhams in 1965 to 2,844 million dirhams in 1969; in the latter year the trade deficit stood at 389 million dirhams. The chief reason for the disappointing export results was a levelling-off in phosphate rock exports, valued at 544 million dirhams in 1969, almost 25 per cent of total exports. The export effort otherwise depends on agricultural produce such as citrus fruit, tinned fish, wine, fresh tomatoes, and on metalliferous ores. France still remains by far the largest customer and sales to France recovered satisfactorily from the heavy fall noted in the immediate post-independence period. The amount of Morocco's exports absorbed by France rose to 43 per cent in 1968. In contrast France's share of the Moroccan market has fallen steadily from 46 per cent in 1959 to 37 per cent in 1968. Morocco still retains her quotas in the French market and recently the prospects for an increase in her wine exports improved as a result of a French decision to upgrade the classification of Moroccan wines. Federal Germany, the U.S.A. and Britain follow France in trading importance, but at a considerable distance.

The Moroccan government has entered into negotiations with the European Economic Community (EEC), in order to obtain an agreement securing preferred access to this large market for its exports. As yet, it is still uncertain when these negotiations are likely to be completed. If an agreement is reached it is generally expected that the concessions Morocco will get will be partly offset by lost preferences in the French market. The EEC has received similar requests from Tunisia and Algeria, and is currently endeavouring to work out an arrangement, under which a co-ordinated economic development policy between these three Maghreb countries will be stimulated. Traditionally there has been very little economic contact between the three countries. But recognition of the benefits, which all of them could obtain from closer co-operation is emerging, and a series of conferences has been held to define scope and method. Two-way trade between Morocco and the Maghreb states in 1966 was 92 million dirhams. In the same year the countries of the EEC accounted for 53 per cent of Morocco's imports (1,253 million dirhams) and 60 per cent of her exports (1,402 million dirhams). Thus, Morocco experienced a trade surplus with the EEC of 149 million dirhams in 1966, compared with a deficit of

188 million dirhams in the previous year. The government is also interested in agreements which minimize the use of foreign currency reserves, and this is the reason why much of her trade is with the Communist world. Two-way trade with Communist China was 109 million dirhams in 1967 and with the U.S.S.R. was 174 million dirhams. In this connection, it is interesting to note that a contract was signed in December 1968 between Morocco and the U.S.S.R., under which 25,000 tons of oranges have been supplied to Russia in January and February 1969. This will be followed by other consignments reaching a total of between 100,000 and 125,000 tons in the course of 1969. A draft agreement for partial association between Morocco and the EEC was formulated in November 1968. According to the terms of the agreement the EEC will import the following Moroccan products duty free: olive oil, petroleum products, fruits, vegetables and certain industrial products. In return, Morocco will lower import duties on some goods produced in EEC countries (viz. radio equipment, refrigerators, glassware, beer, cars, photographic film, plastic and chocolate). The EEC had originally asked for a tariff reduction of about 30 per cent but will now be satisfied with much less. A treaty of Economic Co-operation and Trade was signed by Algeria and Morocco in January 1969. In the economic sphere the treaty provides for the following: Moroccan importers will lift any trade restrictions on Algerian products and reciprocal arrangements will be made by Algerian importers; agreement was reached on the possibility of inter-connecting the electrical network of both countries.

The export trade has been increasingly more state controlled as government economic policy is determined to some extent by the deterioration of the country's financial position. The export of phosphates is controlled by the *Office Chérifien des Phosphates* and in July 1965 the export of citrus fruit, other agricultural products, fish products and handicraft goods were taken out of private hands and put under the control of the *Office Chérifien de Contrôle d'Exportation*, created for the purpose. Thus the office controls 35 per cent of the nation's exports.

With a deficit on merchandise trade, a decline in revenues from foreign military bases, and an increasing tendency to repatriate income on foreign investment, heavy deficits were incurred on the balance of payments in the period 1961-64. Alarmed by the rapid exhaustion of foreign exchange revenues in 1964, the government took a series of measures designed to curb imports and restrict the unofficial trade in dirham notes. Tourist allowances in foreign exchange for Moroccans going abroad were cut from 500 dirhams to 200 dirhams per adult per trip, and the amount they were allowed to take out of the country was reduced from 300 dirhams to 150 dirhams. Furthermore, the entitlement of foreign technical assistants to transfer home part of the salary was reduced from once a month to once every six months. Although the latter restriction was, probably the most important in terms of immediate foreign exchange saving, the effect was essentially temporary. With the growing crisis, a further set of measures was introduced in October 1964. Tourist allowances in foreign exchange were completely eliminated. The government declared a general suspension of all imports until more specific restrictions could be defined. Subsequently, a list of authorized imports, on which a 25 per cent prior deposit had to be lodged before the goods can be brought into the country, was issued. Annual quotas were also fixed on certain goods, mostly consumer goods, in order to limit imports.

These measures brought about an improvement in the balance of payments in the course of 1965, and by the end of the year the government was able to remove the import bar, replacing it with a system of selective increases in

import duties on certain categories. The strengthening in the balance of payments continued in 1966 despite the adverse trade balance, but the unfavourable payments balance rose to 201 million dirhams in 1967 and 180 million dirhams in 1968. The root reasons were large purchases of wheat and flour and increased imports of capital goods required for the acceleration of industrial development. The upshot was a new set of austerity measures introduced by the government in late 1968: direct taxation on incomes in excess of 6 000 dirhams a year was raised from 30 per cent to 36 per cent, corporate taxation was raised from 40 per cent to 44 per cent on profits above 500,000 dirhams a year, and to 48 per cent on profits above 2 million dirhams a year, a surtax was imposed on luxury vehicles. In view of the balance of payments crisis, Morocco has been compelled to draw 50 million dollars from the International Monetary Fund (IMF), under a stand-by agreement it can draw a further 27 million dollars from the IMF in 1969. Further austerity measures—restrictions on credit facilities—have been introduced, together with a campaign for the diversification of trade and the opening up of new markets. The government is also hoping to find more foreign aid to finance its development programme.

Moroccan foreign currency reserves fell from \$171 million in 1966 to \$19 million in 1964 and now stand at \$128 million (January 1971), gold reserves currently stand at \$20.7 million and Morocco's SDR quota is valued at \$12 million.

TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATIONS

Morocco has a well developed transport system, due largely to the work of the French during the protectorate, the primary and secondary road system is essentially complete and well constructed, the railroad fulfils specific economic functions, the ports serve the hinterland satisfactorily, the airfield network meets the requirements of civil aviation.

The road network of Morocco is well developed. All the major sections of the country are connected by some 52,000 km of roadways, of which 17,200 km are modern paved roads, a further 5,400 constructed earth roads of good viability and 29,400 kilometres of tracks of varying viability. The paved highway system is the second longest in Africa (after South Africa), and most of the roads are built to design standards well in advance of the traffic which they are currently carrying. Many of these were built by the French army, primarily for strategic purposes. In 1968 there were over 278 000 vehicles in Morocco, more than twice as much as in 1957. The tonnage transported on Moroccan roads in 1968 was 5.5 million tons. In October 1970 an agreement was concluded between the French Renault company and the Moroccan Government on the establishment of an assembly factory near Casablanca. The factory will employ about 500 people and initial production will be 12 500 vehicles per day. A similar agreement was signed with the French Peugeot company in the same month. These decisions are the result of the growing demand for private and commercial vehicles in Morocco.

The country's railway network is good, there being 1 860 km of track, 769 km of which are electrified. Traction is by electric or diesel locomotives. Casablanca is connected by a track that continues through Algeria to Tunis. The only line that shows a profit, however, is the western network of the Compagnie des Chemins de Fer du Maroc (C.F.M.), which stretches from Sidi Kacem to Casablanca, Marrakesh and Safi. This is almost entirely on account of the large shipments of minerals, particularly phosphates. The latter accounted for 10.5 million tons out of 16.2 million tons of all Moroccan freight hauled in 1968, and provided nearly 40 per cent of income.

Morocco currently has eleven commercial airfields of which seven are served by regular schedules. The major traffic is international, the most important international airports are Casablanca-Anfa and Casablanca-Nouaceur and Rabat Salé. Moroccan air transport, both domestic and international is now mainly provided by Royal Air Maroc, which is an autonomous corporation in which the Moroccan State has a 68.85 per cent share and Air France 17.53 per cent, the remainder being held either by private transportation companies or by individuals. The number of passengers carried has shown a steady upward trend, numbering 602 592 in 1968 compared with only 437 000 in 1967. It is interesting to note that a new air company, Royal Air-Inter, which will only serve Morocco's internal lines hitherto largely covered by Air France, came into operation in April 1970. Royal Air Maroc has an 80 per cent holding in the company. During 1969 the country's internal airlines were used by 35 652 passengers, 22 per cent more than in 1968.

On its 2 000 km of coastline, Morocco has a dozen ports of greatly varying importance. The coast is generally not very favourable for port installations since it is particularly rocky and the Atlantic swell is one of the strongest in the world. In 1967, the ports handled over 15 million tons of cargo. Of this total over 60 per cent went through Casablanca, about 20 per cent through Safi, and in the region of 7 per cent through Mohammedia. The volume of cargo shipped has increased by between 3 and 4 per cent annually in recent years (although with considerable variations between the different ports). In fact, Morocco has two major phosphate ports, Casablanca and Safi. Under the Five-Year Plan for 1968-72, Safi is to be expanded. At present it can receive tankers of 45 000 tons from which oil is purified 6 kilometres to the SAMIR refinery. It is now anticipated that after the installation of new pipelines the port will be able to receive and pump oil from tankers of 60 000 tons. Mohammedia is the principal petroleum port at present. Maritime passenger traffic is concentrated at Tangier and Casablanca, with most at the former being based on the ferry service across the Straits of Gibraltar, and most at the latter on cruise visitors on relatively short stays. Studies commenced in March 1970 for a bridge link between Morocco and Gibraltar. The studies are being undertaken by the Moroccan government and an international specialist.

FINANCE AND FOREIGN AID

The present financial and monetary organization of the country was laid in 1953 when the *Banque de l'Etat du Maroc*, which had functioned as the central bank since 1906, was replaced by the *Banque du Maroc*. At the same time, the *Banque Nationale pour Développement Economique* and the *Banque Nationale du Commerce Extérieur* began operations. The *Banque du Maroc* is being progressively deprived of the operations which it handled as a private bank before the takeover. It exerts strict control over the normal business of the private banks.

The year 1958 also marked the breaking off of monetary union with the Franc zone, later in October the Moroccan franc, which had been valued higher than the devalued French franc since 1957, was itself devalued to 506 per US dollar and replaced by a new monetary unit, the dirham, equivalent to 100 old Moroccan francs. The allocation and control of foreign exchange, however, is not the responsibility of the *Banque du Maroc* but of the *Office des Changes*, a department of the Ministry of Finance. Control of transfers to the Franc zone was imposed as a measure to stop the outflow of capital. In an attempt to strengthen the financial resources of the country in face of the absence since 1957 of French aid, Morocco received

U.S. aid (the U.S. had strategic air bases at Kenira, etc.). In recent years French aid has been restored while the U.S. bases have been phased out. Even so the financial state of the nation is far from buoyant. A basic weakness in the payments situation has been the repatriation of foreign capital since independence. However, Morocco felt able to avoid following the French devaluation in August 1969. The par value of the Moroccan dirham remains that agreed with the Fund in October 1959 (5.06 dirhams per U.S. dollar).

Domestic investment reached a peak in the early 1950's and subsequently declined. Only recently has this started to show signs of recovery, reflecting increased government borrowing. In 1969 gross fixed capital formation was 2.17 billion dirhams, only 14 per cent of gross national product.

In order to increase investment the *Fonds National d'Investissements* was set up in 1962; companies are charged a percentage (3 per cent to 15 per cent) on their profits which is invested by the *Fonds* in productive enterprises but, if the company invests double the percentage liable to be paid to the *Fonds*, the levy is not collected. Part of the 1959 austerity measures included up-scaling of import duties, the encouragement of importing from areas outside the Franc zone and the introduction of a deposit system against imports. Measures taken in 1964 included the increase of taxes on private and company earnings and increases in stamp, registration, alcohol and petrol taxes. The austerity measures in government services meant a cut back in foreign personnel employed (an estimated elimination of 11,000 foreign personnel), limitation of the number of government cars and the postponement of nonessential investment projects. These measures have helped reduce the budget deficit from 366 million dirhams in 1964 to 150 million dirhams in 1969.

The budget deficits are not necessarily to be blamed on the taxation system since in many ways the French left behind a very efficient taxation system. Its modification in 1962 improved it further. However increases in personal and company taxation in 1964 have done nothing to alleviate the low level of internal demand. As in most other countries at a similar stage of economic development customs duties and indirect taxes each contribute more to budget income than direct taxation. About a third of budget income is on capital account and derives from profits from the exploitation of the mines run by the *Office Chérifien des Phosphates*, treasury bills and advances from the banks, and foreign grants and loans. To an increasing extent the banking system has been financing the deficits; in 1965 total advances outstanding to the Government were almost four times that in 1958. However, in another way, things are better recently following the restoration of French aid in 1962; this aid began usually tied to a certain extent to the purchase of French goods. Combined with certain difficulties on the production side budgetary troubles have produced inflationary symptoms. The Government has pledged general wage rises when the cost of living index increases by more than 6 per cent, but this pledge has only partly been fulfilled and on occasions when the Government has tried to implement it, it has met with protests involving civil disturbances. The cost of living rose by an average of almost 6 per cent a year in the 1962-64 period, but during 1965-69 the trend moderated to an average annual rate of 3 per cent. Foreign aid in 1969 totalled 682 million dirhams compared with 651 million dirhams in 1966. The agreement for financial co-operation between France and Morocco was not renewed in 1967. The World Bank granted Morocco a loan of \$15 million in November 1968 to foster the development of tourism in the country.

DEVELOPMENT PLANS

Slack domestic investment, weak private foreign interest, and persistent budget deficits have left Morocco with scant capital resources. The direct victim of this situation has been the 1960-1964 Development Plan which early in 1963 was abandoned. Previous development plans had been directed towards infrastructure projects (1949-52), agricultural and welfare problems (1953-57) and direct productive investment (1958-59). Under the 1960-64 Plan investment was hoped to rise from 11 per cent of gross domestic product in 1960 to 22 per cent in 1965. In fact these investment targets were far from realized. Actual investment in 1968 was still only 13 per cent of gross national product. Some circles have blamed the failure of the development plans on the inadequacies of the official institutions that deal with development programmes and investment projects. These organizations are: the *Bureau d'Études et de Participations Industrielles* (BEPI), which successfully handled the SAMIR/ENI refinery and the Firestone and General Tyre Co. deals; the *Bureau de Recherches et de Participations Minières* (BRPM); the *Banque Nationale de Développement Économique*; and the Government departments of the Ministry of Economic Affairs together with three Under Secretaries of State.

In the Three Year Plan (1965-67), priority was given to agriculture, tourism, professional training and industry. A total of 60,000 million francs was spent on agriculture as a whole and of this 26,000 million francs were spent on dams alone, as these are vital both for irrigation and for the production of electricity.

The results of the three year plan have been encouraging, if not spectacular. The Five Year Plan launched in 1968 has the same development features as the previous plan. Total expenditure is estimated at \$998 million over the five year period and the plan aims at an increase of 5 per cent per annum in gross national product until 1973. About 40 per cent of total planned expenditure will come from abroad and will include substantial loans from the World Bank. In recent years much financial assistance has been given to Morocco by the United States, the Federal Republic of Germany, Italy, Belgium, Kuwait and the U.S.S.R.

Agriculture will receive nearly half the total expenditure and the building of dams will be pursued on a large scale. Tourism is again high on the priority list and the government will not only build accommodation but it will also grant privileges to investors and develop tourist areas. In 1968, almost 600,000 tourists arrived in Morocco, compared with 500,000 tourists in the previous year. Income from tourists was £35 million in 1968, and is rising at an annual rate of 20 per cent. Education will be geared to the future needs of the nation's economy and a considerable part of the \$58 million allotted to this sphere will be spent on providing scientific and technical training. As yet industry represents only a small part of the country's production and hence the plan lays great stress on the various branches of industrial, and local craftsmanship, and mining activities. Attempts will be made to improve the quality of products, especially agricultural ones, by creating those industries for which its natural resources and strong labour force give the country the best chances on the international market. Other significant expenditures proposed in the plan are in the fields of transport and communications, health and housing. Four hundred new villages are to be built in Morocco under the 1968-72 plan, with the help of the World Food Programme of the United Nations. The project is the biggest to be financed by the UN (which will contribute \$13 million) and their first in the housing field. The Moroccan government has earmarked about \$20 million for the project. The villages will be built in the irrigated areas north of the Atlas mountain chain.

J.I.E.M.

STATISTICAL SURVEY

AREA AND POPULATION

AREA (sq. km.)	POPULATION (1969)		
	Total	Moroccans	Aliens
500 000*	15 030 000	14 860 000	170 000

* Approximate figure

CHIEF TOWNS

POPULATION (1970 estimates)

Casablanca	1 250 000	Tangier	142 000
Rabat (capital)	261 000	Oujda	139 000
Marrakesh	262 000	Kenitra	105 000
Fes	243 000	Tetuan	101 000
Meknes	205 000	Safi	105 000

AGRICULTURE

(000 tons)

	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69
Wheat	1 310	2 550	1 470
Barley	1 320	3 200	2 040
Maize	310	380	430
Olives	155	492	320
Dates	80	n.a.	n.a.
Pulses	n.a.	306	294
Tomatoes	277	245	250
Potatoes	205	160	300
Citrus Fruit	697	811	742
Sugar Beet	367	785	293
Tobacco	1 3	0 9	1
Cotton	17	19	22
Wine (000 hectolitres)	1 369	1 751	700

Livestock (1968-69) Cattle 3 580 000 Sheep 16 000 000
 Goats 8 750 000 Camels 122 000 Horses 380 000
 Pigs 13 000 Poultry 15 000 000

Fishing (1968) The total catch was 223 700 metric tons
 of which sardines comprised 169 366 tons

MOROCCO—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

MINING (‘000 tons)

	1967	1968	1969
Phosphates	9,922	10,512	11,294
Iron Ore	893	809	742
Coal	482	451	361
Manganese	198	159	131
Lead	116	121	71
Petroleum	99	89	58
Zinc	83	68	71
Cobalt	18	15	15

INDUSTRY

	UNIT	1966	1967	1968	1969
Cement	‘000 tons	856	875	1,011	1,165
Processed Lead	" "	18.7	21	24	27
Refined Sugar	" "	358	340	425	409
Soap	tons	26,800	27,004	29,472	27,593
Paint	"	6,700	7,134	8,252	9,714
Textiles	"	26,500	28,909	31,690	37,153
Electricity (hydraulic and thermal)	million kWh.	1,338	1,342	1,538	1,693
Cars	number	5,146	9,557	n.a.	n.a.
Tyres (tubes)	"	245,000	268,000	308,000	363
Shoes	‘000 pairs	4,773	4,415	5,127	5,537
Flour	tons	n.a.	830,369	667,218	625,426
Refined Petroleum	‘000 tons	1,215	1,247	1,322	1,470
Superphosphate	" "	249	248	253	281

FINANCE

1 Dirham=100 Moroccan francs

12.14 Dirhams=£1 sterling; 5.01 Dirhams=U.S. \$1.00.

100 Dirhams=£8.25 sterling=U.S. \$19.80.

ORDINARY BUDGET

Revenue: (1968) 2,365m. Dirhams, (1969) 2,620m. Dirhams, (1971) 3,125m. Dirhams.

Expenditure: (1968) 2,486m. Dirhams, (1969) 2,770m. Dirhams, (1971) 3,124m. Dirhams.

FIVE-YEAR DEVELOPMENT PLAN 1968-72

EXPENDITURE

	(U.S. \$'000)
Agriculture and Irrigation	460,000
Transport and Communications	130,000
Mining	59,000
Education	58,000
Industry	57,000
Electricity	40,000
Tourism	34,000
Promotion Nationale Project	22,000
Public Health	20,000
Other Expenditure	118,000
TOTAL	998,000

Currency in Circulation (Note issue at year end): (1967) 1,614m. Dirhams, (1968) 1,859m. Dirhams, (1969) 2,123m. Dirhams.

MOROCCO—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

BALANCE OF PAYMENTS—ALL FOREIGN COUNTRIES
(million Dirhams)

	1965			1966		
	Credit	Debit	Balance	Credit	Debit	Balance
<i>Goods and Services</i>						
Merchandise f o b	2 278 0	2 582 1	-304 1	2 450 1	2 634 3	-184 2
Gold for Industry	—	4 6	- 4 6	—	6 6	- 6 6
Transport and Insurance	101 7	273 4	-171 7	113 9	312 9	-199 0
Travel	450 0	235 2	214 8	614 0	267 3	346 7
Income from Investments	43 8	266 4	-222 6	58 7	264 7	-206 0
Government n i e	186 5	143 8	42 7	151 1	265 3	-114 2
Other services	39 8	120 3	- 80 5	47 2	100 6	- 53 4
<i>Transfer Payments</i>	584 0	346 9	237 1	685 6	334 0	351 6
CURRENT BALANCE	3 683 8	3 972 7	-288 9	4 120 6	4 185 7	- 65 1
<i>Capital and Monetary Gold</i>						
Public Sector						
Commercial Credits	167 2	146 9	20 3	193 3	75 4	117 9
Foreign Exchange Loans	253 2	91 8	161 4	155 4	87 7	67 7
Loans in Dirhams	62 7	20 0	42 7	70 9	16 3	54 6
Others	1 7	—	1 7	3 5	—	3 5
Private Sector						
Commercial Credits	65 6	64 9	0 7	77 2	—	77 2
Loans and Investments	54 3	18 4	35 9	77 3	44 1	33 2
Others	83 8	201 5	-117 7	50 6	208 8	-158 2
CAPITAL BALANCE	688 5	543 5	145 0	628 2	423 3	195 9

FOREIGN AID
(Bilateral and international)

SOURCE	1966				1967			
	Loans (million Dirhams)	Grants (million Dirhams)	Total		Loans (million Dirhams)	Grants (million Dirhams)	Total	
			million Dirhams	%			million Dirhams	%
France	226 2	44 0	270 2	41 5	160 7	45 5	206 2	37 0
United States of America	137 3	103 6	240 9	37 0	135 2	68 7	203 9	36 6
German Federal Republic	7 1	—	7 1	1 1	105 2	—	105 2	18 9
Kuwait	56 7	—	56 7	8 7	—	—	—	—
IBRD	60 6	—	60 6	9 3	41 1	—	41 1	7 4
Others	15 6	—	15 6	2 4	0 3	0 6	0 9	0 1
TOTAL	593 5	147 6	631 1	100 0	442 5	114 8	557 3	100 0

MOROCCO—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

EXTERNAL TRADE

(million Dirhams)

	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969
Imports .	2,291	2,418	2,620	2,790	2,844
Exports .	2,176	2,168	2,146	2,278	2,455

PRINCIPAL COMMODITIES

(million Dirhams)

IMPORTS	1967	1968	1969
Milk, Butter and Cheese	58	58	57
Coffee	36	35	31
Tea	68	82	104
Wheat	303	216	40
Sugar	149	119	109
Petroleum	80	107	102
Timber (raw and prepared)	69	71	83
Paper and Products	49	51	54
Cotton Textiles	61	n.a.	n.a.
Motor Vehicles and Parts	n.a.	107	144

EXPORTS	1967	1968	1969
Tomatoes	175	144	146
Fresh Vegetables and Potatoes	87	80	67
Cotton	n.a.	26	n.a.
Citrus Fruits	346	420	389
Preserved Fish	121	139	124
Wine	60	24	37
Phosphates	546	544	551
Iron Ore	35	25	32
Manganese Ore	41	34	30
Lead Ore	59	66	64
Zinc Ore	27	21	24
Cork and Cork Products	17	20	11

PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES

(million Dirhams)

IMPORTS	1967	1968	1969
France	981	880	866
U.S.A.	266	380	214
Cuba	70	49	68
German Federal Rep.	236	216	280
Italy	93	139	152
China, P.R.	67	60	67
Netherlands	59	79	83
United Kingdom	89	122	148
U.S.S.R.	95	100	159

EXPORTS	1967	1968	1969
France	885	876	863
German Federal Rep.	174	189	209
Spain	83	76	100
United Kingdom	123	134	143
Poland	28	41	59
Belgium/Luxembourg	66	77	68
Netherlands	88	81	103
U.S.S.R.	79	79	73
Italy	86	134	200

MOROCCO—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

TRANSPORT

ROADS

	1968	1969
Tonnage Transported	5 495 000	6 187 000
Cars	189 485	207 028
Trucks and Vans	73 977	79 253
Motor Cycles	14 700	14 741

SHIPPING

	UNIT	1968	1969
Tonnage Loaded	000 tons	12 626	13 067
Tonnage Unloaded		4 163	3 737

Merchant Fleet (1967) 24 vessels 89 050 n r t

CIVIL AVIATION

	1968	1969
Total passengers	60 592	781 049
Freight (metric tons)	6 709	7 540

TOURISM

NATIONALITY	1967	1968	1969
French	100 365	119 131	148 986
English	58 422	64 445	79 721
Algerians	24 219	38 396	46 151
Americans	43 075	56 411	94 125
Spaniards	39 769	36 869	36 229
Germans	27 896	34 714	38 551
Belgians	12 445	16 812	21 190
Italians	10 704	14 141	17 597
Scandinavians	23 412	26 444	69 293
Swiss	9 037	10 911	15 431
Miscellaneous	70 940	46 554	53 732
TOTAL	400 132	481 081	611 006
Cruise Passengers	104 278	106 830	95 361
GRAND TOTAL	504 410	587 961	716 367

In 1970 852 220 tourists visited Morocco coming principally from France (173 600) the U.S.A. (117 800) Britain (84 400) Algeria (60 200) and German Federal Republic (55 400)

Hotel Capacity (1969) 33 000 beds.

EDUCATION

	PRIMARY SCHOOL PUPILS	SECONDARY SCHOOL PUPILS	STUDENTS ENGAGED IN HIGHER EDUCATION
1967-68	1 115 672	267 631	7 986
1968-69	1 113 865	287 438	10 908
1969-70	1 142 810	293 193	12 970

Sources: Service Central des Statistiques Rabat Banque Marocaine du Commerce Extérieur

THE CONSTITUTION

A Constitution drawn up by King Hassan II was approved by national referendum and promulgated in December 1962. The principal provisions are as follows:

Preamble: The Kingdom of Morocco, a sovereign Moslem State, shall be a part of the Great Maghreb. As an African State one of its aims shall be the realization of African unity. It will adhere to the principles, rights and obligations of those international organizations of which it is a member and will work for the preservation of peace and security in the world.

General Principles: Morocco shall be a constitutional, democratic and social monarchy. Sovereignty shall pertain to the nation and be exercised directly by means of the referendum and indirectly by the constitutional institutions. All Moroccans shall be equal before the law, and all adults shall enjoy equal political rights including the franchise. Freedoms of movement, opinion and speech and the right of assembly shall be guaranteed.

The Monarchy: The Crown of Morocco and its attendant constitutional rights shall be hereditary in the line of H.M. King Hassan II. The King shall have the power to appoint and dismiss the Prime Minister and Cabinet Ministers and shall preside over the Cabinet. He shall promulgate legislation passed by parliament and have the power to dissolve the House of Representatives. The Sovereign is the Commander-in-Chief of the Armed Forces; makes appointments to civil and military posts; appoints Ambassadors; signs and ratifies Treaties; presides over the Council for National Development Planning and the Supreme Judiciary Council; and exercises the right of pardon.

Parliament: Parliament shall comprise the House of Representatives and the House of Councillors. Members of the House of Representatives shall be elected for four years by universal direct suffrage. One-third of the House of Councillors shall be elected by the Chambers of Agri-

culture, Commerce and Industry, and Handicrafts as well as by trade unions, two-thirds by an electoral college of members of prefectural and provincial assemblies and communal councils. The Councillors' term of office shall be six years, half the Councillors being re-elected every three years. Parliament shall pass legislation; authorise any declaration of war; and approve any extension beyond thirty days of a state of emergency.

Government: The Government shall be responsible to the King and the House of Representatives, the Prime Minister being empowered to initiate legislation and to exercise statutory powers except where these are reserved to the King.

Relations between the Authorities: The King may request further consideration of legislation by parliament before giving his assent; submit proposed legislation to a referendum by decree; and dissolve the House of Representatives if a Bill rejected by parliament is approved by referendum. He may also dissolve the House of Representatives by decree, but the succeeding House may not be dissolved within a year of its election. The House of Representatives may defeat the Government either by refusing a vote of confidence moved by the Prime Minister or by passing a censure motion; either eventuality shall involve the Government's collective resignation.

Judiciary: The Judiciary shall be independent. Judges shall be appointed on the recommendation of the Supreme Council of the Judiciary presided over by the King.

In July 1970 a new constitution was adopted by an overwhelming majority in a national referendum. The new Parliament will have a single chamber of 240 members, half elected by universal suffrage, one-quarter by an electoral college of municipal councillors, the other quarter being selected members of chambers of commerce and agriculture. The powers of the monarch were also strengthened.

THE GOVERNMENT

HEAD OF THE STATE

H.M. KING HASSAN II (*accession February 26th, 1961*).

CABINET

(*July 1971; new government being formed at time of going to press: see Late Information at beginning of book*)

Prime Minister: DR. AHMED LARAKI.

Minister-Representative to His Majesty: HADJ AHMED BALAFREJ.

Minister of Agriculture and Land Reform: AHMED LASKI.

Minister of Saharan and Mauritanian Affairs: Prince MOULAY HASSAN BEN DRISS.

Minister of Justice: AHMED BEN BOUCHTA.

Minister of Foreign Affairs: DR. YOUSSEF BEL ABBÈS.

Minister of National Defence: MOHAMMED BAHNINI.

Minister of the Interior, Town Planning and Housing: Gen. MOHAMMED OUFKIR.

Minister of Information: AHMED SNOUSSI.

Minister of Public Works and Communications: HASSAN CHAMI.

Minister of Industry, Mines and Commerce: (vacant).

Minister of Finance: (vacant).

Minister of Public Health: DR. ABDELMAJID BEN EL MAHI.

Minister of Islamic Affairs: HADJ AHMED BARGACH.

Minister of Posts, Telegraph and Telecommunications: Gen. DRISS BEN AOMAR EL ALAMI.

Minister of Labour, Employment and Professional Training: ABDELHAFID BOUTALEB.

Minister of Tourism: (vacant).

Ministers at the Royal Cabinet: ABDESSALEM BENAÏSSAS, DEY OULD SIDI BABA.

Minister in Charge of Planning and Technology: MUSTAFA FARES.

Minister of Youth, Sports and Social Affairs: BADREDDINE SENOUSI.

Minister of Administrative Affairs: AHMED OSMAN.

Ministers of the Royal House: MOHAMMED MAAMERI, MOHAMMED BEN MESSOUD, MOHAMMED SIJILMASSI.

Minister of National Education: HADDOU CHIGUER.

Minister of Higher, Secondary and Technical Education and of Professional Training: (vacant).

Minister of State: Marshal MOHAMMED MEZISNE ZAHRAOUI.

Minister of State for National Promotion and Crafts: AHMED ALAOUI.

Under-Secretary of State for the Interior: MOHAMMED BEN ALLEN.

Under-Secretary of State for Agriculture: TAIEB ZAAMOUN.

Under-Secretary of State for Defence: LARBI REMILI.

Director of the Royal Cabinet: DRISS SLAOUI.

DIPLOMATIC REPRESENTATION

REPRESENTATIVES OF MOROCCO ABROAD

(A) Ambassador, (CA) Chargé d'Affaires; (Perm Rep) Permanent Representative

Algeria: Dr YOUSSEF BEN ABDES Algiers (A)
Argentina: YOUSSEF BEN ABDES, Buenos Aires (A)
Austria: (see Switzerland)
Belgium: BENSALEM GUESSOUS, Brussels (A) (also accredited to Luxembourg and the Netherlands and the European Economic Community)
Brazil: AHMED BEN ARBOUD, Rio de Janeiro (A)
Cameroon: (see Nigeria)
Canada: (see U S A)
China, People's Republic: ABDELLATIF FILALI, Peking (A)
Cuba: HASSAN M. DAQOU, Havana (CA)
Czechoslovakia: (see Poland)
Denmark: (see Sweden)
Ethiopia: BOUBAKER BOUMAHDI, Addis Ababa (A) (also accredited to Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda)
Finland: (see German Federal Republic)
France: MOHAMMED LAGHZAOU, Paris (A)
German Federal Republic: M. A. AL GLAOU, Bad Godesberg (A) (also accredited to Finland)
Ghana: MOHAMMED A. EL ALAOU, Accra (A)
Greece: (see Italy)
India: HASSAN HAJJOVI, New Delhi (A)
Iran: AHMED BENLAMIR, Teheran (A) (also accredited to Turkey)
Iraq: ABDELHADI TAZI, Baghdad (A)
Italy: Princess LALLA AICHA, Rome (A) (also accredited to Greece)
Ivory Coast: ABU-BAKR ABU MAMDI, Abidjan (A)
Japan: ABDESSEDEK GLAOU, Tokyo (A)
Jordan: MOHAMMED TAZI, Amman (A)
Kenya: (see Ethiopia)
Kuwait: AL-ARABI AL-BANANI, Kuwait (A)
Lebanon: MAMDI LAMRANI ZANTAR, Beirut (A)
Malaysia: (see Pakistan)
Mali: ABDESSELEM M'BAREK, Bamako (CA)

Mexico: (see U S A)
Netherlands: (see Belgium)
Niger: BOUBAKER BOUMENDI, Niamey (A)
Nigeria: (vacant), Lagos (A) (also accredited to Cameroon)
Norway: (see Sweden).
Pakistan: MOHAMMED SAADANI, Islamabad (A) (also accredited to Malaysia)
Poland: ABDESSELEM HARAKI, Warsaw (A) (also accredited to Czechoslovakia)
Portugal: TAHER MEKAOUER, Lisbon (CA)
Romania: HASSAN KAGHDAD, Bucharest (A)
Saudi Arabia: ALI OSMANI, Jeddah (A)
Senegal: FADDEL BENNANI, Dakar (A).
Spain: Dr ABDELLATIF FILALI, Madrid (A)
Sweden: ABDEL RAHMAN EL KOUHEN, Stockholm (A) (also accredited to Denmark and Norway).
Switzerland: NASSER EL FASSI, Berne (A) (also accredited to Austria)
Tanzania: (see Ethiopia)
Tunisia: THAMI OUAZZANI, Tunis (A)
Turkey: Dr MOHAMED BENBOUCHAIB, Ankara (A)
Uganda: (see Ethiopia)
U.S.S.R.: ABDALLAH GHURFI, Moscow (A)
United Arab Republic: ABDELLATIF LARAKI, Cairo (A)
United Kingdom: (vacant), London (A)
U.S.A.: ABDESSELEM EL GLAOU, Washington (A) (also accredited to Canada, Mexico and Venezuela)
Venezuela: (see U S A)
Yugoslavia: HASSAN KAGHDAD, Belgrade (A) (also accredited to Hungary)

European Economic Community: (see Belgium)

United Nations: MENDI MEANI ZANTAR, New York (Perm. Del.)

EMBASSIES AND LEGATIONS ACCREDITED TO MOROCCO

(in Rabat unless otherwise stated)

(E) Embassy; (L) Legation.

Algeria: 46 blvd. Front l'Oued (E), Ambassador: FERHAT TAYEB HAMIDA.
Argentina: 4 blvd. Moulay Hassan (E); Ambassador: FRANCISCO BANGOLEA.
Austria: 2 rue de Tedders (L); Ambassador: ERNST HESSENBERGER.
Belgium: 6 avenue de Marrakech (E); Ambassador: (vacant)

Brazil: 34 rue Lamartine (E); Ambassador: SILVIO RIBEIRO
Bulgaria: 6 rue Blaise Pascal (E); Ambassador: MARIN IVANOV.
Cameroon: (address not available) (E), Ambassador: FERDINAND LEOPOLD OYONO
Canada: Madrid, Spain.
Czechoslovakia: 4 rue Normand (E), Ambassador: Dr. JOSEPH SOLTESZ

MOROCCO—(DIPLOMATIC REPRESENTATION)

Chile: rue Docteur Laraki, Quartier Souissi (E); *Chargé d'Affaires:* JOSÉ MARIO.

China, People's Republic: 6 rue Joachim du Bellay (E); *Ambassador:* YANG CHI-LIANG.

Congo Democratic Republic: (address not available) (E); *Ambassador:* LIEVIN FABIEN INOWGA.

Cuba: 4 rue El Jabarti (E); *Ambassador:* ENRIQUE RODRÍGUEZ LOECHES.

Denmark: 5 ave. de Marrakech (E); *Ambassador:* M. VIGGO JENSEN (also accred. to Libya and Senegal).

Ethiopia: Hotel Rex (E); *Ambassador:* Gen. MAKONNEN DENIKE.

Finland: (address not available) (E); *Ambassador:* JUSSI OLAVI MONTONEN.

France: ave. Mohammed V (E); *Ambassador:* CLAUDE LEBEL.

German Federal Republic: 2 blvd. Front d'Oued (E); *Ambassador:* HEINRICH KENDUS.

Ghana: 64 rue du Rouergue (E); *Ambassador:* J. E. K. OSAFO.

Greece: 9 rue de Kairouan (E); *Ambassador:* G. WARSAMY.

Guinea: (address not available) (E); *Ambassador:* MILYHA IBRAHIMA.

Hungary: 12 rue de Talda (E); LASZLO GUYAROS.

India: 11 rue Descartes (E); *Ambassador:* VALLIATH MADHAVAN-NAIR.

Indonesia: 29 rue Zankat Al Jaseir (E); *Ambassador:* AHMED JANUS MOKIGINTA.

Iran: 7 rue Montaigne (E); *Ambassador:* MASSOUD FOROUGHI.

Iraq: 17 ave. de la Victoire (E); *Ambassador:* HIKMAT SAMI SULEIMAN.

Italy: 9 ave. Franklin Roosevelt (E); *Ambassador:* AMEDEO GUILLET.

Ivory Coast: 21 rue de Tedders (E); *Ambassador:* AMADOU THIAM.

Japan: 7 rue de Midelt (E); *Ambassador:* HIROSE TATSUO.

Jordan: 1 rue de Kairouan (E); *Ambassador:* MUHAMMAD TAZI.

Korea, Republic: 9 ave. de Meknès (E); *Ambassador:* SHI HAK HYUN.

Kuwait: 48 ave. Pasteur (E); *Ambassador:* TALAAT AL GHOUSSEINE.

Luxembourg: (see Netherlands).

Malaysia: (E); *Ambassador:* TAN-SERI ABDUL HAMID JUMAT.

Mali: (E); *Ambassador:* AMADOU DIABABA.

Mauritania: (E); *Ambassador:* (vacant).

Mexico: (E); *Ambassador:* ERNESTO MADENO.

Netherlands: 38 rue de Tunis (E); *Ambassador:* Jonkheer JAN-DERCK VAN KARNEBEEK (also represents Luxembourg).

Norway: 20 ave. Yarmouk (E); *Ambassador:* DAG BRYN.

Pakistan: route des Zaïers (E); *Ambassador:* A. H. S. TAYABJI.

Peru: 2 ave. Moulay Youssef (E); *Ambassador:* VALDIVIESO BELAUNDE.

Poland: rue Omar Slaoui (E); *Ambassador:* FELIX NIEDBALSKI.

Portugal: 45 rue Maurice Pascouet (E); *Ambassador:* (vacant).

Romania: 10 rue d'Ouezzane (L); *Ambassador:* CORONEL PURTICA.

Saudi Arabia: 45 place Ibn Said (E); *Ambassador:* FAKHRY SHEIKH EL ADHR.

Senegal: 3 rue Descartes (E); *Ambassador:* MASSEMBA SARRE.

Spain: 1 ave de Marrakech (E); *Ambassador:* RICARDO GIMENEZ-ARNAU Y GRAN.

Sudan: Cairo, U.A.R.

Sweden: 6 rue Slaouane (E); *Ambassador:* Bo SIEGBAHL (also accred. to Libya and Senegal).

Lebanon: 5 rue de Tedders (E); *Ambassador:* ABDUL RAHMAN ADEA.

Libya: 1 ave. A.-Derrag (E); *Ambassador:* MOHAMMED TLISSI.

Switzerland: square Condo de Sabriano (E); *Ambassador:* JEAN STROHLIN.

Tunisia: 5 rue Montaigne (E); *Ambassador:* HABIB CHATTY.

Turkey: 6 rue El Yarmouk (E); *Ambassador:* KAMURAN ACET.

U.S.S.R.: 18 ave. Abderrahmane Aneggai (E); *Ambassador:* LOUCA BALAMARTCHOUK.

United Arab Republic: 31 rue d'Alger (E); *Ambassador:* HASSAN FAHMI ABDELMAJID.

U.K.: 28 ave. Allal Ben Abdullah (E); *Ambassador:* THOMAS RICHARD SHAW.

U.S.A.: 45 ave. Allal Ben Abdullah (E); *Ambassador:* STUART WESSON ROCKWELL.

Uruguay: 18 rue Descartes (E); *Ambassador:* JULIO PONS.

Venezuela: (E); *Ambassador:* PEDRO BARRADAS.

Viet-Nam, Republic: 5 ave. de Meknès (E); *Chargé d'Affaires:* BUU-KINH.

Yugoslavia: 10 rue de Djebli (E); *Ambassador:* MILAN VENISNIK.

Morocco also has diplomatic relations with Haiti, Monaco, Mongolia, Niger, Nigeria, Panama, Syria and the Vatican.

PARLIAMENT

CHAMBER OF REPRESENTATIVES

Consists of 90 members elected by direct universal suffrage 60 members chosen by electoral colleges representing chambers of commerce and industry and professional groups and 30 others elected by urban and rural councils

President ABDELHADI BOUJAZEL

(Elections August 1970)

PARTY	SEATS
Independents	158
Mouvement populaire	60
Progrès social	10
Istiqlal	9
UNFP	2
Parti démocratique constitutionnel	1
TOTAL	240

POLITICAL PARTIES

Mouvement Populaire Leader MAHJOURI AHERDAN has 60 seats in Chamber of Representatives

Progrès Social represents salaried workers groups 10 seats in Chamber of Representatives

Istiqlal 1 1944 aims to raise living standards to confer equal rights on all stresses the Moroccan claim to Mauritania and the Spanish Sahara formed a National Front with UNFP July 1970 9 seats in Chamber of Representatives Pres ALLAL EL FASSI

Union National des Forces Populaires—UNFP (National Union of Popular Forces) BP 747 Casablanca 1 1959 left wing opposition party formed National Front with Istiqlal July 1970 2 seats in Chamber of Representatives Leaders ABDALLAH IBRAHIM ABDE RAHIM BOUABID MAHJOUR BEN SEDDIK MOHAMMED ABDEKAZAK THAMI AMAR MAATI BOUABID ABDE RAHMAN YOUSSEFI MOHAMMED BASRI MOHAMMED MANSOUR publi *Al Mounharir* (daily)

Parti Démocratique Constitutionnel Leader MOHAMMED HASSAN WAZZANI 1 seat in Chamber of Representatives

JUDICIAL SYSTEM

The **Supreme Court** (*Majlis el Aala*) created on September 27th 1957 is responsible for the interpretation of the law and regulates the jurisprudence of the courts and tribunals of the Kingdom. The Supreme Court sits at Rabat and is divided into four Chambers

- 1 Civil Chamber (the First Chamber)
- 1 Criminal Chamber
- 1 Administrative Chamber
- 1 Social Chamber

First President AHMED BAHNINI

Attorney General BRAHIM KEDDARA

There are 20 Counsellors and 4 General Advocates

Three Courts of Appeal The Fez Court covers all the former Southern Zone and comprises

- 8 Regional Tribunals
 - 11 Sadad Tribunals and branch chambers.
- The Court of Appeal at Marrakesh comprises
- 4 Regional Tribunals
 - 7 Sadad Tribunals and branch chambers

The Court of Appeal at Casablanca comprises

- 4 Regional Tribunals
- 9 Sadad Tribunals and branch chambers

The **Sadad Tribunals** pass judgment without possibility of appeal in personal civil and commercial cases involving up to 300 dirhams. These tribunals also pass judgment subject to appeal before the Regional Tribunals in the same cases up to 900 dirhams in disputes related to the personal and successional statutes of Moroccan Muslims and Jews and in penal cases involving misdemeanours or infringements of the law

The **Regional Tribunals** deal with appeals against judgments made by the Sadad Tribunals and pass judgment in the first and last resort in cases of personal property of 900 to 1 200 dirhams or property producing a yield of up to 80 dirhams. The Regional Tribunals also pass judgment subject to appeal before the Court of Appeal in actions brought against public administrations in administrative affairs and in cases of minor offences in penal matters

Labour Tribunals settle by means of conciliation disputes arising from rental contracts or services between employers and employees engaged in private industry. There are 14 labour tribunals in the Kingdom

A special court was created in 1965 in Rabat to deal with corruption among public officials.

RELIGION

MUSLIMS

Most Moroccans are Muslims.

CHRISTIANS

There are about 400,000 Christians, mostly Roman Catholics.

Archbishop of Rabat: JEAN MARCEL CHABBERT, 1 rue de l'Evêché, B.P. 92, Rabat.

Archbishop of Tangier: FRANCISCO ALDEGUNDE DORREGO; 55 S. Francisco, B.P. 2316, Tangier.

JEWS

There are between 60,000 and 80,000 Jews.

Grand Rabbi of Casablanca: 167 blvd. Ziraoui, Casablanca; CHALOM MESSAS, President of the Rabbinical Court of Casablanca, Palais de Justice, Place des Nations Unies.

THE PRESS

DAILIES

Casablanca

Libération: French; official organ of UNFP (*seized by authorities, April 1967*).

Le Petit Marocain: rue Mohammed Smiha; French; independent; Dir. YVES MAS; circ. 48,500.

La Vigie Marocaine: 88 blvd. Mohammed V; f. 1908; afternoon; French; independent; ARMAND BARON; circ. 35,000.

Fez

Courrier du Maroc: boulevard Mohammed El Korri; f. 1929; French; morning; Dir. M. KAMM.

Rabat

Al Alam (*The Flag*): rue Allal ben Abdullah 11; organ of the Istiqlal Party and of National Front (formed by Istiqlal Party and UNFP); f. 1946; Arabic; Dir. M. A. GHALLAB; circ. 40,000; also *Al Alam Book*.

Al Anba'a (*Information*): Ministry of Information, rue Prince Moulay Abdullah 2; Arabic; Dir. ALI ALAOUTI; circ. 5,000.

Jaridatouk: f. 1970; Arabic; Editor MOHAMMED HIJJI LAAMOURI.

Al Massa (*The Evening*): ave. Allal Ben Abdullah; Arabic.

L'Opinion: ave. Allal Ben Abdullah 11; f. 1965; Istiqlal party newspaper; French; Dir. MOHAMMED BERRADA; circ. 45,000.

Tangier

Diario España: Calle Cervantes; f. 1938; Spanish; independent; circ. 15,000 (E), 30,000 (S); Pres. LUIS ZARRALUQUI, Dir. MANUEL CRUZ.

PERIODICALS

Casablanca

Al Ahdaffe: left-wing weekly; Dir. AHMED AL KHARRASS.

Akbar Al-Dounia: Arabic, weekly, independent, satirical.

Al Atlas Moussaouara: 16 rue Foucauld; f. 1963; Arabic; Independent; fortnightly; Dir. AHMED BENKIRANE; circ. 20,000.

Al Fallah: 49 rue Tizi Ougli, Ain Sebâa; agricultural; fortnightly; Dir. AHMED NEJJAI.

Al Kifah al-Watani: 32 rue Ledru-Rollin, B.P. 152; Arabic and French; weekly; Dir. ALI YATA.

L'Opinion: published by the Istiqlal Party; f. 1962; circ. 50,000.

Al Oummal (*The Workers*): 10 ave. de l'Armée Royale; trade union affairs (U.G.T.M.); Arabic; weekly.

Al Talia: Arabic; weekly; Editor MAHJUB BEN EL SEDDIQ.

Bulletin Africain: 61 blvd. de Bordeaux; f. 1946; French; monthly technical and economic revue.

L'Avant Garde: 222 ave. de l'Armée Royale; French and Arabic; trade union affairs; weekly; Dir. MOHAMMED TIBARY; circ. 10,000.

La Vie Economique: 5 ave. Abdallah Ben Yacine; f. 1921; French; weekly; Editor MICHEL JAEGER.

Lamalif: French; monthly; non-political features and cultural magazine.

Maroc-Demain: 248 blvd. Mohammed V; French; weekly; Editor A. CHABAN.

Maroc-Médical: Immeuble Liberté, 287 Bd. de la Liberté; f. 1920; French; monthly medical journal; Dir. E. LEPINAY, Editor Prof. Agr. J. CHENEBAULT.

Tahrir: 13 rue Soldat Roche; Arabic.

Fez

Al-Siassa (*Politics*): 10 rue de l'Angleterre; Arabic; f. 1967 as successor to Al-Doustour (f. 1963); weekly; Man. Dir. MOHAMMED HASSAN QUAZZANI.

Rabat

Action Africaine: 10 place Mohammed V; popular; circ. 3,000.

Arroumouze: monthly; politics and literature; Dir. AHMED TANANE.

Al Chaab (*The People*): 2 rue Parmentier, ave. de Témara; independent; weekly; Arabic; Founder and Editor M. MEKKI NACIRI; Dir. MUSTAPHA BELHAJ; circ. 25,000.

Al Follah: Chamber of Agriculture; on agricultural affairs; weekly; Arabic.

Atlas: ave. Mohammed V; Arabic; fortnightly; illustrated-political and general information.

Chenguit: Arabic; weekly.

Al Idaa al Watania: Arabic; monthly.

Izdihar al Maghreb: 6 rue Lieutenant Leriche; f. 1957; economic; Dir. ALAOUI KACEM.

Al Janoub: Ministry of State for Mauritanian and Saharan Affairs, 6 ave. Moulay Hafid; southern affairs; Dir. KHALIFA MAHFOUD; circ. 30,000.

Al Maghreb al Arabi: 8 place Mohammed V; weekly.

Al Manarat: 281 ave. Mohammed V; F.D.I.C. weekly; Arabic.

Manar el Maghreb: ave. de Témara; educational; weekly; Arabic.

MOROCCO—(THE PRESS PUBLISHERS RADIO AND TELEVISION FINANCE)

Maroc-65 Ministry Representative of HM the King f 1965
Al Mourchid Arab c weekly Dir MEHDI BENNOUNA
Al Nidal (The Fight) ave Allal Ben Abdullah 18 political weekly Arabic liberal independent
Le Parlement 6 rue Lieutenant Lenche f 1963 independent monthly Dir ALAMI KACEM
Sahraouna 6 rue Moulay Hafid Arab c weekly
Sawt al Maghreb (Voice of the Maghreb) 1 rue Perte Parent organ of the R.T.M. Arabic monthly
La Voix des Communautés 12 Sb el Amir Moulay Abdullah monthly organ of the Jewish Community French Dir DAVID AMAR
 Tangier
Al Mitak Kasba 39 f 1962 religious fortnightly Dir Prof ABDALLAH GUNNOU

Journal de Tanger BP 68 French weekly Dir R DELAUNAY
Tanjah 8 place de France BP 1055 f 1956 French and Arab c weekly Dir MOHAMMED MEHDI ZARDI

NEWS AGENCIES

Maghreb Arabe Presse imm Karrachou rue Ibn Aicha Rabat f 1959 Arabic French and English Casa blanca Tangier Man Dir MEHDI BENNOUNA

FOREIGN BUREAUX

Agence France Presse place Mohammed V BP 118 Rabat f 1920 French Dir DAVID DAURE Sec and Editor MANOUBI MEKNASSY
ANSA c/o MAP rue Henri Gaillard (immeuble Karrachou) Rabat Chief CLAUDIO ANTONIOLI
 DPA Reuters and Tass also have bureaux in Rabat

PUBLISHERS

Dar El Kitab Place de la Mosquée BP 4018 Casablanca philosophy law etc Arabic and French Dir BOUTA LEB ABDELHAY
Imprimerie Artistique 31 avenue Es Sellaoum Fez.
Imprimerie de Fadaia Mohammedia

RADIO AND TELEVISION

RADIO

Radiodiffusion Télévision Marocaine 1 Zenkat Al Brhi Rabat Government station Network 1 in Arabic Network 2 in French Spanish and English Network 3 in Berber Foreign Service in Arabic French and English Dir Rad o and TV A BENNOUNA
 Number of radios (1970) 934 689
Voice of America Radio Station in Tangier Voice of America Washington DC 20547 USA

TELEVISION

Radiodiffusion Télévision Marocaine 11 rue Al Brhi Rabat f 1962 22 hours weekly linked with Eurovision in 1964 Dir Gen M ABDELWAHAB BENMANSOUR
 Number of televisions on sets (1970) 173 904

FINANCE

(cap = capital pu = paid up dep = deposits m = million amounts in Dirhams unless otherwise indicated)

BANKING

CENTRAL BANK

Banque du Maroc 277 ave Mohammed V Rabat f 1959 cap 20m dep 221m (Dec 1970) Gov Prince MOULAY HASSAN BEN MEHDI V ce-Gov AHMED BENNANI

MOROCCAN BANKS

Algemene Bank Nederland (Maroc) S.A. Place d 1 16 Novembre Casablanca f 1948 cap 4m Man B HANSEN

Banco Español en Marruecos S.A.M. Blvd Mohammed V Casablanca f 1964 affil to Banco Exterior de España Madrid cap 25m. dep 604m (Dec 1970) Chair MANUEL ARBURÚA DE LA MIYAR Gen Man. José MARIA BRAVO IBÁÑEZ

Banco Inmobiliario y Mercantil de Marruecos f 1946 cap 22m dep 425m Gen Man J ANDRÉU ABELLO

Banque Americano Franco Suisse pour le Maroc 26 ave de l'Armée Royale BP 972 Casablanca f 1951 as Banque Franco-Suisse pour le Maroc S.A. name changed 1967 cap pu 3m (Dec 1968) Man HENRI JOB

Banque Centrale Populaire 46 avenue de l'Armée Royale Casablanca f 1961 cap 5m ten regional banks Dir Gen. Haj OMAR ABDELJALLIL Co Dir A LARAKI

Banque de l'Union Latine Tangier

Banque Marocaine du Commerce Extérieur 241 boulevard Mohammed V Casablanca branches in Rabat Tangier Tetouan Fes Marrakech Agadir and Safi f 1959 cap 125m dep 4916m (Dec 1968) partly state owned Chair and Chief Exec Officer Hadj ABDELMAJID BENGELLOUN Man Dir DRISS GUEDDARI

Banque Marocaine pour le Commerce et l'Industrie: 26 place Mohammed V, Casablanca, P.O.B. 573; f. 1964; cap. 8m.; dep. 388m. (Dec. 1968); Pres. HENRI GILET; Dir.-Gen. JACQUES GROSJAT.

Banque A Mas: 51 ave. Hassan-Seghir, Casablanca.

Banque Nationale pour le Développement Economique: B.P. 407, place des Alaouites, Rabat; f. 1959; cap. p.u. 4m.; Pres. and Gen. Man. M'HAMED BARGACH; publ. *Rapport annuel*.

Banque Populaire de Casablanca: 46 avenue de l'Armée Royale.

Banque Populaire de Rabat: 29 ave. Allal ben Abdullah, Rabat.

Compagnie Africaine de Banque S.A.: 29 rue de Longwy, Casablanca; f. 1946; cap. p.u. 1.5m.; Chair. CHRISTIAN MONNIER; Gen. Man. BERNARD PAGEZY.

Crédit du Maroc: B.P. 579, 48-58 blvd. Mohammed V, Casablanca; f. 1963; cap. 8m.; Pres. KARIM LAMRANI; Dir.-Gen. JAWAD BEN BRAHIM.

Unión Bancaria Hispano Marroquí: 69 rue de Prince Moulay Abdullah, Casablanca; cap. 16m.; dep. 161m. (Dec. 1968); Pres. ANTONIO SAEZ DE MONTAGUT; Gen. Man. GERMÁN SELA Y CREMADES.

Worms et Cie. (Maroc): 81 rue Colbert, Casablanca, B.P. 602; f. 1946; merged with Banque Foncière du Maroc and Banque Ottomane Maroc 1966; cap. 4.2m.; brs. in Rabat and Casablanca; Pres. ROBERT DUBOST; Gen. Man. JEAN PINEILL.

FOREIGN BANKS

Arab Bank: Amman; Casablanca and Rabat; cap. 5.5m. J.D.; dep. 100m. J.D.

Banque Commerciale du Maroc: Paris; 1 rue Idriss Lahrizi, Casablanca; f. 1911; affiliated to Crédit Industriel et Commercial; cap. 8m.; dep. 320m. (Dec. 1968); Pres. E. LEBÉE; Gen. Mans. J. MAGNAN, A. ALAMI.

Banque de Paris et des Pays-Bas: Paris; 79 avenue Hassan II, Casablanca.

Banque Industrielle de l'Afrique du Nord, S.A.: Algiers; place Nations-Unies, Casablanca.

British Bank of the Middle East (Morocco): 80 ave. Lalla Yacout, P.O.B. 880, Casablanca; f. 1948 as Société Cherifienne de Gérance et de Banque; name changed 1961 and became wholly-owned subsidiary of the British Bank of the Middle East; 2 brs. in Casablanca, 1 in Tangier, Chair. C. E. LOOMBE, C.M.G.

Compagnie Marocaine de Crédit et de Banque: Paris; 29 blvd. Mohammed V, Tangier; 1 ave. Hassan II, Casablanca; f. 1961; cap. 14.5m.; Pres. ALI KETTANI; Gen. Man. MOHAMED AMINE BENGELOUN.

First National City Bank (Maghreb): 52 ave. Hassan II, Casablanca; f. 1967; cap. 2m.; branch in Rabat; Man. Dir. J. C. BOTTS.

Société de Banque du Maghreb: 3 avenue Lalla Yacout, Casablanca; wholly-owned subsidiary of Société Centrale de Banque, Paris; cap. 7m.; Chair. G. DE LAVERNETTE; Gen. Man. V. A. MUNIER.

Société Générale Marocaine de Banques: 84 blvd. Mohammed V, B.P. 90, Casablanca; cap. 8m.

BANK ORGANIZATIONS

Groupement Professionnel des Banques du Maroc: 27 ave. Hassan II, Casablanca; f. 1967; groups all commercial banks for organization, studies, inquiries of general interest, and connection with official authorities; Pres. Hadj ABDELMAJID BENGELOUN.

Union Marocaine de Banques: 36 rue Tahar Sebti, Casablanca.

STOCK EXCHANGE

Bourse des Valeurs de Casablanca: Chamber of Commerce Building, 98 boulevard Mohammed V, Casablanca; f. 1929; Dir. ABDERRABAIC LARAQUI.

INSURANCE

Atlanta: 243 blvd. Mohammed V, Casablanca; f. 1947; Dir. M. POIRRIER.

Atlas: 44 rue Mohammed Smiha, Casablanca; Dir. M. POIRRIER.

Cie. Africaine d'Assurances: 123 blvd. Rahal el Meskini, Casablanca; Dir. M. ROUTHIER.

Cie. Nordafricaine et Intercontinentale d'Assurances (C.N.I.A.): 157 ave. Hassan II, Casablanca; cap. 1.8m.; Pres. ABDELKAMEL RERHRHAYE.

Cia. Marroquí de Seguros: 62 rue de la Liberté, Tangier; Dir. M. BUISAN.

COMAR Paternelle-Prévoyance: 42 avenue de l'Armée Royale, Casablanca; cap. 3.1m.; Gen. Man. BERNARD PAGEZY.

L'Empire: 45 rue du Cdt. Lamy, Casablanca; Dir. M. CASTET.

L'Entente: 2 rue Mohammed Smiha, Casablanca; f. 1960; Pres. JEAN VAULON; Man. Dir. MAURICE FLEUREAU.

Mutuelle Agricole Marocaine d'Assurances: 14 rue Normand, Rabat; Dir. M. YACOUBI.

La Providence Marocaine: 1 rond-point St. Exupéry, Casablanca; Dir. M. DE ROQUEFEUIL.

La Royale Marocaine d'Assurance: 67 ave. de l'Armée Royale, Casablanca; cap. 1.1m.; Dir.-Gen. M. BECERRA.

Es Saada, Cie. Générale d'Assurances et de Réassurances: 123 ave. Hassan II, Casablanca.

Société Centrale de Réassurance: P.O.B. 435, 31 boulevard des Alaouites, Rabat; f. 1961; Dir. MOHAMMED AIMARAH.

Société Marocaine d'Assurances: 1 rond-point Saint Exupéry, Casablanca; Dir. M. GIUSTINIANI.

Fédération Marocaine des Sociétés d'Assurances et de Réassurances: 300 rue Mustafa el Maani, Casablanca; Sec.-Gen. H. CLERY.

TRADE AND INDUSTRY

CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE

Chambre de Commerce Hollando-Marocaine: 106 rue Abderrahman Scharoui Casablanca f 1956, 150 mems, Dir A. VAN BAAR

Chambre Française de Commerce et d'Industrie: 15 avenue Mers Sultan Casablanca Pres J P HAINAUT Dir PIERRE ROUSSELOT

La Fédération des Chambres de Commerce et d'Industrie du Maroc: B P 218 11 ave Allal Ben Abdullah Rabat, f 1962, there are 15 Chambers of Commerce and Industry Pres JAJ MILOUD CHAABI publ *Revue Trimestrielle*

DEVELOPMENT ORGANIZATIONS

Bureau d'Etudes et de Participations Industrielles (BEPI): 8 rue Michaux Bellaire Rabat f 1958 a state agency to develop industry

Bureau de Recherches et de Participations Minières (BRPM): 27 Chana Moulay Hassan Rabat f 1928 a state agency to develop the mining industry Dir Gen YAHIA CHEFCHAOUNI

Caisse Marocaine des Marchés (Marketing Fund) Casablanca

Caisse Nationale de Crédit Agricole (Agricultural Credit Fund) B P 49 Rabat

Caisse de Prêts Immobiliers du Maroc (Property Fund) Casablanca

Crédit Immobilier et Hôtelier: 159 ave Hassan II Casablanca f 1920 cap 20m. Pres ABDELKAMEL KERRHAYE Admin. Dir Gen MOHAMED LAZRAK

Office de Commercialisation et d'Exportation (OCE): 45 ave des F A R. Casablanca f 1965 turnover (1970-71) 1 300 Dirhams takes part in productivity planning industrialization and overseas trade Dir SBIH ABDELHADI

STATE ENTERPRISES

Complexe de Textiles de Fes (COTEF): Fes, f 1967 50 per cent state participation a plant for weaving up to 40 million sq metres of cloth per annum is under construction.

Minas del Rif: Nador, nationalized 1967, two iron mines produce 1 m tons of ore per annum for the Nador iron and steel complex

Office Chérifien des Phosphates (OCP): Rabat f 1921 a state company to produce and market rock phosphates and derivatives Dir Gen MOHAMMED KARIM LAMRANI

Office Nationale de l'Electricité: B P 493, Casablanca, state electrical authority

EMPLOYERS ORGANIZATIONS

Association Marocaine des Industries Textiles: Casablanca, Pres SMILI BENSALAM

Association des Producteurs d'Agrumes du Maroc (ASPAM): Casablanca, links Moroccan citrus growers, has its own processing plants

Confédération Générale Economique Marocaine (C.G.E.M.): 23 blvd Mohammed Abdouh Casablanca Pres MOHAMMED AMOR Sec Gen M FAYCAL CHRAÏBI

Office Chérifien Interprofessionnel des Céréales: Casablanca, Dir MOHAMMED BRICK

Union Marocaine de l'Agriculture (U.M.A.): rue Michaux-Bellaire, Rabat, Pres M NEJJAI

TRADE UNIONS

Union Marocaine du Travail (U.M.T.): Bourse du Travail, 222 avenue de l'Armée Royale, Casablanca, most unions are affiliated, 700 000 mems, Sec MAHJOUR BEN SEDDIQ, Publ. *L'Avant Gardé* (French weekly)

Union Générale des Travailleurs du Maroc (U.G.T.M.): 9 rue du Rif angle Route de Médiouna Casablanca; supported by unions not affiliated to U.M.T., Sec Gen ABDEZZAK AFILAL

Syndicat National Libre: blvd Hansali (prolongé), Casablanca f 1958, 69 000 mems Sec-Gen. MEXXI IBRAHIM

Union Marocaine de l'Agriculture (U.M.A.): Pres M NEJJAI

TRADE FAIR

Foire Internationale de Casablanca: 11 rue Jules Mauran, Casablanca, international trade fair, annually for two weeks in April

TRANSPORT

RAILWAYS

Railways cover 1,778 km. All services are nationalized.

Office National des Chemins de Fer (ONCF): 19 ave. Allal Ben Abdallah, Rabat; f. 1963; routes: Casablanca to Sidi-Kacem (electrified) 212 km., Casablanca to Marrakesh (electrified) 247 km., Sidi-el-Aidi to Oued-Zem (electrified) 120 km., Fez to the Algerian border (diesel/electric) 371 km., Safi to Benguerir (diesel/electric) 142 km., Ben Oukil to Bou Arfa (diesel/electric) 288 km., Guenfouda to Djérada (diesel/electric) 45 km., Sidi Rhazouani-Beni Idir (electrified) 9 km., Tangier to Sidi Kacem (diesel/electric) 200 km., Sidi Kacem to Fez (electrified) 115 km.; Pres. M. CHAMI; Dir. MOUSSA MOUSSAOUI.

ROADS

There are 14,000 km. of main and secondary roads, 88.5 per cent are surfaced. Out of a total of 11,031 km. of third-class roads 7,653 are surfaced. Most public transport is by road.

Compagnie Auxiliaire de Transports au Maroc (C.T.M.): 303 blvd. Brahim Roudani, Casablanca; Agencies in Tangier, Rabat, Meknès, Oujda, Marrakesh, Agadir, El Jadida, Safi, Essouira, Ksar-Es-Souk and Ouarzazate.

MOTORISTS' ORGANIZATIONS

The Royal Moroccan Automobile Club: place des Nations Unies, P.O.B. 94, Casablanca; f. 1913; 10,000 mems., offices at Kenitra, Meknès, Fez, Oujda, Tangier, El Jadida, Safi, Marrakesh, Agadir, Taza, Khouribga, Youssoufia and Tétuan; Pres. MOHAMMED M'JID.

Touring Club du Maroc: 3 ave. de l'Armée Royale, Casablanca; 645 mems., 10,021 associate mems.; Pres. LARBI LAMRANI.

SHIPPING

The chief ports of Morocco are Tangier, Casablanca, Safi, Mohammedia, Kenitra and Agadir. In January 1962 the port of Tangier became a Free Zone. Tangier is the principal port for passenger services.

Port Area of Casablanca: A governor was appointed for the first time in 1967, to improve the operational efficiency of the port; Casablanca handles 70 per cent of Morocco's

trade; Gov. of Casablanca Port Area MOHAMMED LYOUSSI.

Bland Line: 21 blvd. Pasteur, Tangier; also at Casablanca; regular air and sea services Tangier to Gibraltar.

Compagnie Marocaine de Navigation: 28 rue de Lille, Casablanca; f. 1946; Pres., Dir.-Gen. A. BENANI.

Compagnie Chérifienne d'Armement: 5 ave. de l'Armée Royale, Casablanca; f. 1929; Pres. BENNANI-SMIRE; regular lines to North France and Europe.

Compagnie Maritime des Chargeurs Réunis: Agence Paquet, 65 ave. de l'Armée Royale, B.P. 60, Casablanca.

Limadet-ferry: 3 rue H. Regnault, Tangier; operates between Malaga and Tangier.

Normandy Ferry Co.: Casablanca; regular car ferry service to Lisbon and Southampton.

Transmediterranea S.A., Cia: 39 rue du Mexique, Tangier and at Casablanca; daily services Algeciras to Tangier

Voyages Paquet: 65 ave. de l'Armée Royale, Casablanca; 21 ave. d'Espagne, Tangier.

CIVIL AVIATION

NATIONAL AIRLINE

Royal Air Maroc: Airport Casablanca-Anfa; f. 1957; services to France, Spain, Senegal, Germany, Algeria, Italy, the Canaries, Tunisia, the U.K., Libya, Belgium, Netherlands and Switzerland; Chair. AHMED LASKY; fleet of five Caravelles and one Constellation.

FOREIGN AIRLINES

The following international airlines also serve Morocco: Aeroflot, Air Afrique, Air Algérie, Air France, Air Mali, Alitalia, Balkan Airways, B.E.A., C.S.A., Gibraltar Airways, Iberia, P.A.A., Sabena, Swissair, Tunis Air.

COMMUNICATIONS

The first commercial communications centre in Africa was opened in December 1969 at Ain-el-Aouda, 20 miles south-west of Rabat. The station initially carries 9 channels, but will eventually expand to over 100 channels.

TOURISM

Office National Marocain de Tourisme B.P. 19 22 ave d'Alger Rabat f 1946 Dir ABDELLATIF AMOR publ Maroc Tourism (quarterly)

CULTURAL ORGANIZATIONS

Direction des Affaires Culturelles Ministry of Education and Fine Arts Jardin de la Mamounia Rabat consists of three departments Cultural Activities Fine Arts and Folklore Historical Monuments and Antiquities which together administer all national cultural activities Publs *Bulletin d'Archéologie Marocaine Etudes et Travaux d'Archéologie Marocaine*

Association des Amateurs de la Musique Andalousse Casablanca directed and subsidized by the Ministry of Education and Fine Arts Dir HADJ DRISS BENJEL LOUN

PRINCIPAL THEATRES

Théâtre National Mohammed V Rabat Morocco's national theatre with its own troupe subsidized by the state Dr M. A. SEGROUCHNI

Théâtre Municipal de Casablanca Blvd de Paris Casablanca f 1922 reorganized 1934 and 1949 1 022 seats

formerly presented a limited number of French productions now presents a large number of foreign and national productions maintained by the Casablanca Municipality Dir TAIB SADDIKI Gen Administrator ALI KADIRI

PRINCIPAL ORCHESTRAS

Orchestre Symphonique du Conservatoire National de Musique Rabat European classical music and Andalusian (Arabic) music using internationally accepted notation chamber orchestra

Orchestre du Conservatoire de Tétouan Tétouan specializes in Andalusian (Arabic) music Dir M. TEMSEMANI

Orchestre du Conservatoire Dar Adyel Fez specializing in traditional music Dir Hadj ABDELKRIM RAIS

FESTIVAL

Folklore Festival Marrakesh national festival of folk dancing annually April May, organized by the Ministry of Tourism under the direction of the Ministry of Education and Fine Arts.

EDUCATION

Since Independence in 1956 Morocco has had to tackle a number of educational problems a youthful and fast growing population an urgent need for skilled workers and executives a great diversity of teaching methods between French Spanish, Muslim and Moroccan Government schools and above all a high degree of adult illiteracy Morocco spends one-fifth of her national budget on education of which a considerable proportion is devoted to constructing buildings for higher studies and technical education In many small towns and villages local craftsmen have co-operated together in the building of elementary schools

Education is divided between the Government the French University and Cultural Mission the Jewish Universal Alliance and private bodies although the great majority of instruction is given in Government schools. In 1968-69 there were well over a million children receiving primary education and this figure is rapidly being increased Instruction is given in Arabic for the first two years in Arabic and French for the following three years English is the first additional language Exams and syllabuses have been standardized Approximately one quarter of the teachers are French. A decree of November 1963 made education compulsory for children between the ages of 7-13 and this has now been applied in most urban areas

At the secondary level there were in 1969 287 000

students approximately a quarter of whom were at technical schools Recruitment of teachers abroad has increased the number of qualified staff to 7 000 but this number is still inadequate Instruction is mainly given in French more than half the teachers being French but some institutions are making experimental use of Arab c as the language of instruction

Higher education has a long history in Morocco The Islamic University of Al Qarawiyin at Fez celebrated its eleventh centenary in 1959-60 The v universities have been started at Rabat and Marrakesh where a *cité universitaire* is planned for 1 500 students A Medical faculty and a Science faculty as well as an Arts School and an Engineering College are now operating in Rabat In addition there are advanced schools of administration sociology and agriculture An African Centre for Research into Administrative Training for Development opened in Tangier in 1964 This project has financial backing from UNESCO and the UN Economic Commission for Africa At the end of 1969 some 3 000 Moroccans were studying abroad

Adult education is being tackled through the means of radio simplified type a special newspaper for the newly literate and the co-operation of every teacher in the country Another notable development in recent years has been the increasing attention given to education for girls There are now a number of mixed and girls schools and the proportion is growing yearly

LEARNED SOCIETIES AND RESEARCH INSTITUTES

(see also under Universities)

Association des Amateurs de la Musique Andalousse Casablanca f 1956 to preserve and catalogue traditional Moroccan (Andalusian) music maintains a School of Andalusian music at Casablanca directed and subsidized by the Ministry of Education and Fine Arts Dir HADJ DRISS BENJEL LOUN

British Council The 6 ave Moulay Youssef B.P. 427 Rabat library (see Libraries) Rep E. R. LLOYD

Centre d'Etudes de Documentation et d'Information Economiques et Sociales 23 Blvd Mohamed Abdouh Casablanca

Centro Cultural Español 5 rue Mohamed Al Fatih Rabat

Comité National de Géographie du Maroc Institut Scientifique Chérifien ave Moulay Chérif Rabat f 1947 Pres The Minister of Education Sec J. MARTIN publ *Atlas du Maroc*

Division de la Géologie: c/o Ministry of Commerce, Industry, Merchant Mines and Marine, Rabat; f. 1921; National Geological Survey; library of c. 34,250 vols., 4,212 maps; Dir. MOUSSA SAADI.

Division du Théâtre, de la Musique et du Folklore: c/o Ministre d'Etat aux Affaires Culturelles, Rabat; undertakes research into all aspects of Moroccan folk art and ethnography.

Goethe-Institut (Casablanca): Place du 16 novembre; Dir. Dr. R. GLUNK.

Goethe-Institut (Rabat): 10 rue Djebli; Dir. Dr. ROLF GROBE.

Institut National de la Recherche Agronomique: B.P. 415, Rabat; f. 1924; undertakes research in ecology, pedology, climatology, horticulture, phytopathology, etc.; library of 11,400 vols.; Dir. M. FARAJ; publs. *Al Awamia, Cahier de la Recherche Agronomique, Collection technique*.

Institut Pasteur: B.P. 415, Tangier; f. 1912; Dir. Dr. M. MAILLOUX.

Institut Scientifique Chérifien: ave. Moulay-Chérif, Rabat; f. 1920 for the practical study of nature; departments of Entomology, Geography, Geology, World Physics, Phanerogamy, Zoology; 32 mems.; Dir. H. MSOUGAR; Sec. Miss A. RHAMDOUR; publ. *Travaux*.

ATTACHED INSTITUTES:

Station de Recherches présahariennes: Aouinet-Torkoz.

Station de Séismologie: Ifrane.

Observatoire Séismologique Averroës: Berrechid.

Instituto Muley El Hassan: P.B. 84, Tetouan; research on Hispano-Muslim works; library of 5,500 vols.; Dirs. MOHAMMED BEN TAUIT, MARIANO ARRIBAS PALAU.

Instituto Politécnico Español en Tangier (Spanish Polytechnical Institute in Tangier): Plaza Obispo Betanzos, 1, Tangier; f. 1949; 58 students; 3,430 vols.; Dir. DON RAMON DE DIOS VIDAL; publ. *Revista Preu* (monthly).

Mission Pedologique: Ministère de la Reforme Agraire, B.P. 432, Rabat; pedology; Dir. R. BILLAUX.

Mission Universitaire et Culturelle Française au Maroc (French University and Cultural Mission in Morocco): rue Michaux-Bellaire, Rabat; examination courses, cultural and artistic visits and exhibitions, lectures; libraries Rabat, Casablanca and other large towns; Dir. M. FLORY; 38,000 students.

Office de la Recherche Scientifique et Technique Outre-Mer Mission (O.R.S.T.O.M.): Institut des Pêches Maritimes du Maroc, Office National des Pêches, 13 rue du Chevalier Bayard, Casablanca; f. 1948; oceanography and applied oceanography of marine exploration, marine biology, fisheries, and treatment of marine products; Dir. J. COLLIGNON; publ. *Bulletin*.

Office de la Recherche Scientifique et Technique Outre-Mer: B.P. 432, Rabat; pedology; Dir. J. HERVIEU.

Service de Physique du Globe: Faculté des Sciences, Ave. Moulay Chérif, Rabat; f. 1933; research on terrestrial magnetism, surge, seismology, gravimetry, etc.

Société de Géographie du Maroc (Université de Rabat): Faculté des Lettres, Rabat; f. 1916; 500 mems.; Pres. MOHAMMED DIOURI; publ. *Revue de Géographie du Maroc* (twice yearly).

Société de Préhistoire du Maroc: Syndicat d'Initiative, blvd. de la Gare, Casablanca; f. 1926; Pres. M. BOUDY; Sec.-Gen. M. ANTOINE; publ. *Bulletin* (bi-annually).

Société des Sciences Naturelles et Physiques du Maroc: Institut Scientifique Chérifien, ave. Moulay Chérif, Rabat; f. 1920; 350 mems.; Pres. H. FARAJ; Sec.-Gen. A. SASSON; publs. *Bulletin, Comptes-rendus, Travaux de la Section de Pédologie, Suppléments au Bulletin ou aux C.R.*

Société d'Etudes Economiques, Sociales et Statistiques du Maroc: Recette Postale, Rabat.

Société d'Horticulture et d'Acclimatation du Maroc: P.O.B. 854, Casablanca; f. 1914; 500 mems.; Pres. M. DE VERBIGIER DE SAINT PAUL; Sec. M. MANDON; publ. *Jardins du Maroc* (quarterly).

U.S. Information Centers:

Rue Émile Duployé angle Rue Pegoud, Casablanca.

Place de la Résistance, Fez Ville Nouvelle, Fez.

43 Ave. de l'Allal. B. Abdallah, Rabat.

71 Blvd. de la Liberté, Tangier.

LIBRARIES AND ARCHIVES

Casablanca

Bibliothèque Municipale: 142 ave. de l'Armée Royale.

Fez

Al Qarawiyn University Library: contains about 1,600 ancient and precious MSS. of famous Muslim teachers and thinkers.

Rabat

Bibliothèque de l'Institut Scientifique Chérifien: Avenue Moulay Chérif; f. 1920; 25,000 vols., 1,257 periodicals.

Bibliothèque Générale et Archives du Maroc: ave. Moulay Chérif; f. 1920; 208,000 vols., 3,500 periodicals taken; Dir. ABDELLAH REGRAGUI.

British Council Library: f. 1960; 13,600 vols.; Rep. E. R. LLOYD.

Tangier

Biblioteca Pública Española: 9 rue Belgique, Tangier; f. 1941; the library is divided into Arabic and European Sections; 25,000 vols.; Dir. and Librarian DORA BACAICOA ARNAIZ.

Tetouán

Bibliothèque Générale et Archives: B.P. 41, Tetouán; f. 1939; Dir. M. DELLERO.

Library: European Section 45,000 vols., Arab Section 15,000 vols., MSS. 1,500 vols.

Periodicals: 1,458 European titles, 760 Arab titles.

Archives: 20,000 historical documents, 60,000 administrative documents, 35,000 photographs.

Exchange Services: 11,000 vols. in Spanish, 9,000 vols. in Arabic.

Numismatics: 1,000 pieces.

MUSEUMS

Direction des Musées, Arts Plastiques et Expositions:
Ministre d'Etat chargé des affaires culturelles et de l'enseignement original 13 rue Pierre Parent Rabat,
Dir. A. SEYROUT Chief Ethnographic Museums ZENZI
KAHEL Chief Archeological Museums A. MARRAKCHI
Chief of Division of Antiquities M. BEKKARI administers the following museums
Musée des Oudaias: Rabat f. 1915 Curator RENÉ HENKERT
Musée des Antiquités: Rabat f. 1917 Curator Mlle EL MACIRAFI
Musée des Antiquités: Volubilis Curator ARMAND LUCQIER

Musée du Dar Batha: Fez Curator M. SERGHINI
Musée d'Armes du Bordj Nord: Fez, Curator M. SERGHINI
Musée de la Kasbah: Tangier Curator DRISSI BELHOUCHE
Musée du Dar Jamaï: Meknes Curator M. A. BENTAHIA
Musée dar Si Said: Marrakesh Curator M. BENYANI
Musée d'Art et Folklore: Tetouan, Curator M. BENABOU
Musée Archéologique: Tetouan Curator MEHDI DELLER

UNIVERSITIES

UNIVERSITÉ MOHAMMED V
AVENUE MOULAY CHERIF, RABAT
(Annexes at Casablanca, Fez and Tetouan)

Founded 1957

Rector S. E. MOHAMMED EL FASI
Vice Rector Dr. FARAJ
Secretary General AHMED LAKHDAR
Librarian Mlle RABIA MOUDEN
Number of Students 3,453

DEANS

Faculty of Law A. BELKEZIZ
Faculty of Letters B. BOUTALEB
Faculty of Science A. BENABDELJIL
Faculty of Medicine and Pharmacy Dr. A. BERBICH

ATTACHED INSTITUTES

Institut de Sociologie: f. 1960
Director A. KHATIBI
Centre Universitaire de la Recherche Scientifique: f. 1962
Director NACER EL FASSI
Le Laboratoire de Géographie Physique:
Director J. MARTIN

UNIVERSITÉ BEN YOUSSEF DE MARRAKECH
CITÉ UNIVERSITAIRE, MARRAKESH

Traditional Islamic studies

Rector MOHAMMED RAHALI EL FARROUQI
Number of students 1,100

AL QARAWIYIN UNIVERSITY

27 RUE ST PIERRE ET MIQUELON RABAT
Founded 859 A.D., enlarged in 11th century

Traditional studies in Islamic Law and Theology and Arabic Literature

Rector MOHAMMED EL FASI

Secretary-General M. HAJOUI TAALIBI

Section de Muqrieen (Masters of the Koran) MOHAMMED MEDOUAR (Director)

Number of students 422

DEANS AND DIRECTOR

Faculty of Islamic Law (Fez) M. J. SEKALLI
Faculty of Arabic Language and Literature (Marrakech) F. RAHALI
Faculty of Theology and Philosophy T. QUAZANI
Institute of Islamic Studies M. ALAOUI (Director)

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH AFRICA TANGIER

Now under construction classes are scheduled to begin in Autumn 1971. Beginning with two fields of study—business management and English language teacher training—it will later expand into other fields of technical education

COLLEGES

ECOLE MUNICIPALE DES BEAUX-ARTS
BOULEVARD RACHIDI, CASABLANCA

Telephone 736-15

Founded 1951

Arranges courses in painting sculpture graphics drawing and decoration. All the courses include studies in the history of art about 40 students

Director F. BELKHAIA

ECOLE DES BEAUX-ARTS DE TETOUAN
TETOUAN
Founded 1921

Comprises the following two departments

Escuela de Artes Marroquies (School of Native Arts and Crafts) Tetouan f. 1921, textiles carpets rugs ceramics engraving plaster inlays, woodwork, precious metal work leather and Arabic woodcarving 200 mems; Dir. MOHAMMED M. SERGHINI, Sec. JOAQUIN VENERO administers the following

Escuela Preparatoria de Bellas Artes: drawing, painting, sculpture, decorative arts

INSTITUTO MULEY EL-HASAN
(de Investigaciones Marroquíes)
CALLE C, NÚM. 2, PRAL. 2A,
APDO. 84, TETUÁN

Object: research on Hispano-Muslim works.

Moroccan Director: MOHAMMED BEN TAUIT.

Spanish Assistant Director: MARIANO ARRIAS PALAU.

The library contains 3,750 vols. in the Arabic Section and 1,850 vols. in the European Section.

**CONSERVATOIRE NATIONAL DE MUSIQUE,
DE DANSE ET D'ART DRAMATIQUE**
RABAT

Engages in training of students in European, Moroccan and Eastern music. The Conservatoire has three orchestras: a classical Symphony orchestra; an orchestra for traditional Andalusian music; an orchestra for eastern music: Dir. A. AGOUMI.

**ECOLE NATIONALE DE MUSIQUE ET DE
DANSE DE TETUAN**
TETUAN

Specializes in teaching traditional Moroccan (Andalusian) music, for which it has its own orchestra.

Conservatoire Dar Adyel: Fez; specializes in traditional Moroccan music; Dir. Hadj ABDELKRIM RAIS.

Conservatoire de Musique: Casablanca.

Conservatoire de Tanger: Tangiers; Classical and Andalusian music; Dir. DAYLAN MOHAMMED.

Ecole Marocaine d'Administration: Rabat; Dir. BEN ABDI.

Ecole de Médecine Averroès: Casablanca; f. 1959; for 5th and 6th grade medical students; 55 students.

Ecole Mohammadia d'Ingenieurs: P.O.B. 765, Rabat; f. 1960; Dean DRISS AMOR; 85 teachers, 260 students; library of 15,000 vols.; Librarian J. AMOR.

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Oman

GEOGRAPHY

The Sultanate of Muscat and Oman lies at the extreme south-east of the Arabian peninsula and is flanked by the Trucial States on the extreme North by the *Rub al Khali* (or Empty Quarter) of Saudi Arabia on the North and West, and by Southern Yemen on the extreme West. Its sea coast extends for over 1 000 miles and its total area (including Dhofar) is about 107,000 square miles, but the frontier with Saudi Arabia in particular is very ill-defined. The whole area is known as Oman (of which Muscat is the capital), apart from the province of Dhofar which lies south-west of Oman. The population of the whole area is estimated at over 550,000, and the population of Muscat at 6 200.

At Muscat the mean annual rainfall is 3.94 inches and the average mean temperature varies between 69°F and 90°F. Although most of the region is and the coastal plain of Batina, East of the Jabal Akhdar ridge is relatively fertile, and so also is the fertile plateau of Dhofar, in the south west. The *Rub al Khali* on Oman's northern border, is a rainless unrelieved wilderness of shifting sand, too difficult for occupation even by nomads.

HISTORY

Little is known about Muscat and Oman before the capture of its capital by the Portuguese in 1508. For almost 150 years the Portuguese maintained a naval station and factory at Muscat controlling trade in the Persian Gulf area. In 1650 they were turned out by local Arabs. The importance and power of the Arab rulers of Muscat were gradually extended, until by 1730 they had conquered the Portuguese settlements in East Africa, including Mogadishu, Mombasa and the islands of Mafia and Zanzibar. A brief Iranian invasion (1741-43) was terminated by the rise of the present dynasty, the Al Abu Saïds. On the death of Saïyid Saïd in 1856, his territories were divided between his two sons through British mediation, an agreement being concluded in 1861 under which Zanzibar agreed to pay an annual subsidy of 86,400 rupees to Muscat, and each ruler was accorded the style of Sultan.

In the early 19th century Muscat was the main market for slaves imported from the East African territories of the Sultan of Muscat and Oman but in 1822 Britain concluded a treaty with the Sultan of Muscat prohibiting the trade in slaves between his dominions and those of Christian countries. Towards the end of the 19th century the European powers showed increased interest in the Persian Gulf area generally, and in 1891 the Sultan of Muscat signed an agreement with the British not to dispose of any of his territory. But this agreement is now regarded as having lapsed. The only formal link between Muscat

and Oman and the United Kingdom has been the successive Treaties of Friendship and Commerce signed in 1891, 1939 and 1951. The Treaty of 1951 provides for reciprocal treatment of each other's nationals and most favoured nation treatment between the signatories for commerce, shipping and taxation. The Treaty ran for 15 years from May 1952 and now continues in effect unless notice to terminate is given by either party. The Sultan of Muscat relies on the United Kingdom to help him resist aggression.

In 1920 the Sultan agreed to allow the Imam his traditional measure of temporal authority over his Omani followers, the Sultan's sovereignty over the entire Sultanate remaining unimpaired. The Imam resided at Nizwa and most of the tribes of the interior acknowledged his authority as far north as Ibrî, at the southern end of the Dhahirah. He also had some influence over the tribes in the desert west of the mountains.

For many years there was harmony between successive Sultans and their vassals, which was demonstrated when the Imam Muhammad Kahili provided military assistance to his overlord in 1952 when the Sultan was assembling an army for the purpose of expelling Saudi Arabian intruders from the Buraimi Oasis. But after the death of the old Imam in 1954 his successor, Ghalib, sought, with foreign help, to establish a separate principality. In December 1955, forces under the Sultan's control entered the main inhabited centres of Oman without resistance. The former Imam was allowed by the Sultan to retire to his village but his brother, Talib, escaped to Saudi Arabia and thence to Cairo. An 'Oman Imamate' office was set up there and the cause of the Imam was supported by Egyptian propaganda.

OMAN AND THE UN

When in the summer of 1957 Talib returned and established himself with followers in the mountain areas north west of Nizwa, he was supported by Sulman bin Himyar. The Sultan appealed for British help in July and in August 1957 the end of the rising was announced, but fighting continued and the rebels were able to maintain themselves in the Jebel Akhdar until early 1959 when the Sultan's authority was fully re-established. (On September 4th 1958, the Sultan of Muscat ceded to Pakistan in exchange for £3 million, the Persian Gulf port of Gwadar, which had been in Muscat hands for 150 years.)

In October 1960 ten Arab countries secured the placing of the "question of Oman" on the agenda of the General Assembly of the United Nations, despite British objections. A draft resolution calling for the 'independence of Oman' failed however, to secure the necessary majority. In December 1961 a UN Commission of Inquiry led by the Swedish diplomat Mr H. de Rubbing visited Muscat and Oman in May and June 1963 where they interviewed government

officials, *walis* and tribal leaders. The Commission also interviewed the Imamate leaders in Cairo. Their report to the UN General Assembly, debated in the late autumn, refuted the Imamate charges of oppressive government and strong public feeling against the Sultan. But the Arab countries succeeded in obtaining sufficient support for the setting up of an *ad hoc* Committee to examine "the question of Oman". The Committee, composed of Afghanistan, Costa Rica, Nepal, Nigeria and Senegal, submitted its report to the General Assembly in October 1965. In December 1965 a resolution was adopted by the General Assembly which amongst other things considered that the colonial presence of the United Kingdom prevented the people from exercising their rights of self-determination and independence, called for the elimination of British domination in any form and invited the Special Committee on the Granting of Independence to Colonial Peoples to examine the situation further. The question has been raised again in the United Nations on several occasions, and since July 1970 has been complicated by the palace coup.

THE SULTANATE SINCE 1967

In the spring of 1968 there were reports that the Sultan was preparing to make a number of co-operative arrangements with Abu Dhabi, which might have helped to forge further links with the proposed Federation of Arab Emirates, which will lie on the country's northern border. This possible break in Oman's traditional isolation was perhaps caused by the announcement of the intended withdrawal of British forces from the Gulf by 1971, since these forces have helped to protect Sultan Said in the past. The R.A.F. retains staging posts at Salalah and on Masirah island, but Britain has no other troops stationed in the area. The Sultan's armed forces have British citizens serving under contract as officers, however, and the oil revenues have recently enabled the government to buy modern British arms including jet fighters.

By 1970 Sultan Said's government had come to be regarded as the most reactionary and isolationist in the area, if not the world—slavery was still common, and many mediaeval prohibitions were in force. The Sultan's refusal to use the oil revenues for any purpose other than the building up of his armed forces had particularly embarrassed Britain, the oil companies and most neighbouring states, and this attitude had provided ideal conditions for the rebellion in Dhofar province and elsewhere. On July 24th, 1970, the Sultan was deposed by a coup led by his son, Qabus bin Said, at the royal palace in Salalah; wounded in a brief skirmish, he was flown to a hospital in Britain after abdicating. Qabus, aged 28 and trained at Sandhurst, thus became Sultan to general acclaim both within the Sultanate and abroad, including support from the army; reports of British complicity in the coup were strongly denied by London. The new Sultan announced his intention to transform the country by using the oil revenues for development, following the example of the Gulf shiekhdoms to the north. He asked the rebels for their co-operation in developing the country, but only the Dhofar Libera-

tion Front reacted favourably. The Popular Front for the Liberation of the Occupied Arabian Gulf (reported to control most of Dhofar, and to be receiving Chinese aid through the Yemen P.D.R.) and its ally the National Democratic Front for the Liberation of the Occupied Arabian Gulf appeared to think that the palace coup changed little.

In August "Muscat" was dropped from the title of the country, which became simply the "Sultanate of Oman". Sultan Qabus appointed his uncle, Tariq bin Taimour, as Prime Minister. Other ministerial appointments were made during August, and two Britons were named, one for the key post of Defence. At the same time three leading officials of the old régime were dismissed. Government policy is aimed at providing the basic social and economic infrastructure which the former Sultan was rigidly opposed to—housing, education, communications, health services, etc. In addition, restrictions on travel have been lifted, many prisoners released, and many Omani have returned from abroad. It is possible that political parties may be permitted soon, though communists would be disqualified.

Oman's desire for membership of the UN and Arab League, stated by the Prime Minister in August 1970, is likely to be frustrated for some time. Her dependence on Britain is the main drawback, and the UN Trusteeship Committee does not consider her a sovereign state. The Arab League has long recognized Imam Ghalib as the rightful ruler of Oman, and he reasserted his claim in April 1971. In addition, the Yemen P.D.R., which supports the P.F.L.O.A.G., has said it will oppose the membership of Sultan Qabus's government because of its relationship with Britain. Britain supplies arms and ammunition to the Oman Government and officers on secondment or contract. In January a new land and air offensive was launched against the rebels in Dhofar by the Omani army.

ECONOMY

Dhofar, in the south, the district around Nizwa and the Batina coastal plain in the north are the principal areas of cultivation. Cereal crops are grown for local consumption, while dates, pomegranates and limes are the chief export crops. Cattle breeding is extensively practised in the fertile province of Dhofar, and the Oman camel, bred in all parts of the country, is highly valued throughout Arabia. One of the most urgent problems facing the country is the shortage of water. If this can be overcome by exploiting and harnessing all available supplies, then there will be great possibilities of further agricultural development throughout the area. The Development Department, set up in 1959 and to which Britain contributes, includes in its programme agriculture, roads, health and education. Agricultural experimental stations have been set up at Nizwa and Sohar where research is being carried out on irrigation and fertilization techniques and on the cultivation under local conditions of improved varieties of wheat, sorghum, fruit, vegetables, pulses and cotton.

There are no local industries of any importance, but oil has been discovered in commercial quantities in Oman. In 1937 the Petroleum Development (Oman) Ltd a subsidiary of the Iraq Petroleum Co., was granted a 75 year oil concession extending over the whole area except the district of Dhofar. A concession covering Dhofar was granted in 1953 to Dhofar Cities Service Petroleum Corporation, it expires in 25 years from the date of commercial production with option to renew for another 25 years.

In 1964 Petroleum Development (Oman) Ltd now a subsidiary of Royal Dutch Shell (with an 85 per cent interest) Compagnie Française des Pétroles (with 10 per cent) and Gulbenkian interests with their traditional 5 per cent announced that drilling had proved sufficient reserves for the company to go into commercial production. The production of oil began in 1967 (2.8 million tons) and expanded to 16.4 million tons in 1969 the route being by a pipeline through the Sumail gap to a headquarters and oil loading terminal at Mina al Fahal a few miles to the west of Muscat town. The principal oilfields in production at present are (going north-east from the Saudi frontier) at Lihail Fahud and Nathi. The German Wintershall company heads a consortium exploring an offshore concession in the Gulf of Oman.

In January 1968 the Sultanate published a booklet explaining how the oil revenues are to be used. By mid 1970 extensive redevelopment of Muscat was in hand electricity supplies piped drinking water, new port facilities and other amenities are to be introduced or greatly extended. Development has however proceeded slowly compared with the other affluent Gulf states, mainly because of the political troubles and the conservative and isolationist attitude of the former government. C N B

STATISTICS

Area: 130 000 square miles (including Dhofar dependency)
Population: Estimated to be about 750 000 Muscat (capital) 6 200 Matrah 14 000

Agriculture: Cereals dates pomegranates limes goats, camels, cattle

Oil: This was discovered in 1964 and exports began in July 1967. The main oilfields are at Fahud, Nathi and Lihail. Output in 1969 increased to more than sixteen million tons, the government receives 50 per cent of the net income plus 12.5 per cent of total oil exports. Prospecting continues both in Oman and off shore.

Currency: A new currency the Rial Saudi was introduced in May 1970. Equivalent to the £ sterling it is divided into 1 000 Baiza and is now the only legal tender in the Sultanate. The Indian Rupee formerly circulated on the coast and the Maria Theresa dollar (Thaler) in the interior.

Budget: Revenues depend almost entirely on oil royalties and other payments by oil companies, in 1969 these were estimated at over £30 million.

External Trade: Exports are virtually confined to oil shipments, no total import statistics are available but imports from Britain the principal supplier amounted to £2 313 000 in 1967, £2 718 000 in 1968 and £5 280 000 in 1969.

THE GOVERNMENT

Sultan, QABUS bin SAID

Prime Minister and Minister of Foreign Affairs: SAYID TARIK bin TAIMUR

Minister of the Interior: BADR bin SAUD BUSAIDI

Minister of Justice: MUHAMMAD bin AHMAD

Minister of Health: Dr. ASSIM JAMALI

Minister of Education: Sheikh SAUD bin ALI al KHALIL

Minister of Defence: Col. H. R. D. OLDMAN

Minister of Development and Welfare: MICHAEL BAILEY

Minister of Information and Social Affairs: ABDULLAH TAI

Minister of Economics: SAYID FAISAL bin ALI bin FAISAL

British Consul-General: D. G. CRAWFORD

Indian Consul-General: Shri G. A. POPPEN

United States Consul-General: LEE DYNMORE (resident in Dhahran)

The Sultanate maintains a Consulate in London at 7 Albert Court, Kensington, S.W. 7

JUDICIARY AND RELIGION

Legal System: Jurisdiction is exercised by the Sharia Courts applying Islamic Law. Local courts are officered by *Qadis* appointed by the Sultan. The Chief Court is at Muscat. Appeals from the Chief Court lie to the Sultan.

Religion: The majority of the population are Ibadhi Muslims, about a quarter are Sunni Muslims.

RADIO

Radio Oman: Muscat, f 1970

The British Broadcasting Corporation has built a powerful new medium wave relay station on the island of Masirah off the Oman coast. It is used to expand and improve the reception of the BBC's Arabic, Farsi and Urdu services.

FINANCE

BANKING

British Bank of the Middle East: London, f 1889 Muscat, branches in Matrah and Mina al Fahal. Man. P. F. H. MASON

Eastern Bank Ltd.: London, Muscat, Man. J. N. SCANLON

National and Grindlays Bank: London, Muscat, Man. J. D. HARDMAN

INSURANCE

Gray, Mackenzie and Co. Ltd.: Muscat, representatives of several British insurance companies.

OIL

Petroleum Development (Oman): Muscat; f. 1956; since 1967 85 per cent owned by Shell, 10 per cent by Compagnie Française de Pétroles and 5 per cent by Gulbenkian interests; exports oil from the Fahud, Yibal and Natih oilfields via a pipeline to a terminal at Mina al Fahal, near Muscat; production (1969) 16.4 million metric tons.

Wintershall Petroleum: Muscat; holds offshore exploration concession in the Gulf of Oman; drilling since 1968; Wintershall heads consortium with 59 per cent, Shell 24 per cent, Deutsche Schachtbau 10 per cent, and Partex 7 per cent.

TRANSPORT

Pack animals, especially camels, remain the favoured means of transport for most of the population, but the number of motor vehicles is rapidly increasing.

ROADS

On the coastal plain there is a graded motor road from Muscat north-west to Sohar and thence inland through the mountains to Sharjah (260 miles). The Oil Company and the Development Department also maintain several graded motor roads in the interior linking Muscat with the Sharqiyah to the south-east, with Nizwa to the west, and with Ibri and Buraimi to the north-west, covering approximately 500 miles. The coast road has been improved as far north as Sohar.

SHIPPING

Muscat is the largest port with a good natural harbour. It is the port of call on the Basra-Bombay mail route; about 200 ships call each year. The British India Steam Navigation Co. runs a fortnightly cargo mail service from Basra to Bombay, calling at all main ports in the Gulf, including Muscat, which is also served by cargo steamers of the Holland Persian Gulf Lines.

Other ports, for small craft only, are Matrah, Murbat, Sohar, Kaburah and Sur.

CIVIL AVIATION

There are two landing fields (Bait-al-Falaj and Azaibah) near Muscat, and Gulf Aviation Co. Ltd. operates a thrice-weekly passenger service to Bahrain, Dubai, Abu Dhabi and Doha. Use of the airfield by unscheduled aircraft is subject to at least seventy-two hours' notice and the permission of the Oman Government.

There are military airfields at Salala and Masira Island in the south and the Oil Company operates flights from airfields in the interior. Permission is also required to use any of these.

Gulf Aviation Co. Ltd.: Head Office: Bahrain; Muscat: Gray, MacKenzie & Co. Ltd.

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Saudi Arabia

GEOGRAPHY*

The Arabian Peninsula is bounded on the east by the Persian Gulf and Gulf of Oman, on the south by the Indian Ocean and on the west by the Red Sea. To the north are the deserts of Jordan and Iraq. The territory covers more than one million square miles of which Saudi Arabia occupies over eight hundred thousand square miles. Arabia is a vast tilted platform of ancient rocks with its highest part at the extreme west along the Red Sea and sloping gradually down to the east. Thus the Red Sea coast is often bold and mountainous whereas the Persian Gulf coast is flat and low lying, being fringed with extensive coral reefs which make it difficult to approach the shore in many places.

The central area of the country is called the Najd, the homeland of the Wahhabi Sect which now rules the whole of Saudi Arabia. The Nefud in the north has some wells and even a slight rainfall so life is possible for a few cultivators and nomads. To the south of the Najd lies the Rub' al Khali or Empty Quarter, a rainless, unrelieved wilderness of shifting sand.

Winds are dry and almost all the land is arid. In the north there is a rainfall of four to eight inches annually, further south, except near the coast, even this fails. The summer is overwhelmingly hot with maxima of over 120°F, whilst in winter there can be general severe frost. The coasts of the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf are notorious for their humidity.

Over much of Saudi Arabia life is dependent on oases. Many wells are used solely by nomads for watering their animals but in some parts, more especially towards the south, there is some cultivation such as the large oases of the Hijaz, including Medina and Mecca. However, a major change in the economy has taken place following the exploitation of oil and there has long been the revenue from the pilgrims to Mecca.

It is possible to delimit two ethnic zones of Saudi Arabia, a northern, central and western area geographically arid and in isolation with a relatively unmixed racial composition, and the coastlands of the south-west and east showing a mixed population. Arabic is the only language of Arabia.

HISTORY*

The history of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia may be said to have begun on January 8th 1926, when Ibn Sa'ud long ruler of the interior of the Arabian Peninsula, proclaimed himself King of the Hijaz in Jeddah. His new status was recognised by Britain in the Treaty of Jeddah of 1927, while Ibn Sa'ud in his turn acknowledged his rival Hussein's sons, Abdallah and Faisal, as rulers of Transjordan and Iraq and also the special status of the British-protected sheikhdoms along the Persian Gulf coast. The northern frontier of his domains had previously been established by the Hadda and Bahra agreements of November 1925, which set the Mandate boundaries as the limit of his expansion, while the border war with Yemen was, after protracted negotiations and a brief war, settled in 1934. (For a fuller account of this, see the Yemen Arab Republic chapter, History.)

During the years that followed, the new king continued to be absorbed in his primary task, of unifying and developing his country. The colonisation policy begun in 1910 was pursued vigorously, land settlements were established and Bedouin unruliness was suppressed. A start was made at the modernisation of communications, and the need for economic development along modern lines was emphasised by the falling-off in the pilgrimage during the early 'thirties. The serious crisis that this produced might indeed never have been averted had it not been for the discovery of oil in Bahrain in 1932 and the subsequent extension of prospecting to the mainland.

Saudi Arabia's chief sufferings during the war were economic, though there was an Italian air raid on Dhahran (and also on Bahrain) in October 1940. The pilgrimage traffic dropped away almost to extinction, and in April 1943 it was found necessary to include Saudi Arabia in the benefits of Lease-Lend. Up to September 1946 \$17,500,000

had been received and in August of that year there was a further \$10,000,000 from the Export-Import Bank. Two years later, however, as a protest against American policy over Palestine, an American loan of \$15,000,000 was turned down. But by this time the oil industry alone was enough to establish the Saudi Arabian economy firmly on its feet.

In January 1944 the California Arabian Standard Oil Company, owned jointly by the Standard Oil Company of California and the Texas Company, was re-formed as the Arabian American Oil Company. This was reconstructed once more in December 1948 to include the Standard Oil Company of New Jersey and Socony Vacuum—a move that brought protests from the French Government. Under an agreement of 1928 shareholders in the Iraq Petroleum Company, who included the latter two American companies as well as French and British interests, had agreed not to secure rival concessions within an area including the Arabian peninsula. A settlement was finally reached at the end of 1948 by which this so-called "Red Line" clause was abandoned. Meanwhile production had been mounting steadily as new fields were developed, a refinery was opened at Ras Tanura in October 1945, and two years later work was started on a pipeline to connect the Arabian fields with the Mediterranean. In spite of a year's suspension owing to events in Palestine, the task was completed before the end of 1950, and oil first reached the Lebanese port of Sidon on December 2nd of that year. In the same month a new "fifty-fifty" agreement was signed with the Arabian American Oil Company which was to set an interesting example to other foreign oil interests in December 1951. In 1955 Saudi Arabia was involved in a

* For a more detailed geography and the early history of Arabia, see Part I The Arabian Peninsula.

dispute with Aramco over her decision to grant oil transportation concessions to the Greek shipowner Aristotle Onassis. In 1956 a government-owned National Oil Company was formed to exploit areas not covered by the Aramco concession.

Saudi Arabia was an original member of the Arab League formed in 1945, and to begin with played a loyal and comparatively inconspicuous part. Ibn Sa'ud sent a small force to join the fighting against Israel in the summer of 1948. When the solidarity of the League began to show signs of cracking, it was natural that he should side with Egypt and Syria rather than with his old dynastic enemies, the rulers of Iraq and Jordan. In course of time, however, he began to turn once more to internal development, and to forget his political quarrel with the United States in his need for economic advice and aid. The \$15,000,000 Export-Import Bank loan was finally taken up in August 1950; in January 1951 a Point Four Agreement was signed, and in June a Mutual Assistance Pact. But the real basis of development was the revenue from the ever-expanding oil industry. This was sufficient to justify the announcement in July 1949 of a \$270,000,000 Four-Year Plan, in which an ambitious programme of railway development was the main item. A railway now links the oilfields in the east with Riyadh in the centre, and extends to the port of Dammam. For the rest the King's policy was one of cautious modernisation at home, and the enhancement of Saudi Arabian prestige and influence in the Middle East and in world affairs generally.

AFTER IBN SA'UD

On November 9th, 1953, King Ibn Sa'ud died at the age of 71, and was succeeded peacefully by the Crown Prince, Saud. It was assumed that there would be no major changes, but the policy already adopted of strengthening the governmental machine and of relying less on one-man rule was continued by the formation of new ministries and of a regular cabinet. In March 1958 King Saud conferred upon his brother, the Emir Faisal, full powers over the foreign, internal and economic affairs of Saudi Arabia, with the professed aim of strengthening the machinery of government and centralising responsibilities. In December 1960, however, the Emir Faisal resigned, and the King took over the office of Prime Minister himself. In the following month a High Planning Council, with a team of international experts, was set up to survey the country's resources, and thereafter there has been slow but steady progress in the modernisation of the country.

Throughout his reign the King had seen his rôle as that of a mediator between the conflicting national and foreign interest in the Arab Middle East. He refused to join either the United Arab Republic or the rival Arab Federation. Relations with Egypt ranged from the mutual defence pacts between Egypt, Syria and Saudi Arabia in October 1955 (to which Yemen and Jordan adhered the following year), to the open quarrel in March 1958 over an alleged plot to assassinate President Nasser. Subsequently, relations improved, and the King visited Cairo in September 1959. Contacts with the United States have always been close, owing to the extensive American oil interests. In 1957 King Saud visited America, and in 1959 he made an extensive tour of Europe. The Saudi Arabian Government also played a leading rôle in bringing the Arab governments together after Egypt's nationalisation of the Suez Canal in July 1956, and the Israel, British and French military action in the Sinai peninsula in November. In 1961 Saudi Arabia supported the Syrians in their break with the United Arab Republic, and in general relations with the U.A.R. deteriorated (diplomatic relations were severed in November 1962, shortly before they were resumed with

the United Kingdom). By 1964, however, (in spite of the tensions over the Yemen revolution) there were signs of improved relations. King Saud attended the Cairo conference on the Jordan waters dispute in January, and in March, after a meeting in Riyadh, diplomatic relations with the United Arab Republic were resumed. In September Prince Faisal attended the Arab Summit Conference in Alexandria, and afterwards had talks with President Nasser on the Yemen situation.

THE REIGN OF KING FAISAL

Meanwhile, in March 1964 King Saud had relinquished all real power over the affairs of the country to his brother, Crown Prince Faisal, who had again acted as Prime Minister intermittently during 1962, and continuously since the middle of 1963. The rule of Prince Faisal was expected to result in many concessions to "westernisation" such as more cinemas and television, with more profound social and economic reforms to follow. The division of the country into provinces, each with a thirty-man council, was under study early in 1964. The change of power, by which King Saud retired as active monarch, was supported in a statement by the *ulema* council of religious leaders "in the light of developments, the King's condition of health, and his inability to attend to state affairs". In November 1964 Saud was formally deposed, and Faisal became King, as well as head of the Council of Ministers with the exclusive power of appointing and dismissing Ministers. His younger brother Khalid was appointed Crown Prince. On August 24th, 1965, King Faisal confirmed his stature as an important Arab leader, when he concluded an agreement at Jeddah with President Nasser of the U.A.R. on a Peace Plan for the Yemen. King Saud went into exile, living principally in Athens, where he died in February 1969.

Although the Yemen problem remained unsolved, there was evidence of Saudi Arabia's genuine anxiety that a solution should be found, even though in April 1966 the construction of a military airfield near the frontier brought protests from the Yemeni Republican Government and the U.A.R. Representatives of Saudi Arabia and the U.A.R. met in Kuwait in August 1966 in an attempt to implement the Jeddah agreement. But relations with both the U.A.R. and the Arab League continued to be tense, and no progress was evident. Matters were not improved by the appearance in Cairo of ex-King Saud, with a public declaration of his support for U.A.R. policy in Yemen.

During 1966 King Faisal undertook an extensive series of visits abroad, including Iran, Jordan, Sudan, Pakistan, Syria, the United States, Turkey, Morocco, Guinea, Mali, and Tunisia. A trade and financial agreement with Morocco was the chief concrete result of these tours. In May 1967 he paid a state visit to the United Kingdom, and discussed the South Arabian situation with British ministers. Saudi Arabian troops moved into Jordanian territory at the beginning of June, and collaborated with Jordanian and Iraqi forces in hostilities against Israel. At a summit conference of Arab leaders held in Khartoum at the end of August 1967 Saudi Arabia agreed to put up £50 million of a total £135 million fund to assist Jordan and the U.A.R. in restoring their economic strength after the hostilities with Israel. At the same time an agreement was concluded with President Nasser on the withdrawal of U.A.R. and Saudi military support for the warring parties in the Yemen. By way of recompense for these concessions the Saudi Arabian Government persuaded the other Arab states that it was in their best interests to resume production of oil, shipments of which to western countries had been suspended for political reasons after the war with Israel.

EVENTS SINCE THE 1967 WAR

Though outwardly calm the internal political situation was apparently disturbed by abortive coups in June and September 1969. Plans for both are presumed to have been discovered in advance the only visible evidence of the attempts being the arrests of numbers of army and air force officers. A flight of private capital abroad was also reported. Some observers drew parallels with developments in Libya. In the Yemen the Royalist cause which the Saudi Government had strongly supported appeared to be within sight of victory early in 1968 but by mid 1969 its remaining adherents had largely been driven into exile and the civil war seemed to have come to an end although further hostilities were reported during the 1969-70 winter. Dissension amongst the Royalists which led to the withdrawal of Saudi assistance was a principal factor in this decline. Discussions between Sana'a representatives and Saudi officials took place at Jeddah in March 1970 and the Yemen Republic was officially recognized in July. Relations with Southern Yemen deteriorated however and an extensive battle on the disputed frontier took place in December 1969 with Saudi Arabia apparently winning easily owing mainly to its superior air power. Since then the Aden Government has accused Saudi Arabia of backing the mercenaries of the National Deliverance Army.

The important relationship with Iran under some strain at the beginning of 1968 over the Bahrain question improved greatly later in the year. In October the two

countries signed a treaty which at last delineated their offshore boundaries. In November the Shah paid a state visit to Saudi Arabia the occasion which included a pilgrimage was acclaimed as symbolic of Muslim unity. The Saudi Government has taken a favourable view of the proposed Gulf Federation and has given financial assistance for the road linking the Trucial sheikhdoms. Together with Kuwait the government has made strenuous efforts during 1971 to break the deadlock on negotiations for the Federation.

As principal guardian of Muslim interests Saudi Arabia was particularly concerned by the fire at the Al Aqsa mosque in Jerusalem in August 1969 and hence it was the leading instigator of the Islamic summit conference held to condemn Israel in Rabat the following month. Relations with other Muslim countries were strengthened by King Faisal's state visits to Afghanistan, Algeria, Indonesia and Malaysia in June 1970 but the closure of the Tapline pipeline in May and Syria's refusal to allow repairs to be carried out strained relations with some of Saudi Arabia's neighbours. After Tapline had agreed to increased transit fees the Syrian Government allowed repairs to be carried out and the oil flow resumed in January 1971.

Despite the great improvement in communications, welfare services and the standard of living in general over recent years Saudi Arabia remains the most traditional and conservative of the Arab countries: the ancient restrictions on smoking alcohol, dress etc. are still very largely observed as are the Muslim calendar and religious festivals.

L P E S

ECONOMIC SURVEY**AREA AND POPULATION**

The area of Saudi Arabia has been estimated at some 850,000 square miles but the borders have not all been defined and therefore no precise figure can be arrived at. A census of the entire population is difficult because of the Bedouin shifts from one area of the country to another and it is estimated that more than 50 per cent of the population is Bedouin, about 25 per cent urban dwellers and the rest settled cultivators. A census was carried out in 1964 and the total population is given in official publications e.g. the IMF's monthly bulletin at 7 million for 1968 but it may be that this is something of an exaggeration. Figures have been published of the populations of the chief towns at the time of the 1964 census: namely Riyadh 169,000, Mecca 159,000, Jeddah 148,000, Medina 72,000, Taif 54,000 etc. These populations have increased considerably since 1964.

AGRICULTURE

Agriculture is practised over a comparatively small area of the country. The principal crops cultivated on irrigated soil are wheat, lucerne, millet and maize while fruits of many varieties, particularly dates, grow in abundance in the oases. Sheep and goats are bred extensively both for meat supplies and for wool. Camels also are bred and provide the chief means of transport for the Bedouins. The government is pursuing a policy of distributing land for settlement to Saudi citizens.

Agricultural developments in Saudi Arabia are principally concerned with the exploitation of lands hitherto unused owing to inadequate water supplies. In recent years a survey of potential underground water deposits has been undertaken and the Ministry of Agriculture is working on a drilling and irrigation scheme. A number of regional

agricultural centres equipped with up-to-date machinery have been established which give technical instruction and practical assistance to all farmers in the area. One of the major projects undertaken by the government has been the construction of the Jazan Dam. The dam was opened in March 1971, has a capacity of 71 million cubic metres and cost about \$8 million.

OIL

The most important industry in Saudi Arabia is the production of crude oil and petroleum products and the country now produces more oil than any other country in the Middle East except Iran, being the sixth largest producer in the world. Intensive efforts have recently been made to increase the scope and diversity of industrial activity by prospecting and eventually putting to use other mineral resources in the country. However, Saudi Arabia will continue to depend on oil as the prime source of income for many years to come.

The existence of rich oil deposits in the country had been suspected for a number of years and after 1923 King Ibn Saud received an annual payment from British oil interests in return for exclusive exploration rights. These rights were later revoked and in 1933, following the discovery of oil on Bahrain Island, the Saudi Arabian concession was granted to an American company, the Standard Oil Company of California. Thereafter Standard of California formed an operating company, California Arabian Standard Oil Company, whose name was changed early in 1944 to the Arabian American Oil Company (Aramco). In 1936 the Texas company (Texaco Inc.) acquired a half interest in the concession and in 1948 financial agreements were completed as a result of which the Standard Oil Company (New Jersey) and Socony Vacuum Oil Company (now

Mobil) were included also as owners in the concession. The capital of Aramco is accordingly held as follows: 30 per cent by the Standard Oil Company of California, 30 per cent by Texaco, 30 per cent by the Standard Oil Company of New Jersey and 10 per cent by Mobil.

The operating company began exploring for oil in 1933 and drilling in 1935. It discovered oil in commercial quantities in 1938. The first shipments of oil were made by barge to Bahrain in that year, and the first tanker was loaded in the following year. The Second World War seriously curtailed the expansion plans, but by its end the company had discovered four oil fields and had the necessary facilities, including a large refinery, to meet post-war demands for crude oil and refined products.

A new agreement, concluded in December 1950 between the government and Aramco, provided that the company would pay an income tax which, when added to royalties and all other sums paid to the government, would equal 50 per cent of its net income. Aramco's executive administration was transferred from New York City to Dhahran, Saudi Arabia, in 1952. In March 1963 the company agreed to pay \$100 million in back dues, and to return 64 per cent of its concession area, in settlement of long-standing disputes with the Saudi Arabian government. At the end of 1969, Aramco's proved resources of crude oil were estimated to be 86 billion barrels*. Its current production comes from twelve major oilfields. In order of the amount of their production in 1968, these were Ghawar, Abqaiq, Safaniya, Abu Hadriya, Abu Sa'fah, Qatif, Fadhili, Manifa, Khursaniyah, Dammam, Berri and Khurais. Of these the three first-named are by far the most important. During 1968, the Ghawar field, one of the world's largest reservoirs, had an average production of about 1,520,000 barrels a day. The completion in 1957 of a 22-inch pipeline for the 137 miles from Safaniya to Ras Tanura made it possible to bring the offshore field at Safaniya into production. Three further offshore fields were found in 1967. Production in 1968 from the Abqaiq field was at the rate of about 535,000 barrels a day, and from Safaniya 408,000 barrels a day. Figures for production by fields are not available for 1969 and 1970, but total production in 1970 was 1,295 million barrels, an 18.5 per cent increase on the 1,092 million barrels in 1969. Aramco's payments to the government increased by 28.3 per cent to \$1,150 million in 1970 from \$895 million in 1969. Production has increased steadily every year since 1956, in spite of an interruption of exports for several weeks after the Arab-Israeli war in the summer of 1967. The Ras Tanura refinery on the Gulf, which was completed in 1945, processed 156 million barrels of crude oil in 1969, including 13 million barrels of liquefied petroleum gas, mainly for export.

A 30/31-inch pipeline system, 1,068 miles long, runs from Aramco's oil fields to the Mediterranean port of Sidon, Lebanon. Of this total, the western 754 miles are operated by the affiliated Trans-Arabian Pipe Line Company (Tapline), the capital of which is held by the same companies as Aramco and in the same proportions, and the rest by Aramco. The system cost more than \$200,000,000 to build and was opened in 1950. By 1956 it had an annual capacity of 15 million tons. In 1957 and 1958 Aramco and Tapline spent more than \$19 million to increase the capacity of the pipeline by 25 per cent to an average of 470,000 barrels per day. Much of the expenditure was for the purchase of six auxiliary pumping units, the first of which started operating at Wari'ah in January 1957. Tapline also constructed a pumping station at Qaryatayn, in Jordan, some 85 miles from the Saudi Arabian border. Sidon's oil loading facilities include offshore loading lines and are capable of handling tankers up to 100,000 tons. In

1968 the volume of oil transported was 23,527,000 tons. The pipeline was sabotaged in Syria in March 1969 and was out of action until September of that year; there were two further short interruptions in October and November owing to acts of sabotage in the Lebanon. As a result, the volume of oil transported by the pipeline in 1969 fell to 16,768,000 tons. The pipeline was again out of action between May 1970 and January 1971, due to an accident which took place in Syria.

Aramco has put into operation an extensive programme for the utilisation of natural gas produced with crude petroleum. In March 1954 a gas injection plant went into operation in Abqaiq field. This was intended to conserve the natural gas produced and to increase the rate of oil recovery by returning to the oil reservoir 150 million cubic feet per day. The capacity of this plant was increased in 1958 to 205 million cubic feet per day. There is also a long-range programme for conserving the natural gas produced in association with crude oil from the Ghawar field. A gas-injection plant to compress the gas and to inject 200 million cubic feet a day into the 'Ain Dar area of the field was constructed in 1958. During 1968, 304 million cubic feet of gas a day was on the average injected into the Abqaiq field and the 'Ain Dar area of the Ghawar field and more than a trillion cubic feet of gas has been injected since 1954. Most of the available gas produced from the Dammam and the Qatif fields is being used for industrial purposes.

The area of Aramco's original concession was about 673,000 square miles. The company has, however, agreed to relinquish progressively parts of its concession areas. In 1968 the company relinquished some 20,000 square miles, and by 1970 the extent of its concession had been reduced to 105,000 square miles. The company stated in 1969 that progressive relinquishment would, by 1993, reduce its concession to 20,000 square miles.

In addition to Aramco, oil deposits are also being exploited by the Getty Oil Company. In 1949 the Saudi Arabian government granted this corporation a 60-year exclusive concession covering its undivided half interest in the Saudi Arabian-Kuwait Neutral Zone. The American Independent Oil Company (Aminoil, covering Kuwait's undivided half interest) is the operating company and it discovered oil in commercial quantity in 1953 in the Wafra field. Reserves there have been estimated to be 6,500 million barrels. First shipments of oil were made there in 1954. Japanese interests which had obtained concessions from Saudi Arabia and Kuwait in 1957 and 1958 covering an offshore area of the neutral zone of the Persian Gulf, found oil in 1960 which is now being exploited by the Arabian Oil Co. The comparative importance of these concerns can be judged from statistics issued by the Saudi Arabian Monetary Agency in the autumn of 1970. According to these figures, in 1969 Aramco paid \$895 million to the government in tax and royalty; Arabian Oil Co. paid \$37 million, and Aminoil paid \$15 million. The total revenue derived by the government from all three companies in 1969 was \$949 million, including sums paid by companies not yet having any production. In 1969 an independent American survey of the recoverable crude oil reserves of the whole of Saudi Arabia estimated them at 142 billion barrels compared with the above-mentioned figure of 84 billion barrels estimated by Aramco for their own reserves. The figure of 142 billion is larger than the combined reserves of Iran, Iraq and Kuwait.

In 1965 the French state company Auxerap concluded an agreement for offshore exploration in the Red Sea. The agreement provided for the Saudi Arabian state oil organization Petromin to participate in exploitation of any commercial discoveries. In December 1967 two further important agreements were signed. One was between

* 1 barrel = 42 U.S. gallons, 34.9726 Imperial gallons; 1 billion = 1 thousand million.

Petromin and the Italian state oil corporation ENI by which the latter was permitted to explore for oil during a period of six years in some 77 000 square km of the Rub al-Khali in the south east of the country. The other was between Petromin and two American corporations Sinclair Oil Co and Natomas, under which the latter were granted similar rights in the Red Sea area. In both cases the prospecting concerns were to act as contractors for Petromin which retained the legal title to the concessions. Saudi Arabia was a founder member of OPEC the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries and of OAPEC, the Organization of Arab Petroleum Exporting Countries.

OTHER INDUSTRIES

Building has been by far the most important industry after oil in recent years. New towns have been built around the old and the material used is mostly reinforced concrete. The Saudi Cement Company's plant at Jadda, near Hofuf in the Eastern Province began production in late 1961. The plant was the first industrial user of natural gas in Saudi Arabia. Government initiated economic development has assumed sizeable proportions in recent years, and promises to give rise to the creation of new industries and expansion of existing ones in the private sector. The construction of roads, ports, airports, water projects, communication facilities, hospitals, clinics and schools are among other notable projects which share in this extensive development. In addition the government has bought Aramco's bulk plant in Jeddah and is building a refinery to service the markets of the Western Province. Production has started at a \$7 million rolling mill to produce 45 000-60 000 tons of bars and sheet steel annually. In December 1966 a contract was signed with an American firm for the construction of a fertilizer plant at Dammam for the Saudi Arabian Fertilizer Co (SAFICO) at a cost of some \$30 million.

Other industries that have been established include iron foundries, sheet metal working plants, tanneries, ice plants, printing plants, bottled gas plants, power plants, machine shops and date processing and packing factories. Many of these new industries are being developed by Petromin with the object of diversifying the country's economy, and Petromin planned to spend some S.R. 1,500 million (\$333 million) on these projects between 1966 and 1970. In January 1971 it was estimated that 283 factories were operating in Saudi Arabia with total capital of S.R. 663 million.

The importance of mining in the economy has declined considerably in recent years. The gold mine at Mahad Dabab was abandoned in 1954, after being worked by the Saudi Arabian Mining Syndicate for seventeen years. The gold content of the ore was decreasing and no new reserves had been found in sufficient quantities to justify continued operations. The Saudi Arabian government's gold mine at Dhulm has also failed to come up to expectations.

TRANSPORT

The government operates a modern railway system connecting the port of Dammam on the Gulf with Riyadh the capital, some 370 miles inland. Work was proceeding on the rebuilding of the historic Hejaz railway, which ran from Damascus through what is now Jordan to Mecca until the 1967 Palestine war, when all western engineers departed. Discussion on the resumption of work continues but this is hampered by differences in gauge, broad in Saudi Arabia, narrow in Syria and Jordan. The cost was to be borne by the three governments concerned and when completed the railway should greatly assist the pilgrim traffic and have considerable economic value to Saudi Arabia while the Suez Canal remains closed. The

pilgrimage has become an even more important event in recent years as improved transport facilities have swelled the numbers of pilgrims. In February 1970 an estimated 406 000 pilgrims came to Mecca for the principal festival of the Muslim year contributing about \$80 million to the balance of payments. Some 145 000 of them came by air. However, the provision of facilities for the pilgrims has involved the government in considerable expense including the construction of a new airport at Jeddah. The government operates an airline linking all important cities of the Kingdom with regular flights to many foreign countries. An air terminal building at Dhahran airport costing \$5 million was turned over to the Saudi Arabian government in September 1967.

Much has been done in recent years to improve the country's port facilities. Some 820 million riyals was spent at Dammam, for example, on installations opened in 1967, and further work has been done at this important oil port. At Yanbu a further 85 million riyals was spent between 1961 and 1966 and plans are under way to modernize the port of Jeddah, including eight new deep water berths and a pilgrim centre. By March 1970 four new piers were completed. Work is proceeding on a five year highway construction programme which, when completed will link the most important centres of the country with modern hard surface roads. International roads are being planned which will link the country with Qatar and Jordan.

FOREIGN TRADE

Saudi Arabia's exports consist almost entirely of oil, exported by sea from Ras Tanura on the Gulf or by pipeline to Bahrain and to the Mediterranean when Tapline is working. In 1969 49 per cent of Aramco's exports went to Europe, 36 per cent to Asia, 5 per cent to Africa, 4 per cent to South America, 3 per cent to Australia and 3 per cent to North America. The total value of the country's exports in 1968-69 was 8 933 million riyals, compared with 7 852 million riyals in 1967-68 and 5 984 million riyals in 1964-65.

Imports cover a very wide range of foodstuffs and manufactured goods, particularly machinery. In 1969-70 the total value of imports was 3 213 million riyals compared with 2 804 million riyals in 1968-69 and 2,258 million in 1966-67. The United States is by far the most important single source of the country's imports followed by the United Kingdom, Western Germany, Netherlands and Arab League member-states. In recent years Burma and India have been major rice suppliers, wheat has been imported from Canada, the United States and Australia, while drugs have been imported from British and other European sources. High on the list of imports by value are building materials and foodstuffs, textiles, motor vehicles and light machinery.

Internal trade plays a minor part in the economy of Saudi Arabia, the two exceptions to this are the marketing of petroleum products, refined by Aramco, and the sale of foods and livestock raised by farmers and bedouins. A total of 8,797,000 barrels of refined products was distributed by Aramco within the kingdom during 1966, but Aramco's marketing facilities in the eastern, central and northern regions of the country were sold to Petromin with effect from July 1st 1967. Apart from this the country depends on its imports.

FINANCE

The unit of currency is the riyal, subdivided into 20 qursh. Since the devaluation of sterling in November 1967, parity has been 10 8 riyals to the £ sterling and riyals 4 5 to the US \$. A new paper currency was introduced in June 1967, replacing the "Pilgrims Receipts" which had

SAUDI ARABIA—(ECONOMIC SURVEY, STATISTICAL SURVEY)

previously been in circulation. The Saudi Arabian Monetary Agency, established in 1952, is the Central Bank, its total holdings of gold and foreign exchange at the end of September 1970 amounting to 1,812 million riyals, compared with 1,880 million riyals in March 1970, 1,812 million riyals in March 1969 and 1,608 million riyals in March 1968. The latest figure given by the International Monetary Fund's bulletin for the balance of payments relate to 1968, when there was a net surplus on current account amounting to \$199 million. Visible exports in that year exceeded the value of visible imports by \$988 million, but investment income remitted abroad, which includes the profit on the oil shipped overseas by the oil companies, and other current invisible debits and credits, including receipts from the pilgrim traffic, created a net debit of \$789 million.

In 1957 Saudi Arabia became a member of the International Monetary Fund and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development. Most of the country's international financial business is transacted in Jeddah, where, among other places, several foreign banks are represented, but in 1967 the licences of all branches of two Egyptian banks were withdrawn. The largest Saudi com-

mercial bank, the National Commercial Bank, has branches in most of the principal towns. In 1960 Saudi Arabia became a member of the International Development Association. There are no restrictions on the import or export of gold or foreign exchange.

GOVERNMENT REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE

As might have been expected, a very large part of the government's revenue consists of tax and royalty in oil. Thus the budget for the fiscal year 1970-71 provided for a total revenue of 6,380 million riyals. Of this, oil royalties amounted to 1,573 million riyals, or 25 per cent of the total, while income tax, much of it from the oil industry, amounted to 3,963 million riyals, or 62 per cent of the total. Expenditure for the same year of 6,542 million riyals included 925 million riyals for Ministry of Defence and National Guards (14.1 per cent of the total), 2,596 million riyals for Development Projects (39.7 per cent of the total), 646 million riyals for the Ministry of Education and Schools (9.9 per cent of the total), 589 million riyals for the Ministry of the Interior (9 per cent of the total) and 166 million riyals for the Ministry of Health (2.5 per cent of the total).

STATISTICAL SURVEY

AREA AND POPULATION

AREA sq. miles	POPULATION (1964)				
	Total (estimate)	Riyadh (Royal Capital)	Jeddah (Admin. Capital*)	Mecca	Medina
850,000 (approx.)	6,000,000	169,000	148,000	159,000	72,000

* The government moves to Taif for the summer season.

A population census was taken in 1964 but the total figure has not been released. Some estimates put the total population as low as 3.5 million (1967).

SAUDI ARABIA-IRAQ NEUTRAL ZONE

The Najdi (Saudi Arabian) frontier with Iraq was defined in the Treaty of Mohammara in May 1922. Later a Neutral Zone of 7,000 sq. km. was established adjacent to the western tip of the Kuwait frontier. No military or permanent buildings were to be erected in the zone and the nomads of both countries were to have unimpeded access to its pastures and wells. A further agreement concerning the administration of this zone was signed between Iraq and Saudi Arabia in May 1938.

SAUDI ARABIA-KUWAIT NEUTRAL ZONE

A Convention signed at Uqair in December 1922 fixed the Najdi (Saudi Arabian) boundary with Kuwait. The Convention also established a Neutral Zone of 5,770 sq. km. immediately to the south of Kuwait in which Saudi Arabia and Kuwait have since held equal rights. The final agreement on this matter was signed in 1963. Details of oil production in the Zone are given in the Kuwait chapter.

AGRICULTURE AND INDUSTRY

Agriculture (estimates, metric tons): Wheat 15,000, Maize 21,000, Millet and Sorghum 6,000, Barley 13,000, Rice 2,000, Dates 200,000. Other crops include alfalfa, vegetables, coffee and henna.

Livestock: Sheep 3,600,000, Goats 1,900,000, Asses 22,000.

Industry: Building, Date Packing, Cement (574,000 tons in 1969-70), Soap, Sugar, Rugs, Marble, Gypsum, Nails, Soft Drinks, Industrial Gases, Electricity (600 million kWh. in 1969-70).

SAUDI ARABIA—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

OIL

ARAMCO CRUDE OIL PRODUCTION IN
SAUDI ARABIA

YEAR	LONG TONS	YEAR	LONG TONS
1951	39,870,805	1961	68,138,424
1953	53,307,390	1962	73,115,009
1954	40,887,754	1963	79,278,889
1955	46,136,583	1964	84,443,000
1956	46,784,693	1965	99,335,000
1957	47,935,041	1966	117,500,000
1958	48,229,690	1967	129,800,000
1959	49,339,006	1968	140,000,000
1960	61,087,931	1969	147,500,000

OIL REVENUES BY SOURCE

(million U.S. \$)

	ARAMCO	GETTY OIL	ARABIAN OIL Co.	OTHER	TOTAL
1966 . .	745.5	20.6	22.3	1.3	789.7
1967 . .	859.4	17.8	31.8	0.1	909.1
1968 . .	871.3	13.6	34.3	6.9	926.3
1969 . .	895.2	15.2	37.1	1.5	949.0

Aramco revenue for 1970 was US \$1,148 million.

FINANCE

1 Saudi riyal = 20 qursh.

100 riyals = £9 26 sterling = U.S. \$22.23.

BUDGET

(1970-71 estimates—million riyals)

REVENUE		EXPENDITURE	
Oil Royalties	1,573	Private Treasury	173
Income Tax (inc. tax on oil receipts) . .	3,963	Defence and Aviation	925
Customs	292	Ministry of Interior	389
Other Items	552	Foreign Affairs	57
		Education	646
		Agriculture	82
		Health	166
TOTAL	6,380	TOTAL (including others)	6,380

SAUDI ARABIA—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

Currency in Circulation (at end of Muslim year in million
riyals): 1968, 1,392.5; 1969, 1,491.5; 1970, 1,559.7.

Gross National Product (million riyals): 1966-67, 10,117;
1967-68, 11,254; 1968-69, 12,318.

DEVELOPMENT EXPENDITURE (million riyals)

1965-66	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69	1969-70	1970-71
1,402	1,717	2,147	2,570	2,682	2,596

BALANCE OF PAYMENTS (million riyals)

	1967			1968		
	Credit	Debit	Balance	Credit	Debit	Balance
<i>Goods and Services:</i>						
Merchandise	1,516	553	963	1,728	740	988
Freight	—	55	— 55	—	72	— 72
Other transport and insurance	62	—	62	85	—	85
Travel	63	70	— 7	72	77	— 5
Investment income	47	602	—555	50	696	—646
Government n.i.e.	6	103	— 97	6	114	—108
Other Services	—	40	— 40	—	43	— 43
Total	1,694	1,446	248	1,941	1,742	199
<i>Transfer Payments:</i>						
Private	—	194	—194	—	131	—131
Central government	50	35	15	55	140	— 85
Total	50	229	—179	55	271	—216
CURRENT BALANCE			69			— 17
<i>Capital and Monetary Gold:</i>						
<i>Non-Monetary Sector:</i>						
Direct investment	95	—	95	—	16	— 16
Other private short-term	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	—	—	—
Local government	—	—	—	—	—	—
Central government	46	—	46	21	13	8
Total	141	—	141	21	29	— 8
<i>Monetary Sector:</i>						
Commercial bank liabilities	—	15	— 15	—	—	—
Commercial bank assets	—	33	— 33	12	—	12
Central bank assets	—	60	— 60	106	50	56
Total	—	108	—108	118	50	68
CAPITAL BALANCE			33			60
Net Errors and Omissions			—102			— 43

SAUDI ARABIA—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

EXTERNAL TRADE

(million riyals)

	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69	1969-70
Imports	2,058.4	2,288	2,212	2,804	3,213
Exports	6,846.6	7,654	7,853	8,953	n.a.

PRINCIPAL COMMODITIES

(million riyals)

IMPORTS	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69	EXPORTS	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69
Foodstuffs	693	666	894	Crude Oil	6,147.0	6,340.5	7,100
Textiles and Clothing	148	147	154	Refined Oil	976.5	1,039.5	1,260
Machinery, Transport	694	709	880				
Building Materials	305	199	430				
Chemical Products	118	111	159				
Miscellaneous	330	380	287				
TOTAL	2,288	2,212	2,804	TOTAL (inc others)	7,654.9	7,852.7	8,952.9

PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES

(million riyals)

IMPORTS	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69	EXPORTS	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69
USA	498	519	574	Italy	1,002	810	897
United Kingdom	184	146	224	Bahrain	389	471	448
Lebanon	172	199	275	U.S.A.	383	196	325
German Federal Republic	137	180	196	Netherlands	366	452	534
Italy	176	124	132	German Federal Republic	357	360	348
Netherlands	105	106	129	France	338	386	354
Syria	68	72	32	Spain	394	339	558
Bahrain	40	32	34	Lebanon	n.a.	57	65
United Arab Republic	31	10	28	United Kingdom	611	482	563
Kuwait	20	27	42	Japan	1,286	1,639	2,077
Japan	151	173	284	India	124	167	74

PILGRIMAGE TO MECCA

	1385 (1965-66)	1386 (1966-67)	1387 (1967-68)	1388 (1968-69)	1389 (1969-70)
Number of Pilgrims from outside Saudi Arabia	294,118	316,226	318,507	374,784	406,295

Figures for the Muslim year, which usually ended in March during the years given above

COUNTRY OF ORIGIN OF PILGRIMS
(1969-70)

Turkey	56,578	Sudan	20,495	Libya	13,547
Yemen	54,658	Indonesia	n.a.	Kuwait	n.a.
Pakistan	28,535	India	16,057	Morocco	n.a.
Iran	15,132	Syria	22,383	U.A.R.	n.a.
Iraq	24,902	Nigeria	24,185	Malaysia	n.a.

TRANSPORT

Roads (1966): 27,092 cars, 2,463 buses and coaches, 19,703 vans and trucks.

Railways (1966): 52.1 million kilometre tons, 96,000 passengers.

EDUCATION

(1968-69—Boys only)

	SCHOOLS	TEACHERS	PUPILS
Primary	1,318	11,960	253,339
Intermediate and Secondary	259	3,761	57,742
Universities and Higher Colleges	15	410	5,352

In 1968-69 there were 331 girls' schools in which 97,000 girls received primary education and 7,800 received secondary education.

Source: Saudi Arabian Monetary Agency, Riyadh.

THE CONSTITUTION

After Ibn Sa'ud had finally brought the whole of present-day Saudi Arabia under his control in 1925, the territory was made into a dual kingdom.

Six years later, in 1932, the realm was unified by decree and became the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Saudi Arabia as a whole has in practice been developing, in the last six years or so particularly, from monarchical towards ministerial rule. The power of the Cabinet was further increased in May 1958, when several ministries were delegated to the Crown Prince. In December 1960, however, the Crown Prince resigned and King Sa'ud assumed the Prime Ministership. In 1962, Prince Faisal resumed the Prime Ministership. In 1964 King Sa'ud was relieved of his duties and his brother Prince Faisal was proclaimed King.

The organs of local government are the General Municipal Councils, the District Council and the tribal and village councils. A General Municipal Council is established in the towns of Mecca, Medina and Jeddah. Its members are proposed by the inhabitants and must be approved by the King. Functioning concurrently with each General Municipal Council is a General Administration Committee, which investigates ways and means of executing resolutions passed by the Council. There are also elected district councils under the presidency of local chiefs, consisting of his assistant, the principal local officials and other important persons of the district. Every village and tribe has a

council composed of the sheikh, who presides, his legal advisers and two other prominent personages. These councils have power to enforce regulations.

The principal administrative divisions are as follows:

Najd: capital Riyadh. Najd is subdivided as follows:

1. The principality of Riyadh, to which are associated Wadi al-Dawasir, al-Aflaj, al-Hariq, al-Kharj, al-'Aridh, al-Washm and Sudair.
2. The principality of al-Qasim, comprising 'Unaizah, Buraidah, al-Ras and their villages, and al-Mudhanab and its dependencies.
3. The Northern principality (capital Hayil). This includes the tribes of Shammari, 'Anzah, al-Dhafir and Mutair, the Town of Taima in the south and some northerly towns.

Hijaz: capital Mecca. Includes the principalities of Tabuk, al-'Ula, Dhaha, al-Wajh, Amlaj, Yanbu', Medina, Jeddah, al-Lith, al-Qunfundhah, Baljarshi and Tayif.

'Asir: capital Abha. Includes Abha, Qahtan, Shahrani, Rijal Alma', Rijal al-Hajr, Banu Shahr, Mahayil, Bariq and Bisha.

Najran and its villages.

Eastern Province (Al Hasa): capital Dammam. Includes Hofuf, Al-Mubarratz, Qatif, Dhahran, Al-Khobar and Qaryat al-Jubail.

THE GOVERNMENT

HEAD OF STATE

H.M. KING FAISAL IBN ABDUL AZIZ AL SA'UD, G.B.E., K.C.M.G.
(Acceded to the throne November 2nd, 1964)

Crown Prince: KHALID IBN ABDUL AZIZ

COUNCIL OF MINISTERS

(August 1971)

Prime Minister and Foreign Minister: H.M. King FAISAL
IBN ABDUL AZIZ

Deputy Prime Minister: H.H. Prince KHALID IBN ABDUL
AZIZ

Second Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of the Interior:
H.H. Prince FAHD IBN ABDUL AZIZ

Economic and National Economy: H.H. Prince MUSA'ID IBN
ABD AL RAHMAN

Defence and Aviation: H.H. Sultan IBN ABDUL AZIZ

Oil and Mineral Wealth: Sheikh AHMED ZAKI YAMANI

Agriculture and Water: Sheikh HASSAN AL MUSHARI

Pilgrimage Affairs and Endowments: HASSAN KUTBI

Communications: Sheikh MUHAMMAD UMA TAWFIQ

Education: Sheikh HASAN IBN ABDULLA AL ASH SHAYKH

Labour and Social Affairs: Sheikh ABDUL RAHMAN ABA
AL KHAYL

Commerce and Industry: Sheikh ABID SHAYKH

Justice: Sheikh MUHAMMAD AL-HARAKAN

Health: JAMIL AL-HUJAILAN

Special Counsellor to H.M. King Faisal: Dr RASHID
FAROON

Minister of State for Foreign Affairs: Sheikh OMAR AL
SAKRAF

Information: Sheikh IBRAHIM AL-ANGARI

DIPLOMATIC REPRESENTATION

REPRESENTATIVES OF SAUDI ARABIA ABROAD

(A) Ambassador, (M) Minister, (CA) Chargé d'Affaires

Afghanistan: HOMOUD AL ZAID Kabul (A)

Algeria: RYAD AL-KHATEEB Algiers (A)

Argentina: Sheikh FAISAL AL HAJAILAN, Buenos Aires

Austria: Sheikh MUHAMMAD MUHTASIB, Vienna (A)

Belgium: FAUD NAZIR Brussels (A) (also accredited to E E C)

Cameroon: (see Nigeria)

Chad: SALER AL-MADDAH, Fort Lamy (CA)

China, Republic of (Taiwan): (see Japan)

Cyprus: MANSOUR ARIF, Nicosia (M)

Ethiopia: ALI AL-QITALDY, Addis Ababa (CA)

France: Dr MIDHAT SHEIKH ALLARD Paris (A)

Ghana: AHMED AL-MUBAREH Accra (A)

Greece: MUHAMMAD AL KHOGUIR, Athens (A)

Guinea: NASSER GOUTH, Conakry (CA)

India: ANAS BIN YOUSSEF YASSIN, New Delhi (A)

Indonesia: TARA R. AL-DOGAITHER Djakarta (CA)

Iran: Sheikh MUHAMMAD ARAB HASHEM, Teheran (A)

Iraq: Sheikh MUHAMMAD AL SHUBAILI Baghdad (A)

Italy: AHMED ABDUL JABBAR Rome (A)

Japan: AWOJI DAJANI Tokyo (A) (also accredited to Republic
of China and Republic of Korea)

Jordan: AHMED AL KEHAIMY, Amman (A)

Korea, Republic of: (see Japan)

Kuwait: Sheikh ALI ABDALLAH AL-SUGAIR Kuwait (A)

Lebanon: Sheikh MUHAMMAD MANSOUR RUMAH, Beirut
(A)

Libya: ABDUL MOHSIN AL-ZAID Tripoli (A)

Malaysia, Federation of: Sheikh HUSSEIN FATANI Kuala
Lumpur (A)

Mali: (vacant) Bamako (A) (also accredited to Niger)

Mexico: (see U.S.A.)

Morocco: Sheikh FAKHRI AL ARD, Rabat (A)

Niger: (see Mali)

Nigeria: ALI A. SUGAIR, Lagos (A) (also accredited to
Cameroon)

Pakistan: MUHAMMAD AL-MUTLAG, Karachi (A)

Senegal: FARID BASRAWI Dakar (A)

Somalia: ALI AWAD Mogadishu (A)

Spain: Sheikh YOUSSEF AL FOWZAN Madrid (A)

Sudan: Sheikh MUHAMMAD AL-ABRIKAN, Khartoum (A)

Sweden: Sheikh NASSER AL MANQUOR (A) (also accredited to
Norway and Denmark)

Switzerland: Dr MIDHAT SHEIKH ELARD, Berne (A)

Syrian Arab Republic: ABDUL RAHMAN AL HAMIDY,
Damascus (A)

Tunisia: Sheikh ABDUL RAHMAN AL-BASSAM, Tunis (A)

Turkey: SAMIR SHIHABI, Ankara (A)

United Arab Republic (Egypt): Sheikh MUHAMMAD AL
IREZA, Cairo (A)

United Kingdom: Sheikh ABDUL RAHMAN AL HELAISY,
London (A)

U.S.A.: Sheikh IBRAHIM AL SUWAYYIL, Washington (A)
(also accredited to Mexico)

Venezuela: Sheikh FAISAL AL HEGELAN, Caracas (A)

EEC: (see Belgium)

United Nations, (vacant) New York City (Perm Rep)

EMBASSIES AND LEGATIONS IN JEDDAH

(E) Embassy; (L) Legation.

Afghanistan: (E); *Ambassador:* SAYED TAJUDDIN.
Algeria: (E); *Ambassador:* AHMAD YAKON AL GHASSIRI.
Argentina: (E).
Austria: (E); *Ambassador:* FREDERICK MULLER.
China, Republic of: (E); *Ambassador:* TIEN PAO TAI.
Ethiopia: (E); *Ambassador:* JOHANES TSVAI AJZY.
France: (E); *Ambassador:* GEORGE DE BOUTELLIER.
Ghana: (E); *Ambassador:* ARSBUNI BARO.
Greece: (E); *Ambassador:* SOPETROS POVIDIS.
India: (E); *Ambassador:* TROTILLA CATO ABDULLAH.
Indonesia: (E); *Ambassador:* AMINUDDIN AZIZ.
Iran: (E); *Ambassador:* MUHAMMAD QUAWAM.
Iraq: (E); *Ambassador:* SALIM NUAIMI.
Italy: (E); *Ambassador:* LUIGI SABCA.
Japan: (E); *Ambassador:* HIDEJI TAMURA.
Jordan: (E); *Ambassador:* Sheikh MUHAMMAD AMIN SHANQITI.
Kenya: *Ambassador:* JETHETH KIMANZI ILAKO.
Kuwait: (E); *Ambassador:* MIQREN AHMAD AL HAMAD.
Lebanon: (E); *Ambassador:* Dr. ADEL ISMAIL.
Libya: (E); *Ambassador:* HUSSEIN BEL OAN.
Malaysia: (E); *Ambassador:* QAMARUDDIN MUHAMMAD AREF.

Mauritania: (E); *Ambassador:* WILD JADO.
Morocco: (E); *Ambassador:* ALI OSMANI.
Netherlands: (E); *Ambassador:* RENARDEL DE LAVALLETTE.
Nigeria: (E); *Ambassador:* HAJ BELLO MALLABO.
Pakistan: (E); *Ambassador:* (vacant).
Senegal: (E); *Ambassador:* MUSTAFA AHMAD CISSE.
Somalia: (E); *Ambassador:* AHMAD SHEIKH MUHAMMAD ISSA.
Spain: (E).
Sudan: (E); *Ambassador:* BISHRI HAMED JABR AL-DAR.
Sweden: (E); *Ambassador:* A. O. E. JOHNSON.
Switzerland: (E); *Ambassador:* ANDRE DOMINICE.
Syrian Arab Republic: (E); *Ambassador:* MEDHAR BITTAR.
Tunisia: (E); *Ambassador:* MUHAMMAD RUWAISI.
Turkey: (E); *Ambassador:* CILADET QIYASSI.
United Arab Republic: (E); *Ambassador:* ANWAR MUHAMMAD AL SUKKARI.
United Kingdom: (E); *Ambassador:* WILLIAM MORRIS.
U.S.A.: (E); *Ambassador:* NICHOLAS THACHER.
Venezuela: (E); *Ambassador:* Dr. PEDRO LE SCONOLOPO.
Yemen Arab Republic: (E); *Ambassador:* ISMAIL AHMED AL-JARAFI.

Saudi Arabia also has diplomatic relations with: Belgium, Chad, Denmark, Guinea, Jordan, Mali, Mexico, Norway, and the Philippines.

JUDICIAL SYSTEM

Justice throughout the kingdom of Saudi Arabia is administered according to Islamic law by a Chief Judge, who is responsible for the Department of Sharia Affairs. Sentences in the kingdom are given according to the Koran and the Sunna of the Prophet.

The judicial system provides for three grades of court and a Judicial Supervisory Committee:

The Judicial Supervisory Committee. The Committee consists of three members and a president appointed by the King. It supervises all the other courts and is situated at Mecca.

Chief Justice, Mecca: Sheikh ABDULLAH IBN HASSAN.

Courts of Appeal (Courts of Cassation). There are several courts of appeal in Hijaz and Najd, having jurisdiction to hear appeals from the *Mahkamat al-Sharia al-Koubra*.

Mahkamat al-Sharia al-Koubra. The competence of these courts extends to all cases not covered by the above. They are situated in Mecca, Medina and Jeddah. Appeal may be made to the Courts of Cassation.

Mahkamat al-Omour al Mosta'alah. These courts, which are held throughout the country, deal with cases of minor misdemeanours and actions in which the value does not exceed S.R. 30. Other branches of these courts deal exclusively with affairs of the Bedouin tribes with the same competence. The decisions of these courts are final.

RELIGION

Arabia is the centre of the Islamic faith and includes the holy cities of Mecca and Medina. Except in the Eastern Province where a large number of people follow Shi'a rites the majority of the population are of the Sunni faith. The last fifty years have seen the rise of the Wahhabi sect who originated in the eighteenth century but first became unified and influential under their late leader King Ibn Sa'ud. They are now the keepers of the holy places and control the pilgrimage to Mecca.

Mecca Birthplace of the Prophet Muhammad seat of the Great Mosque and Shrine of Ka'ba visited by a million Muslims annually.

Medina Burial place of Muhammad second sacred city of Islam.

Chief Qadi and Grand Mufti (Vacant)

THE PRESS

Since 1964 most newspapers and periodicals have been published by press organizations administered by boards of directors with full autonomous powers in accordance with the provisions of the Press Law. These organizations which took over from small private firms are privately owned by groups of individuals widely experienced in newspaper publishing and administration (see Publishers).

There are also a number of popular periodicals published by the government and by the Arabian American Oil Co and distributed free of charge. The press is subject to no legal restriction affecting freedom of expression or the coverage of news.

DAILIES

al-Bilad King Abdul Aziz St. Jeddah Arabic published by al-Bilad Publishing Corporation Editor ABDULMAJID AL-SHUBUKHII circ 10 000

al-Madina al-Munawara Jeddah P.O.B. 807 f 1937 Arabic published by al-Madina Publishing Organization Editor OSMAN HAFEEZ circ 20 000

al-Nadwah Mecca f 1958 Arabic published by Mecca Press and Information Organization Editor HAMED MUTAWIEZ circ 10 000

Replica P.O.B. 2043 Jeddah English daily newsletter from Saudi newspapers and broadcasting service

al-Riyadh Riyadh Arabic published by Yamamah Press Organization Editor AHMED HOSHAN circ 10 000

al-Ukadh Jeddah circ 3 500

WEEKLIES

Akhbar al-Dhahran (Dhahran News) Dammam f 1958 Editor ABD AL-AZIZ AL ISA circ 1 500

al-Dawa Riyadh Arabic

al-Jazirah P.O.B. 354 Apt 88 Municipality Bldg Safat Riyadh Arabic circ 5 000

al-Khalij al-'Arabi (The Arabian Gulf) Al Khobar f 1958 Editor ABD ALLAH SHUBAT circ 1 200

News from Saudi Arabia Press Dept. Ministry of Information Jeddah f 1961 news bulletin English Editor IZZAT MURTI circ 22 000

News of the Muslim World Mecca English and Arabic published by Muslim World League Editor FUAD SHAKER

Oil Caravan Weekly Aramco Dhahran Arabic published by the Arabian American Oil Co

al-Qasim Riyadh f 1959 Editor ABD ALLAH AL SANE circ 1 000

Quraish Mecca f 1959 Editor AHMED SIBA circ 1 000

al-Raid Jeddah f 1959 Editor ABDUL FATTAH ABU MADDAN circ 2 000

al-Riyadhah Mecca f 1960 for young men Editor MUHAMMAD ABD ALLAH MALIBARI circ 500

Sun and Flame Aramco Dhahran English published by the Arabian American Oil Co

Umm al-Qura Mecca f 1924 Editor ABDUL RAHMAN SHIRANI published by the Government circ 5 000

al-Yamamah Riyadh f 1952 Dir AHMED EL-HOSHAN circ 1 000

al-Yaum (Today) P.O.B. 565 Dammam f 1965 Dir ABDUL AZIZ AL-TURKI

PERIODICALS

al-Manhal 44 Arafat Street, Jeddah f 1937 monthly literary Editor ABDUL QUADROS ANSARI circ 3 000

al-Mujtama P.O.B. 354 Apt 88 Municipality Bldg Safat Riyadh f 1964 Arabic monthly Dir Gen SALEH SALEH

al-Tijarah Jeddah f 1960 monthly for businessmen Editor AHMAD ISA TARKANDI circ 1 300

Hajj (Pilgrim) Mecca f 1947 monthly Islamic Editor MUHAMMAD SAID AL AMOURI published by the Government Ministry of Pilgrimage and Endowments circ 3 000

Rayat al-Islam Riyadh f 1960 monthly religious Editor Sheikh ABD AL LATIF IBRAHIM circ 1 000

PUBLISHERS

al-Bilad Publishing Organization King Abdul Aziz St. Jeddah publishes *al-Bilad* Dir Gen ABDULLAH DABBAGH

Dar al-Yaum Press and Publishing Establishment P.O.B. 565 Dammam publishes *al-Yaum* Dir Gen OMAR ZAWAWI

al-Jazirah for Press Printing and Publishing P.O.B. 354 Riyadh f 1964 28 memos publishes *al-Jazirah* (weekly) and *al-Mujtama* (monthly) Dir Gen SALEH SALEH

al-Madina Publishing Organization P.O.B. 807 Jeddah publishes *al-Madina* al-Munawara Dir-Gen AHMED SALAH JANJOUN

Saudi Publishing House 30-31 Shurbatly Bldg Gabel St P.O.B. 2043 Jeddah books in Arabic and English Man Dir MUHAMMAD SALAHUDDIN

Yamamah Press Organization Riyadh publishes *al-Riyadh* al-Yamamah and *New Eve* Dir Gen AHMED HOSHAN

RADIO AND TELEVISION

RADIO

Saudi Arabian Broadcasting Co.: Ministry of Information, Airport Rd., Jeddah; three stations at Jeddah, Riyadh and Dammam broadcast programmes in Arabic and English; overseas service in Urdu, Indonesian, Persian and Swahili; Dir.-Gen. Sheikh A. F. GHAZAWI.

There are thought to be about a million receivers in the country.

ARAMCO Radio: Dhahran; broadcasts programmes in English for the entertainment of employees of Arabian American Oil Company.

TELEVISION

Saudi Arabian Government Television Service: Information Ministry, Riyadh; stations at Riyadh, Jeddah, Medina, Dammam, and Qassim operate 5 hours daily; major stations and relay points are under construction to serve all principal towns; Dir.-Gen. YOUSSEF DAMAN-HOURI.

ARAMCO-TV: P.O.B. 1359, Dhahran; f. 1957; non-commercial, private company; 12 kW. transmitter at Dhahran, limited range transmitter at Hofuf; Producer S. A. AL-MOZAINI; 4-5 hours a day.

There are about 50,000 TV sets.

FINANCE

BANKING

The Saudi Arabian banking system consists of the Saudi Arabian Monetary Agency as central note-issuing and regulatory body, three national banks, one specialist bank (The Agricultural Credit Bank) and seven foreign banks.

Saudi Arabia had no central monetary authority until 1952. Previous to this, foreign merchant companies (Gellatly Hankey, Netherlands Trading Society) had acted as bankers to the government, with such functions as the issue of currency being the responsibility successively of the General Finance Agency (set up in the late 1920s) and the Ministry of Finance (established 1932).

The rising volume of oil revenues imposed a need for modernization of this system, and in 1952 on American advice the Saudi Arabian Monetary Agency (SAMA) was established in Jeddah, SAMA complies with a Muslim law prohibiting the charging of interest. Instead, its services are paid for by a commission charged on all transactions. SAMA's functions include: bankers to the government, stabilization of the value of the currency; administration of monetary reserves; issue of coin and notes; and regulation of banking.

Since 1959 all banks have been obliged to hold with SAMA a sum equivalent to 15 per cent of their deposit liabilities which was reduced to 10 per cent in 1962. Under SAMA's guidance specialist banks have been encouraged; the Agricultural Credit Bank was set up in 1964, and there are plans for an industrial development institution. A new banking control law became effective in 1966. Banks must be organized as limited liability companies, and may not trade for purposes other than banking. A minimum of \$550,000 equivalent is set for paid-up capital; banks' deposit liabilities may not exceed 15 times their paid-up capital and reserves; and all banks must plough back 25 per cent of profits before dividends to build up their reserve funds.

The intention of the 1966 law, besides strengthening the control of SAMA, is to encourage foreign banks to open branches in Saudi Arabia in an atmosphere of financial stability and assured growth potential.

(cap.=capital; p.u.=paid up; dep.=deposits; m.=million; amounts in Saudi Riyals)

CENTRAL BANK

Saudi Arabia Monetary Agency: P.O.B. 394, Airport St., Jeddah; f. 1952; gold, foreign exchange and investments 3,345m. (Dec. 1970); Pres. and Gov. SAYED ANWAR ALI; Vice-Gov. JUNAID A. BA-JUNAID; Controller-Gen. ABDUL WAHAB M. S. SHEIKH; publs. *Statement of Affairs* (bi-weekly), *Annual Report*, *Statistical Summary*.

Agricultural Credit Bank: Jeddah; f. 1964; cap. 31.5m.; Dir.-Gen. IZZAT HUSNI AL-ALI.

Ibrahim I. Zahran Bank: Jeddah.

National Commercial Bank: P.O.B. 104, Jeddah; f. 1938; Partners Sheikh SALEH ABDULLAH MOSA ALKAAKI, Sheikh ABDULAZIZ MUHAMMAD ALKAAKI, Sheikh SALIM AHMED BIN MAHFOOZ (Gen. Man.); brs. throughout Saudi Arabia and in Beirut.

Riyad Bank Ltd.: P.O.B. 1047, Jeddah; f. 1957; cap. p.u. 37.5m.; dep. 222m. (Sept. 1968); Chair. H.E. Sheikh ABDULLA IBN ADWAN; Man. Dir. H.E. Sheikh ABDUL RAHMAN AL-SHEIKH; Gen. Man. J. A. COURT; 12 branches, 2 sub-branches.

Saudi Arabian Agricultural Bank: Jeddah; Chair. Sheikh MUHAMMAD AL-AWADHI.

FOREIGN BANKS

Algemene Bank Nederland, N.V.: Amsterdam; P.O. Box 67, Jeddah; Alkhobar; Dammam.

Arab Bank Ltd.: Amman, Jordan; Jeddah; 6 branches.

Banque de l'Indochine: Paris; Jeddah.

Banque du Liban et d'Outre-Mer S.A.: Beirut, Lebanon; Jeddah.

British Bank of the Middle East: London, E.C.4; Jeddah; Dammam; Alkhobar.

First National City Bank: New York; Riyadh, P.O.B. 833, Al Batha St.; Man. W. L. ROBERTS, Jr.; Jeddah, P.O.B. 490; Man. GARY S. JUDD.

General Bank of the Netherlands: Amsterdam; Jeddah; branches in Dammam and Al Khobar.

National Bank of Pakistan: Karachi; Jeddah; principal foreign branches in London, New York, Hong Kong; Man. Sheikh INAYAT ALI.

INSURANCE COMPANY

Saudi National Insurance Co. Ltd.: P.O.B. 106, Al-Khobar; f. 1958; Pres. HAMAD AHMAD ALGOSAIBI; Gen. Man. A. A. ALGOSAIBI.

TRADE AND INDUSTRY

CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE

Chamber of Commerce and Industries: Jeddah, P.O.B. 1264; f. 1950; Pres. (vacant); Dir. YOUSUF M. BANNAN; publ. *Al-Tijara*.

Chamber of Commerce and Industry: S. G. Saleh Tuimi, P.O.B. 596, Riyadh; Chair. Sheikh ABDUL AZIZ MUQAIREN.

Dammam Chamber of Commerce: P.O.B. 719, Dammam.

Mecca Chamber of Commerce: P.O.B. 2, Mecca.

Medina Chamber of Commerce: P.O.B. 443, Medina.

CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES

Trade unions are prohibited but since 1962 several Co-operative Societies have been formed by workers in particular trades.

OIL

General Petroleum and Mineral Organization (PETROMIN)
Riyadh f 1962 to establish oil and mineral industries and collateral activities in Saudi Arabia Gov Dr **ABDUL HADI TAHEE**

The following projects have been set up by Petromin

Arabian Drilling Co f 1964 shareholding 51 per cent remainder French private capital undertakes contract drilling for oil minerals and water working offshore concessions in Neutral Zone and Red Sea coast areas

Arabian Geophysical Survey Co (ARGAS) f 1966 shareholding 51 per cent remainder provided by *Cie Generale de Geophysique* exploration and discovery of natural resources is setting up a nation wide geodetic survey network

Jeddah Refining Co Jeddah f 1968 shareholding 75 per cent remainder held by Saudi Arabian Refining Co (SARCO) the refinery at Jeddah Japanese built and American staffed has a capacity of 8 000 bbl/day distribution in the Western Province is undertaken by Petromin's Department for Distribution of Oil Products

Petromin Oil Lubricating Co Jeddah f 1968 joint venture with Mobil to set up a blending plant handling 75 000 bbl/year

Saudi Arabian Fertilizer Co (SAFICO) Dammam f 1965 49 per cent shareholding remainder open to public subscription the plant at Dammam has a capacity of about 1 100 tons of urea and 35 tons of sulphur a day construction and management have been undertaken by Occidental Petroleum Co of U.S.A.

Agreements have also been concluded with Jefferson Lake Sulphur Co to set up a sulphur extraction plant at Abqayq in Eastern Province with Richard Costain to build a steel rolling mill in Jeddah using local iron ores (completed Nov 1967) with McDermott Co of U.S.A. for construction of a naval oil installation, and with United Tankers of U.S.A. to set up **Petromin Tankers** with two ships of 100 000 tons capacity each

Petromin has exploration concessions in the Empty Quarter (being operated by the Italian state enterprise AGIP) and along the Red Sea coast (operated by an American Pakistani consortium)

FOREIGN CONCESSIONAIRES

Arabian-American Oil Co (Aramco) Dhahran f 1933 present name 1944 holds the principal working concessions in Saudi Arabia covering 105 000 square miles production (1970) 174.1 million long tons Pres **LISTON F HILLS**

Arabian Oil Co Ltd P.O.B. 335 Riyadh f 1958 holds concession for offshore exploration of Saudi Arabia's half interest in the Kuwait-Saudi Arabia Neutral Zone production (1966) 16 150 000 long tons Chas T **ISHIZAKA** Dr in Saudi Arabia **TAKASHI HAYASHI**

Getty Oil Co P.O.B. 363 Riyadh office in M.N.A. Saudi f 1928 present name 1956 holds concess on for exploitation of Saudi Arabia's half interest in the Saudi Arabia Kuwait Partitioned Neutral Zone both on shore and in territorial waters total Zone production (1970) 8 200 735 long tons Getty's share being half of this Pres **J F GETTY**

REFINERIES

The following refineries are in operation

LOCATION	CAPACITY (bbl/day)
Ras Tanura	255 000
Mina Saud	50 000
Khafji	30 000
Jeddah	8 000
<i>Projected but not built</i>	
Riyadh	15 000

TRANSPORT

RAILWAYS

Saudi Government Railroad Organization Dammam Gen Man **KHALID M ALGOSAIBI**

The Saudi Government Railroad is a single track standard gauge line patterned to the specifications of the Association of American Railroad standard and uses modern diesel locomotive power with a route length of 666 km (377 miles) Actual construction of the line started in September 1946 and completed in October 1951 It connects the Port of Dammam on the Arabian Gulf with Riyadh the capital and was built by Aramco on behalf of the government. There is a daily passenger train in each direction to and from Riyadh a daily freight train is also scheduled as required and certain trains are run daily between intermediate points to serve the needs of individual companies The Organization is an independent entity with a board of directors headed by the Minister of Communications In addition to working the railways the Organization is also responsible for managing the Port of Dammam.

The historic Hedjaz railway running from Damascus to Medina has been the subject of a reconstruction project since 1963 however little progress has been made since the war of June 1967

ROADS

Asphalted roads link Jeddah to Mecca Jeddah to Medina Medina to Yanbu Taif to Mecca Riyadh to al Kharij and Dammam to Hofuf as well as the principal communities and certain outlying points in Aramco's area of operations Work is proceeding on various other roads including one which will link Medina and Riyadh and one from Taif to Jazan in the south near the Yemeni border 19.7 saw completion of the trans-Arabian highway which links Dammam Riyadh Taif Mecca and Jeddah By the end of 1970 some 6 356 km. of modern paved roads were in use ~ 500 km. were under construction and a further 4 950 km were at the planning stage

SHIPPING

The deep-water port of Jeddah is the main port of the kingdom and the port for pilgrims to Mecca An expansion scheme providing for eight new piers for large ships was begun in 1967 and is due to be completed in 1971 Yanbu the port of Medina has been extended and modernized, with new docks storage space and a special Pilgrim centre other ports on the Red Sea are Muwa h Wejh and Rabigh On the Gulf there are the small ports of Alkhobar Qatif and Uqayr suitable only for small local craft and a deep-water port at Ras Tanura built by the Arabian American Oil Co for its own use The deep-water Dammam Port

SAUDI ARABIA—(TRANSPORT, ATOMIC ENERGY, EDUCATION, ETC.)

which was also built by the Arabian American Oil Co. and is operated by the Saudi Government Railroad, lies approximately 12 km. from the coast and is connected to the mainland by a railway causeway. Expansion of the port was completed in 1961 at a cost of over U.S. \$20 million. Further expansion is planned.

Khedivial Steamship Co.: Jeddah; services to the U.A.R.

Saudi Lines: P.O.B. 66, Jeddah; Red Sea and pilgrim services.

Turner and Morris Steamship Co.: Jeddah; pilgrim services to India and Pakistan.

CIVIL AVIATION

Saudi Arabian Airlines: Head Office: SDI Bldg., P.O.B. 620, Jeddah; f. 1945; regular internal services to all major cities of Saudi Arabia; regular international services to London, Frankfurt, Geneva, Beirut, Rabat, Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, Bombay, Karachi, Istanbul, Port Sudan, Khartoum, Cairo, Kuwait, Baghdad, Damascus, Amman, Doha and Asmara; fleet of 24 aircraft, principally Boeing 707, Boeing 720B, Douglas DC-9, DC-6, and Convair 340; Dir.-Gen. Sheikh KAMIL SINDI; Asst. Dir.-Gen. MELVIN L. MILLIGAN; Gen. Man. Technical T. MORGAN; Gen. Man. External Affairs RIDA HAKEEM.

Saudi Arabia is also served by the following foreign airlines: Air France, A.L.I.A., Alitalia, A.U.A., B.O.A.C., C.S.A., Iranair, Iraqi Airways, K.L.M., Lufthansa, M.E.A., P.I.A., Sabena, Sudan Airways, Syrian Arab Airlines and U.A.A.

ATOMIC ENERGY

Saudi Arabia joined the International Atomic Energy Agency in January 1963. Radioisotopes are used in the oil industry and are being introduced into state-controlled agricultural schemes.

EDUCATION

In recent years Saudi Arabia has made important steps forward in education facilities, and there were about 291,483 children receiving primary education by 1967. Development has been stimulated by a five-year plan covering 1959-64. Budgetary grants for education have increased every year by about 15 per cent.

In the academic year 1966-67 there were 1,468 primary schools with 15,114 teachers and 291,483 pupils. Emphasis is laid on practical training and physical education. Primary education covers six years, from the ages of 6 to 12. Many students go straight to three-year intermediate schools of commerce, industry and agriculture, of which there were 111 in 1962, with 272 teachers and 2,644 students. The industrial schools cover a wide range of traditional crafts as well as metal working, car mechanics and electric fitting. The agricultural schools have modern laboratory facilities and testing grounds. Secondary education, covering the ages 15 to 18 (131 schools, 679 teachers, 30,879 pupils) is split up between academic and technical branches. The first foreign language learnt is English, which is usually compulsory in intermediate and secondary schools and is often used as the medium of instruction in higher education. Teacher training has received special attention

from the Ministry of Education and a number of specialized schools have been opened in recent years. It is intended that all primary teachers shall be Saudi nationals by 1970. All schools are segregated, and far fewer girls than boys are receiving education at all levels.

During 1968-69 there were about 4,500 students at university-level establishments in Saudi Arabia, and about 1,900 studying abroad, about half in the U.S.A.. The first university was founded in 1957 in Riyadh, and others have since been established in Medina and Jeddah. There is a considerable emphasis on technical subjects, which extends to several technical institutes of which those in Riyadh and Dhahran are particularly important. Women were first admitted to universities in 1964.

Besides academic education, great importance is attached to industrial, commercial, and agricultural instruction and attention is also given to the teaching of the handicapped. In 1966-67 the number of industrial schools reached 7, embodying 932 students. Progress has also been made in the field of evening schools. These have been instituted in order to make further education available for those who have discontinued their education. During the year 1966-67 there were 37,698 students in 508 schools as compared to 57 schools with 5,270 students in 1957-58.

LEARNED AND SCIENTIFIC SOCIETIES

Arab Archaeological Society: Mecca.

British Council, The: P.O.B. 2701, Riyadh; br. in Jeddah (P.O.B. 393); Rep. K. S. FERGUSON.

Society of Esaff Alkhairia: Mecca; f. 1946; Pres. H.E. Sheikh MUHAMMAD SAROUR AL-SABBAN; Hon. Sec. Sheikh AHMED SIBAI.

American Center: King Abdul Aziz St., Jeddah; f. 1964; library 4,000 vols.

LIBRARIES

Abbas Kattan Library: Mecca; 7,800 vols., 200 MSS.

Arif Hikmat Library: Medina; 1,500 vols., 4,500 MSS.

Dar al Kutub al-Wataniya: Riyadh; run by the Ministry of Education; 14,000 vols., 64 MSS.

Educational Library: General Directorate of Broadcasting, Press and Publications, Jeddah.

Institute of Public Administration Library: P.O.B. 205, Riyadh; f. 1962; specializes in social science publications; 16,000 vols. in Arabic and English; Chief Librarian IBRAHIM ZAID.

Library of Alharam: Mecca; 6,000 vols.

Library of Islamic University: Medina Munawarah; consists of a central library and three college libraries (law, theology and secondary institute); total number of vols. 30,000.

Library of University of Riyadh: Riyadh; 65,000 vols., 253 periodicals; Librarian MOHAMED AL-SOLAI.

Library of Madrasat Ahl Al Hadith: Mecca.

Mahmoudia Library: Medina; 4,500 vols., 500 MSS.

The Saudi Library: Riyadh; 14,800 vols., 200 MSS.

There are also public libraries at Ahsaa, Dammam, Buraida Onaiza, Shakra, Hawdit and Sidair.

SAUDI ARABIA—(UNIVERSITIES INSTITUTES OF HIGHER LEARNING)

UNIVERSITIES

UNIVERSITY OF RIYADH

RIYADH

Founded 1957

King Saud inaugurated the new University in November 1957

Acting Rector Dr ABDEL AZIZ AL KHOWAITER

Secretary General ABDULLAH AL WUHAIBI

Director of Administration Dr ABDULLAH AL QARAWI

Librarian Dr HASAN FARUQI

Number of faculty members 353

Number of students 3 493

Publications *Bulletin of Science* (annual English)

Bulletin of Arts (annual Arabic)

DEANS

Faculty of Arts Dr EZZAT AL NUS

Faculty of Science Dr RIDA OBEID

Faculty of Commerce HUSSEIN AL SAYYID

Faculty of Pharmacy Dr ABDUL GANY HAMZAH SULAI
HAM

Faculty of Agriculture Dr ABDALLAH AL OKAIL

Faculty of Engineering Dr TALIB OBAID

Faculty of Education Dr ABDEL AZIZ AL FADDA

Faculty of Medicine Dr HUSAIN AL GAZAIRY

ISLAMIC UNIVERSITY MEDINA

Founded 1961

Language of Instruction Arabic *State control* Academic
year October to June

Courses in Islamic Studies Arabic Literature *Comparative Study of Religions and English*

Chancellor (vacant)

Vice Chancellor H E Sheikh ABDUL AZIZ BEN ABDULLAH
BEN BAZ

Registrar Professor MUHAMMAD BEN NASIR AL ABOODI

Number of teachers 57

Number of students 1 007

KING ABDUL AZIZ UNIVERSITY

PO BOX 1540 JEDDAH

Telephone 6611

Founded 1967

Languages of instruction on Arabic and English *Academic*
year September to June

Chairman of Constituent Commission H.M. King FAISAL
IBN ABDUL AZIZ

Vice Chairmen H E HASSAN IBN ABDULLAH AL SHEIKH
and H E AHMED SALAH JAMJOUM

Vice President Dr AHMED M. ALI

Secretary-General MOHAMED A. HIRSHI

Librarian Dr M. ADIL USMANI

Number of teachers 24 full time 16 part time

Number of students 440

Library contains 25 000 vols 300 periodicals

DEANS

Faculty of Economics and Administration Dr MOHAMAD
ZOBAIR

Faculty of Arts Dr AHMAD M. ALI (acting)

PROFESSOR

AL JASIM Dr M.A.R. Economics

INSTITUTES OF HIGHER LEARNING

English Language Center POB 865 Riyadh formed by
Ministry of Education in co-operation with US
Information Service Dir A J WADDEL

Higher Institute of Technology Riyadh founded 1962
with the help of the UN Special Fund to train
engineers teachers and technicians also to establish a
technical terminology in Arabic Depts of Civil
Electrical and Mechanical Engineering number of
students 1 000

Higher Juridical Institute Riyadh f 1965 three year
course for Sharia College graduates

Institute of Public Administration POB 205 Riyadh
conducts training courses for government employees
researches into and offers advice on administrative
problems

Jeddah Health Institute Jeddah provides basic medical
training

King Abdul Aziz Military Academy Riyadh f 1955
Courses given in modern languages including English
French and Hebrew science and military subjects

College for the Arabic Language Riyadh f 1955

College of Islamic Jurisprudence Riyadh f 1950

University of Petroleum and Minerals Dhahran f 1964
independent college administratively connected to the
Ministry of Petroleum and Mineral Resources Dean
Dr BAKR ABDULLA BAKR Dir of Library Services
IZZEDDEN ASSAED Dean of Engineering Dr RONALD
SCOTT Dean of Student Affairs ABDULMANNAN
TORJMAN

Madrasat Ahl Al Hadith Mecca f 1933 the College pro-
vides instruction in the Hadith Koran Fiqh Tawheed
and other Islamic religious studies Principal Sheikh
MUHAMMAD ABDUL RAZZAY Sec MUHAMMAD OMAR
ABDULHADI Treas ISHAQ DEHLAWI

Saudi Arabian Institute for Higher Education Mecca f
1962 courses in education engineering English
mathematics and physics 125 students

School of Applied Arts Medina f 1955 approx 300
students

Shari'a College of Islamic Jurisprudence Mecca f 1942
Islamic jurisprudence and theology Arabic English
etc 163 students

Technical Institute Riyadh f 1964 1 000 students

Schools of Industrial Education Riyadh Jeddah Medina
and Dammam

Institutes for Religious Teaching Riyadh Shagra
Buraidah Unaiyah and sixteen other cities and towns
Total number of students approx 5 000 Under the
supervision of the Deputy Grand Mufti of Saudi Arabia

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Spanish North Africa

SPANISH SAHARA CEUTA AND MELILLA

Ifni a Spanish enclave on the coast of south western Morocco since 1860 was formally handed over to Morocco in June 1969

SPANISH SAHARA

A coastal territory south of Morocco

GEOGRAPHY

The Spanish Sahara consists of an arid tract of country, some 100 000 square miles in area, which extends from the southern boundary of Morocco along the Atlantic coast for over 500 miles to the Mauritanian frontier at Cape Blanc. Inland it reaches 300 miles into the Sahara to its eastern frontier with Mauritania. Only about 60 000 people live in the territory, most of whom are nomadic pastoralists of Moorish or mixed Arab-Berber descent with some negro admixture. They are divided into a number of tribes and depend for their existence on herds of camels, sheep and goats which they move seasonally from one pasture to another. The only towns are the capital, al Aюн and Villa Cisneros. The latter stands on a narrow peninsula half enclosing the bay of Río de Oro and its harbour suffers from severe silting.

The relief of most of Spanish Sahara is gentle. The coast is backed by a wide alluvial plain overlain in the south by extensive sand dunes aligned from south west to north-east and extending inland over 150 miles. Behind the coastal plain the land rises gradually to a plateau surface diversified by sandstone ridges that reach 1,000 feet in height. In the north-east, close to the Mauritanian frontier, isolated mountain ranges, such as the Massif de la Guelta, rise to

over 2 000 feet. There are no permanent streams in Spanish Sahara and the only considerable valley is that of the Seguet el Hamra which crosses the northernmost part of the country to reach the coast at al Aюн north of Cape Bojador. The whole of Spanish Sahara experiences an extreme desert climate. Nowhere does mean annual rainfall exceed 4 inches and over most of the territory it is less than 2 inches. In 1964 a vast subterranean fresh water lake was discovered which is thought to extend some 60 miles inland from Villa Cisneros. Vegetation is at present restricted to scattered desert shrubs and occasional patches of coarse grass in most depressions. Along the coast summer heat is tempered by air moving inland after it has been cooled over the waters of the cold Canaries current which flows from north to south off shore.

Spanish Sahara formerly extended in the north as far as the River Draa in southern Morocco but this strip of territory was ceded to Morocco in 1958. Morocco, however, lays claim to the whole country. This claim is based on the fact that Moroccan rule was effective over the whole area in medieval times and the claim has been pressed more strongly since oil prospecting began in Spanish Sahara and subsequently since the phosphate discoveries.

HISTORY

Cape Bojador on the north west coast of Africa is named in a Catalan map of 1375. The Portuguese rounded the Cape in 1434 and two years later discovered an inlet which became known to them as Río de Ouro i.e. in Spanish the Río de Oro. The voyage of 1436 would seem to have been the first occasion when the Portuguese brought back to Europe negro slaves acquired from the Sanhaja Berbers. Thereafter the Portuguese began to penetrate into the interior, establishing a trading post at Wadán not far from Atar, in 1487. Spanish attempts thereafter to colonise the coastal area from the Canaries had little success. It was not until 1884 that Spain occupied Río de Oro itself the site of the future Villa Cisneros, and claimed at the same time a protectorate over the coastal zone from Cape Bojador southward to Cape Blanco. An agreement of June 1900 between France and Spain marked out the frontier between Río de Oro and Mauritania but the border lands in the direction of Morocco remained ill-defined. Two further conventions of 1904 and 1912 dealt with these lands. The southern frontier of Morocco was situated on the Wadi Draa. Beyond the Draa southward as far as latitude 27° 40' N the area known as Tarfaya became the southern zone of the Spanish Protectorate in Morocco. The region of Cape Juby was occupied in 1916, La Güera, in the

extreme south of the Río de Oro, in 1920, and Smara in the interior only in 1934. It was in 1934 that Spain reorganised the territories lying beyond the southern zone of her Protectorate in Morocco—the Spanish Sahara. The region between 27° 40' N and 26° N became known as Sagua al Hamra the main centres being the capital al Aюн and Smara. All the lands south of it constituted the Río de Oro, with its capital at Villa Cisneros.

Between 1934 and 1958 the Spanish Sahara (i.e. Sagua al Hamra and Río de Oro) formed one centralised administration with Tarfaya and Ifni under a military Governor located at Sidi Ifni, the capital of the Ifni enclave. Three delegates represented the Governor in the southern territories and local administration was in the hands of military officials called 'interventores'. On January 14th 1958 it was announced at Madrid that these territories would be formed into two provinces: Ifni and the Spanish Sahara. No mention was made of the Tarfaya region. The two provinces now came under the control of the Director-General of African Provinces at Madrid. Command over all the troops in Ifni and the Spanish Sahara was entrusted to the Captain-General of the Canaries but each province had its own Governor General with headquarters at Sidi Ifni and at al Aюн.

Morocco, which became independent in March 1956, laid claim thereafter to all the Spanish possessions in North-West Africa and also to the Islamic Republic of Mauritania. The existence in the western Sahara of Moroccan irregular forces soon gave rise to serious trouble. These irregular bands, which attacked Ifni in November-December 1957, made raids into Tarfaya, Saguia al-Hamra and Río de Oro and also into the northern areas of Mauritania, finding some support amongst such nomads as the Rikaibat, the most powerful of the tribes in the western Sahara. Actions of some considerable size had to be fought near Villa Cisneros on January 3rd and near al-Aiun on January 12th-13th, 1958. A joint Franco-Spanish campaign was waged against the irregulars in February. A French column from Fort Trinquet in Mauritania and Spanish forces from Villa Bens, the capital of Tarfaya, and from al-Aiun converged on Smara in Saguia al-Hamra. Further south French troops from Fort Gourcaud in Mauritania and Spanish forces from Villa Cisneros drove the irregulars out of Río de Oro. Operations which the French undertook from Fort Trinquet and from Tindouf in Algeria pacified the northern borders of Mauritania. By the beginning of March 1958 the western Sahara had been restored to order.

Spain, in April 1956, had renounced the northern zone of the Protectorate in Morocco assigned to her under the terms of the French-Spanish convention of 1912. And in April 1958, after discussions held at Cintra in Portugal, Spain relinquished to Morocco the southern zone of her Protectorate (also assigned to her in 1912), i.e. the region of Tarfaya. Morocco, since that time, has continued to assert her claim to the territories still under Spanish control in North-West Africa. For instance King Hassan II, during a visit in February 1965 to the province of Agadir in the south of Morocco, met representatives of the tribes located in Río de Oro, who, it was said, then re-affirmed their allegiance to Morocco. At the United Nations in December 1965 the Moroccan delegate expressed the hope that the Moroccan claim to the Spanish Sahara and to Ifni might be settled through amicable negotiation. On December 16th, 1965, the United Nations adopted a resolution calling on Spain to liberate the Spanish Sahara and Ifni, and to enter into negotiations which would decide their future. The situation was rendered more complex by the fact that Mauritania had in October 1964 informed the U.N. Special Committee on Colonization of its desire to initiate direct discussions with Spain over the territories constituting the Spanish Sahara—a demand

which the Ambassador of Mauritania at Washington reiterated in February 1966. A further complication was discernible inside Morocco itself, where some of the political organizations, above all the right-wing Istiqlal, had long maintained that Mauritania itself was an integral part of Morocco. Indeed, the Istiqlal, during the troubles of February 1966 in Mauritania, urged the government of Morocco to intervene on behalf of the Muslims in what it described as "our usurped province".

In September 1967 the Foreign Minister of Morocco went to Madrid in order to discuss the future of the Spanish territories in North Africa. The following December, the United Nations passed a new resolution urging Spain to organize, in consultation with Morocco and Mauritania and under UN auspices, a referendum which would allow the people of Spanish Sahara to determine its future. The Spanish Government accepted the principle of self-determination, but a fundamental difference in approach to the problem became apparent at the meetings in May and June 1970 at Nouakchott and Rabat between the Spanish Foreign Minister and Moroccan leaders. Positions hardened later in the same month after riots at al-Aiun were quelled with loss of life. Accusations of interference and oppression were made by both sides and in July Spain held military exercises along the Spanish Sahara coast. On a visit to the area the Spanish Minister of Housing declared that Spain would never abandon the people of Spanish Sahara. On the other side the leaders of Mauritania, Morocco and Algeria met at Nouadhibou and pledged themselves to co-operate in the decolonization of Spanish Sahara.

In December 1970 the UN Committee on Trusteeship again called for a referendum in the territory, while in Algeria an organization working for Spanish Saharan liberation, "Nidam", claimed responsibility for the June riots at al-Aiun. However, diplomatic relations have been maintained at a high level between the most interested parties. In January and March 1971 the Moroccan and Spanish Foreign Ministers exchanged visits and in March the Mauritanian Foreign Minister visited Madrid. On each occasion great stress was laid on the importance of consultation in the settlement of all outstanding problems, and while agreement was not reached on the Spanish Sahara question, the issue appears to have been defused, as can be seen from agreements in other spheres of mutual interest.

ECONOMICS AND STATISTICS

Spanish Sahara is to a major extent a military territory, and policing operations by the forces stationed there account for a quarter of the province's budgetary expenditure. In 1961 the province received a considerable boost from petroleum exploration when the expenditure of the prospecting companies helped to offset the costs of maintaining the province. However, hopes of valuable petroleum finds have been disappointed and the main new element in the economic life of the area is the introduction of phosphate mining. There is also tourism, though this is at the moment on a very reduced scale—visitors numbered only some 14,815 in 1969.

In the Sahara the land is too poor and the population too small to generate any economic wealth. By 1970 the European population was estimated at 25,000 (the majority being Spanish soldiers), while the number of the indigenous population, most of whom have a nomadic way of life, was put at 50,000, though many more nomads enter the territory during the rainy season. The northern part of

the province parallel to the River Draa on the northern boundary is fairly mountainous, but none of the rivers is of any permanence; most of the territory is desert. Settled agriculture is consequently slight; small quantities of barley and maize are grown, but most of the population is engaged in animal husbandry. In 1969 there were 58,247 camels, 145,408 goats and 18,426 sheep. Live camels and animal skins are sometimes exported to the Canary Islands. From Cabo Bojador down to La Güera, lobsters and other fish are caught by the Canaries fleet and sometimes by the Huelva fleet and by members of the Imeraguen tribe. The tonnage landed fluctuates from year to year, but is usually 4,000 to 5,000 tons. At La Güera, the centre of this activity, there are two fish-processing plants. This is virtually the only industrial activity except for local crafts and a U.S.-financed desalting plant producing flavoured mineral water for local consumption. The production of electricity was 5,118 thousand kWh. in 1969. Communications in the Sahara are limited to 6,300 km. of

SPANISH NORTH AFRICA—SPANISH SAHARA

poor-quality roads and a number of small airports served by the Spanish airline Iberia. In 1969 there were 2 759 cars 250 commercial vehicles and 3 tractors

In 1961 the restrictions on foreign capital investment were modified and the Saharan province experienced a brief boom as a result of the lure of mineral wealth. Nine U.S. and three Spanish firms took up concessions for petroleum prospecting. However by the end of 1963 nearly all of the companies ran down operations and the only ones to remain were Gulf Oil (allied with the Spanish CEPASA), Texaco of Spain Inc. and the State-controlled INI. By 1964 60 per cent of the area of the concessions had been investigated at an approximate cost of 5 000 million pesetas with no favourable results. The discovery of oil in mainland Spain probably precludes any revival of interest in the Spanish Sahara for some time to come. Oil companies were thought to be holding on to the concessions there only to put themselves in a better position to compete for concessions on in mainland Spain. The only mineral sources proved so far are iron situated in the north of the province (the INI who carried out the survey claimed that the deposits are considerable and of 65 per cent iron content) and phosphates commercially workable deposits of which were found in 1963.

The phosphate deposits are now known to be amongst the richest in the world. In March 1967 the development contract was awarded to a consortium led by the International Minerals and Chemical Corporation of America (with a 25 per cent interest). French and German interests took 20 per cent and the Spanish Government the remaining 55 per cent. However early in 1968 the American interests withdrew from the project mainly because Spain insisted on sending the phosphates to a new factory in Spain itself. The Spanish state-controlled company Empresa Nacional Minera del Sahara S.A. (ENMINSA) is now in complete control of the venture and has signed up several subcontractors from other European countries to construct the various facilities required with financial guarantees provided by the Spanish Government. Desert roads have been cut and Spain has built a village for 500 workers at Bu Craa. A conveyor belt will be built to carry ore to the sea and production is scheduled to start in 1972 at the rate of 3 million tons per annum.

It was announced from al Aïun in May 1966 that a commission was to be formed which would prepare a plan for the social and economic development of the Spanish Sahara. The opening up of the phosphate mines at Bu Craa near the Moroccan border will no doubt increase the desire of both Morocco and Mauritania to annex the Spanish Sahara. Morocco is herself an important producer of phosphates and she might expect to suffer commercially from this development.

A potential source of income which has been exploited only on a very small scale as yet, is the tourist trade. In 1969 there were 14 815 visitors to the country and these mostly came on day excursions from the Canary Islands, for the country has little hotel accommodation to offer. Probably the most important economic breakthrough of recent years was the discovery in 1964 of a vast subterranean lake of fresh water thought to extend some 60 miles inland from Villa Cisneros. Rationally tapped this water opens up a number of development possibilities. The fading prospects of oil may encourage attention to the joint development of water and agriculture.

STATISTICS

- Area** 266 000 square km. (approx.) (Río de Oro 184 000 sq km. Sekia el Hamra 82 000 sq km.)
- Population** (1967 census) non Europeans 46 558 Europeans 10 184 (also 15 000 Spanish soldiers) al Aïun 16 319 (capital) Villa Cisneros 5 454 about 50 000 nomads enter Spanish Sahara during the rainy season.
- Agriculture** (1969) 650 palm trees
- Livestock** (1959) 58 247 camels 145 408 goats 18 426 sheep
- Fishing** (1969) Weight 4 271 tons
- Industry** (1969) Production of electric energy 5 118 000 kWh.
- Budget** (1969) Expenditure 250 million pesetas. The territory receives substantial aid from Spain.
- Development** The territory's extensive phosphate deposits are being developed by Spain. 540 million pesetas a year are to be spent on building schools and digging wells and on other development projects.
- External Trade** (1969) Imports (000 pesetas) 387 410 (Foodstuffs 71 327 Manufactures 316 083 Exports are negligible)
- Transport Roads** (1969) 3 457 vehicles **Shipping** (1969) Passengers disembarked 11 229 freight entered 108 423 tons **Civil Aviation** (1969) Passengers entered 47 064 Passengers leaving 47 821 Freight (metric tons) unloaded 13 999 loaded 16 077
- Tourism** (1969) 14 815 tourists
- Education** (1969) 74 Primary Schools 150 teachers 2 649 pupils 776 students in secondary education

THE GOVERNMENT

Spanish Sahara was recognized as a Province in 1958. It is divided into two regions: Sekia el Hamra (82 000 sq km.) and Río de Oro (184 000 sq km.). A **General Assembly** (Pres. SEILA ULU ABREIDA) and a **Cabildo** (local council) are the main representative bodies of the province. The province is represented in the Spanish Cortes by 3 *procuradores*. **Governor General** Gen. FERNANDO DE SANTIAGO. **Director General for Promotion of the Sahara** D. EDUARDO JUNCOS MENDOZA.

- Religion** Muslim. Europeans are nearly all Catholics.
- Mining** Phosphate deposits at Bucraa estimated at 1 700 million tons will be exploited by Empresa Nacional Minera del Sahara S.A. (ENMINSA) a state-controlled company.
- Radio** *Radio Sahara* Apt 7 al Aïun government station Dir. J. SAROERO DIAZ. *Radio Villa Cisneros* Apt 60 Villa Cisneros government station Dir. E. PONCE RAMOS.
- Transport** Airfields at Villa Cisneros (the chief seaport) La Güera and al Aïun with passenger services to Madrid and Las Palmas operated by Iberia. A 3 500 metre loading pier is under construction at al Aïun to handle up to 2 000 tons an hour of phosphates from 1972 onwards. A 60-mile conveyor will bring the phosphate ores from the mines at Bucraa.

CEUTA AND MELILLA

GEOGRAPHY

CEUTA

The ancient port and walled city of Ceuta is situated on a rocky promontory in north-western Morocco overlooking the Strait of Gibraltar. It was retained by Spain as a "plaza de soberanía" when Morocco became independent in 1956 and is administered as part of Cádiz Province. The Portuguese first established a fort at Ceuta in 1415 and it was ceded to Spain by Portugal in 1668. It developed as a military and administrative centre for the former Spanish Protectorate in Morocco and now functions as a bunkering and fishing port. In 1965 its population was 76,098.

MELILLA

Melilla is situated on a small peninsula jutting out into the Mediterranean in north-eastern Morocco. It was retained by Spain as a "plaza de soberanía" when Morocco became independent in 1956 and is administered from Málaga. It was annexed by Spain in 1471 and served as a military stronghold up to the present. In 1965 it had a population of 80,758 and it is an active port which exports over 1 million tons of iron ore annually from mines inland at Kelata, Morocco.

PEÑÓN DE VELEZ, PEÑÓN DE ALHUCEMAS
AND CHAFARINAS

These three rocky islets, situated respectively just west and east of Alhucemas and east of Melilla off the north coast of Morocco, are governed as integral parts of Spain.

HISTORY

Ceuta, Melilla and the island dependencies are known as the Plazas de Soberanía—i.e. *presidios*, or fortified enclaves, over which Spain has full sovereign rights. Children born in these dependencies, whether Christian or Muslim, are Spanish citizens and subjects. Both Ceuta and Melilla have municipal councils (*ayuntamientos*). Since Morocco became independent in 1956, supreme civil power in the *presidios* has rested in the hands of the Governor-General of the Plazas de Soberanía, who is himself responsible to the Directorate-General of African Possessions. In respect of ecclesiastical and judicial affairs Ceuta is integrated with the province of Cádiz, and Melilla with the province of Málaga in Spain.

Morocco, since 1956, has laid claim on a number of occasions to the Spanish possessions in North-West Africa. Spain, indeed, renounced in April 1956 the protectorate in northern Morocco which had been assigned to her under the terms of the Franco-Spanish convention of November 1912. No mention was made, however, of Melilla. Two years later, in April 1958, after discussions held at Cintra in Portugal, Spain handed over the protectorate in southern Morocco (sometimes known as Tarfaya) which had also been allotted to her in 1912. Recent events have made it clear that Spain would be most reluctant to cede Ceuta and Melilla—towns which she has now held for some centuries and which are largely Spanish in population and character. The Moroccan government has drawn a parallel with the situation in Gibraltar and pointed to the apparent inconsistency in the policies of the Spanish government. However, Moroccan attention is now focused on the much more important Saharan territory ruled by Spain.

CEUTA

Ceuta is situated on the African shore opposite Gibraltar, the Straits being here about 16 miles wide. The Portuguese took Ceuta in 1415. On the union of the crowns of Spain and Portugal in 1580 Ceuta passed under Spanish rule and in 1649, when Portugal was separated from Spain, asked

to remain under Spanish control. During the sixteenth, seventeenth and eighteenth centuries Ceuta had to endure a number of sieges at the hands of the Muslims. Ahmad Gailan, a chieftain in northern Morocco, blockaded the town in 1648–55. The Sultan of Morocco, Mulai Ismail (1672–1727), attacked Ceuta in 1674, 1680 and 1694, after which he maintained a blockade against the town until 1720. Ahmad Ali al-Rifi, a chieftain from northern Morocco, made yet another unsuccessful assault in 1732. A pact of friendship and commerce was negotiated between Spain and Morocco at Aranjuez in 1780, a peaceful agreement following in the next year over the boundaries of the Ceuta enclave. There was in 1844–45 a sharp dispute once more about the precise limits of Ceuta. Further disagreement in 1859 led to the war of 1860. Spanish forces, after an engagement at Los Castillejos, seized Tetuán from Morocco. After another battle at Wadi Ras in March 1860 the conflict came to an end. A settlement was now made which enlarged the enclave of Ceuta and obliged Morocco to hand over to Spain 100 million pesetas as war indemnities. In 1874 the town became the seat of the Capitanía General de Africa.

MELILLA

Spain secured control of Melilla in 1496, the town being infeudated thereafter to the ducal house of Medina Sidonia, which was empowered to appoint the governor and esnechal with the approval of the Spanish Crown. The Riff tribesmen attacked Melilla in 1562–64. Later still, the Sultan of Morocco, Mulai Ismail (1672–1727) assaulted the town in 1687, 1696 and 1697. Sultan Muhammad b. Abdallah (1757–90) besieged Melilla in 1771 and 1774. An agreement concluded between Spain and Morocco in 1780 at Aranjuez led, however, in the following year to a peaceful delimitation of the Melilla enclave. There was a brief period of tension in 1844 and then, in 1861, under the terms of an agreement signed at Madrid, after the Spanish-Moroccan campaign of 1860, Melilla received an extension of its boundaries. Trouble with the Riff tribesmen gave

SPANISH NORTH AFRICA—CEUTA

rise in 1893-94 to the so-called "War of Melilla" which ended with a settlement negotiated at Marrakesh. It was not until 1909 that Spanish forces after a hard campaign occupied the mountainous hinterland of Melilla between the Wadi Kert and the Wadi Muluya—a region in which some ten miles behind Melilla are situated the rich iron mines of Beni Bu Ifrur. In July 1921 the Riff tribes under the command of Abd al Krim defeated a Spanish force near Anaul and threatened Melilla itself. Only in 1926 with the final defeat of the Riff rebellion was Spanish control restored over the Melilla region. Melilla was the first Spanish town to rise against the Government of the

Popular Front on July 17th 1936 at the beginning of the Spanish Civil War. Since 1939 both towns have been ruled as integral parts of Spain.

OTHER POSSESSIONS

The Chafarnas Islands lying about 2½ miles off the Cabo de Agua came under Spanish control in 1847. Peñon de Alhucemas is situated some three-quarters of a mile from the coast opposite Ajdir. It was occupied in 1673. Peñon de Vélez de la Gomera about 50 miles farther west came under Spanish rule in 1508, was then lost not long afterwards and reoccupied in 1564.

ECONOMICS

CEUTA AND MELILLA

Ceuta and Melilla both free ports are in fact of little economic importance while the other possessions with a population of 330 mostly fishermen are of negligible significance. The basic reason for Spanish retention of these areas is their overwhelmingly Spanish population. For instance in the Melilla census of 1960 of a total population of 79,056 only 6,300 Muslims and 3,100 Jews were recorded. The 80,000 population of Ceuta is similarly composed. Ceuta's population is reported to have fallen by over 5,000 in the 1964-69 period owing to the lack of economic opportunities in the town. The hinterland of the two cities is small: the total extent of Ceuta is 19 square kilometres and of Melilla 12 square kilometres. Accordingly most of the population's food needs have to be imported with the exception of fish which is obtained locally. Sardines and anchovies are the most important items in an annual catch of about 16,000 tons. Ceuta is the stronger in terms of fish processing and in a census taken in 1955 eight firms produced 1,419 tons of tinned fish. In Melilla the production figure for the same year was 709 tons. The fishing fleet here numbers 70 boats landing an average of 9,000 tons a year. A large proportion of the tinned fish is sold outside Spain. More important to the economies of the cities is the port activity: most of their exports take the form of fuel supplied—at very

competitive rates—to ships. Most of the petroleum fuels come from the Spanish refinery in Tenerife. Ceuta's port is the busiest visited by 9,234 vessels in 1969 but apart from the ferries from Málaga in Spain Melilla's port is not so frequented and its exports are correspondingly low—3.6 million pesetas in 1962. But it figures importantly as an export point for the iron ore mined in the Ujkan mines of the Moroccan Rif. Ceuta on the other hand was able to show exports of 73 million pesetas in the same year. Ceuta exports wood, cork, foodstuffs and beverages. Imports—largely of fuels—were 94 million pesetas to Ceuta and 16 million to Melilla in 1962. Industry is limited to meeting some of the everyday needs of the cities. In both cities less than two per cent of the working population are employed in agriculture. Most of the industry is located in the port area. The total labour force in Ceuta in 1962 numbered 13,080 (construction 2,083; textiles 1,276; fishing 1,384; and commerce 1,768). Unemployment in both towns is about 600-700. Business and port activity are sufficiently high to permit the municipalities budgets which by Spanish standards are high in relation to the numbers of population. In 1964 these were 70 million pesetas for Ceuta and 90 million pesetas for Melilla.

STATISTICS

CEUTA

Area 19 square km.

Population (1963) 76,098

External Trade Ceuta is a duty free port. Trade is chiefly with Spain, the Balearic and Canary Islands and Melilla.

Transport Much of the traffic between Spain and Morocco passes through Ceuta: there are ferry services to Algeciras, Spain.

Education (1970) Primary 205 schools, 6,750 pupils
Secondary 2,206 pupils

Government A Mayor administers the town and he is also a member (under the title *Procurador*) of the Spanish Parliament in Madrid.

Procurador SERAFINO BECERRA

Religion Most Africans are Muslims. Europeans are nearly all Catholics; there are a few Jews.

Radio *Radio Ceuta* Alhau 20. Ceuta commercial owned by Sociedad Española de Radiodifusión.

MELILLA

Area: 12.3 square km.

Population (1965): 80,758 (70,000 Spanish, 7,600 Africans, 1,900 Jews); 1969 estimate: 100,000.

External Trade: Melilla is a duty-free port. Most imports are from Spain but over 90 per cent of exports go to non-Spanish territories. Chief exports: fish and iron ore from Moroccan mines.

Transport: There is a daily ferry service to Málaga and a weekly service to Almería. Melilla airport is served by a daily service to Málaga, operated by Iberia.

Education (1970): Primary: 196 schools, 6,174 pupils; Secondary: 2,675 pupils.

Government: A Mayor administers the town.

Radio: *Radio Melilla*, O'Donell 26, Melilla; commercial; owned by Sociedad Española de Radiodifusión.

OTHER POSSESSIONS

Peñón de Velez de la Gomera and Villa Sanjurjo on the Mediterranean coast between Ceuta and Melilla—and the Chafarinas Islands lying east of Melilla near the Algerian

border. Peñón de Velez de la Gomera and Villa Sanjurjo are small towns. The Chafarinas Islands have no permanent inhabitants.

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The Sudan

PHYSICAL AND SOCIAL GEOGRAPHY

THE NILE

The Democratic Republic of Sudan is the largest state in Africa (2 500 000 sq km) stretching across nearly 18° of latitude and from sub-equatorial forest to some of the driest desert in the world. These vast spaces of contrasting terrain are, however, linked by the unifying Nile. Any account of Sudan should perhaps start with the river, so vital is it to the republic. The Nile enters Sudan from Uganda in the south and the "Bahr el Jebel" is fed by a number of streams draining the south west of the country. Some miles north of Mongalla, the river enters the Sudd region where seasonal swamps cover a large part of the area. The White Nile drains the Sudd region northward, though half of the flow is lost by irrigation in the Sudd. The Blue Nile drains a large part of the Ethiopian Highlands and joins the White Nile at Khartoum. The two rivers are very different. In August the Blue Nile is in flood and rising seven metres above its low level, makes up nearly 90 per cent of the total discharge at Khartoum (7,000 cu m per sec). At low water the more regularly flowing White Nile provides 83 per cent of the discharge and the Blue Nile is reduced to a mere 80 cu m per second. North of Khartoum the Nile is the focus of most agricultural activity and pump irrigation along its banks provides a green strip through the desert to Wadi Halfa and Lake Nasser. The Atbara, which is the only tributary north of Khartoum, flows for about six months of the year and then dries up into series of pools.

PHYSICAL FEATURES

Away from the Nile Sudan is mainly a plainland and plateau country, although there are a number of important mountain ranges such as the Imatong and the Nuba Mountains (rising to over 1,500 m) in the south, Jebel Marra, a largely extinct volcano (over 3 500 m) in the west and the Red Sea Hill ranges (over 2 000 m) in the north-east. Elsewhere the plainlands, diversified in places by smaller hill ranges, slope gently to the north and towards the Nile.

CLIMATE

Sudan has a range of tropical continental climates with a marked climatic gradient from south to north and from the Ethiopian plateau north westwards. In the south the rainy season lasts up to eight months, producing over 1,000 mm of precipitation, while at Atbara, north of Khartoum, there is a one-month rainy season in August and only 50 mm of rainfall. In the north high summer temperatures are common, mean daily maxima reaching about 104°F in Khar-

toum in May and June, though there is usually a marked diurnal range (about 68°F). In the south temperatures are lower (average daily maxima 86°F), the hottest months being February and March.

VEGETATION AND SOILS

Vegetation types are related to the climatic gradient. Tropical rain forest is found only in the uplands of the extreme south, and the south-east is dominated by a wooded grassland complex, which merges northwards in Kordofan, Darfur and Blue Nile Provinces to a 'low woodland savannah', dominated by acacia and with large areas of short grassland. Northward is a gradation through semi-desert to desert. The pattern is broken in the south by the large swamp grasslands of the Sudd area.

In the south-east areas from east of Khartoum to Juba alkaline clay soils dominate, and the south-western part of the country has red latosols, but elsewhere soils are predominantly sandy with pockets and strips of finer materials along the water courses.

POPULATION

The population of Sudan, projected from the 1955 census, is now about 15 000 000 and appears to be increasing rapidly. The total is small in relation to the size of the country, but there is a very uneven distribution, with over 50 per cent of the people concentrated in 15 per cent of the total national area. High densities occur along the Nile and around Khartoum, but parts of Kordofan near the railway line, the Nuba mountains and parts of Bahr el Ghazal and Darfur have average densities of 15 per sq km with much higher local concentrations. The people of northern Sudan are of mixed Arabic and African origin and traditionally are nomadic or semi nomadic, in the south Nilotic peoples predominate, the Nuer, the Dinka and the Shilluk being the most important.

The major towns are the provincial centres, with the three towns of Khartoum, Omdurman and Khartoum North forming by far the largest urban centre. The Khartoum urban complex, with a population of about 350,000, is the main industrial, commercial, communication and administrative centre, and handles 90 per cent of the external trade. Of the other towns Atbara, the centre of the railway industry, Wad Medani, first town of the Gezira, El Obeid and Juba, are the most important. Sudan has a well-developed railway system which now provides good links with the most populated parts of the country. The road system is poorly developed, and outside the main towns well maintained roads are rare, except in the extreme south.

L B

HISTORY

The geographic position of the Sudan, between the Mediterranean-Middle Eastern world on the one hand and Central Africa on the other, has played an important part in determining the character and politics of the country since Biblical times at least. In almost all the contacts between the Sudan and the outside world Egypt has been the most important link, and, especially since the rise of Islam, the dominant one. Thus the Pharaohs, the Persians, the Greeks, the Romans, the Arabs, the Turks and the British, all those who governed or conquered Egypt in the past, have in turn found it either necessary or desirable to extend their influence, if not their power, beyond the traditional boundaries of Egypt (between the first and second cataracts) into the lands which now constitute the Republic of Sudan. Conversely, the inhabitants of those lands, or at any rate those of them who lived in the northern parts of the country, have always had to choose between three alternative policies: domination by Egypt; independence from their neighbours; or conquest of Egypt; at one time or another each of these possibilities was actually realized. At no time, however, could either of the two countries ignore the other—a fact which, with modern Egyptian nationalists, became the justification for making the Unity of the Nile Valley for many years the *raison d'être* of Egyptian foreign policy.

ANCIENT AND MEDIEVAL

From the time of Tuthmosis I (1530–1520 B.C.) until the eighth century B.C. northern Cush (as the area as far as the Gezira was called in ancient times) was, for the most part, under the effective control of the Pharaohs. And even after the political supremacy of the Pharaohs had been completely shaken off the Cushites continued to be so thoroughly Egyptianized that, at times, they regarded themselves as the champions of true Egyptian culture.

The political mastery of the Pharaohs in Cush gradually diminished from the tenth century onwards, and by 725 B.C. the balance of power was finally turned by a series of competent Cushite leaders who established themselves as the twenty-fifth Pharaonic dynasty. The most renowned Pharaoh of this Cushite dynasty was Tirhaka (688–663 B.C.) under whose leadership the empire extended from Cush to Syria and whose wars in Syria and Judea are recorded in the Bible. Tirhaka's empire, however, did not last long; a number of setbacks led to his final defeat by the Assyrians in 666 B.C. The kingdom of Cush survived for a thousand years, during which it expanded to the south, the capital being transferred from Napata, near the fourth cataract, to Meroe, near Kaboshiya, about 100 miles north of Khartoum. But under the pressure of Nubian migrants from the south-west and the new power of Axum in the east, the Meroitic kingdom declined and there was little of its former glory left when the first Christian king of Axum raided the Nile valley in A.D. 350.

From this cataclysm emerged three Nuba kingdoms into which Christianity was introduced from Egypt under the patronage of the Empress Theodora early in the sixth century A.D.

By A.D. 639, when the Arab Muslims invaded Egypt, two Christian Nuba kingdoms occupied approximately the territory formerly covered by the Meroitic realm. With the more northerly of these the Arab invaders made a treaty which subsisted for six hundred years. There was little Arab penetration into the Nuba country and the Sudan as a whole until the rise in Egypt of the Bahri Mamluk Sultans about A.D. 1250. These both encouraged southern emigration by the Bedouin and interfered in the politics of the northern Nuba Kingdom, which eventually disintegrated through Arab infiltration and intermarriage. The more southerly kingdom survived until A.D. 1504, when it was overthrown by the invasion of Negroid newcomers from the south called the Funj, who also defeated the infiltrating Arabs.

The Islamic Sultanate of The Funj, otherwise known as "the Black Sultanate", was, in effect, a confederation of smaller Sultanates or tribal chieftainships, each ruled by a "mek", or prince, who owed allegiance to the Sultan at Sennar, the new capital city on the Blue Nile, about 170 miles south of Khartoum. The authority of the Sultan at Sennar was recognized throughout the former lands of Cush and Nubia, including the Gezira, but was contested in Kordofan by the dynasty of Sultan Suleiman Solong, which established itself in Darfur in 1596. Largely as a result of internecine warfare and wars with the Furs in the west and the Abyssinians in the east the energies of the Funj were sapped and, by the nineteenth century, when Muhammad Ali Pasha of Egypt challenged them, their Sultanate was already in decline.

THE NINETEENTH CENTURY

Muhammad Ali had two main objectives in the Sudan: gold and slaves, both of which he needed in order to build an Egyptian-Arab empire independent of that of the Sultan in Istanbul. His ambitions in this respect were frustrated by the European powers and his dreams about gold were proved to be false. But Muhammad Ali did succeed in establishing an empire in the Nile Valley which lasted from 1821, when the last of the kings of Sennar surrendered, until 1885 when Khartoum fell to the Mahdi. Kordofan and Darfur were subsequently added to Sennar and, under his successors, principally Khedive Ismail, the boundaries of the empire were extended to the Great Lakes, and by 1877 the Somali coast as far as Ras Hofun was also recognized as Egyptian territory under the suzerainty of the Sultan.

Within this vast but loosely organized empire the Sudan was, at first, viewed as a province of Egypt but its administration, centred on the new capital of Khartoum, was afterwards decentralized and put

under a *Hakimdar* (or Governor General) to whom provincial governors were responsible. And the provinces were likewise divided into smaller units which tended to follow the traditional tribal and territorial boundaries of the Funj period. The personnel of the new regime was a mixture of Circassian, Turkish, European and Armenian officers of the Ottoman Egyptian army who were assisted especially at the lower levels by Sudanese sheikhs and tribal leaders.

Like its counterparts in other parts of the later Ottoman empire the Sudan administration was corrupt and far from efficient. Its difficulties arising from the general malaise of the declining empire were further accentuated on the one hand by frequent and arbitrary interference from Cairo and on the other by the policy of rapid but poorly organized expansion which was followed by Muhammad Ali's successors especially Khedive Ismail. Ismail furthermore was determined to abolish slavery in his own lifetime. Slavery had been part of the social system throughout the Nile Valley including the southern Sudan. But trading rights in the newly opened south had been sold to armed adventurers and searching for slaves was carried to extremes which were in many cases reminiscent of the barbarities of the triangular slave trade. Ismail hoped to mitigate these evils by administrative means and through the agency of European expatriates such as Sir Samuel Baker and General Charles Gordon. But the violent methods used by these men in order to abolish the slave trade alienated large sections of the population, caused considerable social and economic dislocation and to that extent weakened the government's control over the country and played into the hands of the Sudanese religious rebel Muhammad Ahmed Abdulla. In March 1881 Abdulla declared that he was the Mahdi and called upon the people to rally with him against the Turks and for the reformation of Islam. This was not at first taken seriously by the government. The Mahdi on the other hand showed remarkable skill in manoeuvre and organization and under his able leadership the apparently minor rebellion was rapidly transferred into a nation-wide jihad which by January 1885 resulted in the fall of Khartoum. Thus began a new chapter in the history of the country during which the Sudan was governed by Sudanese first under the Mahdi and after his death in June 1885 by the Khalifa Abdulla, whose rule lasted for more than thirteen years.

In the meantime Britain had occupied Egypt and assumed effective but indirect control of its government. This in 1883 the Government of the Khedive acting on what was officially described as the advice of the British Government concluded that it could not hold the Sudan against the Mahdists and therefore decided to evacuate the country and concentrate instead on the development of Egypt's own resources. It was in order to execute this policy that Gordon was sent to Khartoum where he was killed when the town fell to the Mahdi. The Egyptian nationalists greatly resented this policy of evacuation which they felt was dictated by British not Egyptian interests.

Ten years later Britain in order to safeguard its own position in Egypt and to ward off the Italians, the Belgians and most importantly the French—all engaged in the general scramble for Africa including the Upper Nile—decided that the Sudan also should be brought under its effective control. But since conquest would have brought Britain in direct conflict with the French and the other European powers in Central Africa the British Government decided that the conquest should be done in the name of the Khedive and Egypt who it was contended were now in a position to reaffirm their control over what was described as Egyptian territory which had been temporarily disrupted by the Mahdist rebellion. The reconquest as it was called was as unpopular with the Egyptian nationalists as the policy of evacuation had been ten years previously—and for the same reasons. Opposition notwithstanding the reconquest was executed by combined Egyptian and British forces under the general command of General Herbert Kitchener. It took three years from 1896 to 1898 when on September 2nd the last of the Mahdist forces were destroyed at the battle of Omdurman.

THE CONDOMINIUM

The Anglo-Egyptian Agreement of 1899 laid the foundations of the new régime in the Sudan. The important but thorny question of sovereignty over the country was however deliberately left out of the Agreement. For from Britain's point of view the acceptance as binding law of the theory that the new régime was a restoration of the Ottoman—Egyptian régime overthrown by the Mahdi was undesirable because it would have left Britain without legal basis for its presence in the Sudan while the alternative—the theory that Britain was sovereign or had a share in sovereignty over the Sudan—would have aroused the hostility not only of the Egyptians and the Sultan but also of the French and the other European powers and was therefore similarly undesirable. While emphasizing the claims which accrued to Britain by virtue of her participation in the reconquest therefore the Agreement was silent as to the juridical positions of the two conquering powers in the Sudan. This allowed Britain considerable scope for political and diplomatic manoeuvre. Thus when the French questioned Britain's presence in the Sudan the British government insisted that it was acting on behalf of the Khedive when the Egyptian nationalists raised the same question they were reminded of Britain's role in the reconquest and when they protested their inferior position in the administration of the country though they had contributed the larger share of men and money during the reconquest and almost all the expenses of the administration Britain maintained that this was only fair as the country was reconquered in the name of Egypt which however was unable to govern itself let alone the Sudan. This was perhaps illogical but from a practical point of view it made little difference so long as Britain was in effective control of Egypt as well as the Sudan. After Egypt's independence in 1922 however and especially after the abolition of the Caliphate in whom sovereignty over the Sudan had theoretically resided during the

Ottoman-Egyptian régime, the silence of the Agreement as to the subject of sovereignty became a source of increasing embarrassment to Britain.

The juridical dispute aside, the Agreement established in the Sudan an administration which was nominally Anglo-Egyptian but was actually a British colonial administration. Like the Ottoman-Egyptian administration it was headed by a Governor-General in whom all civil and military authority was vested. He was appointed by Khedivial decree but on the recommendation of the British government, without whose consent he could not be dismissed. Nothing was mentioned in the Agreement about his nationality but it is not surprising that all the Governors-General of the Sudan—like the Province Governors and District Commissioners who assisted them—were British. The British character of the régime became more obvious after 1924, when the Egyptian troops, officers and civilians who had hitherto acted as intermediaries between the British and the Sudanese were evacuated from the Sudan following the murder in Cairo of Sir Lee Stack, the then Governor-General of the Sudan and Sirdar (i.e. C-in-C.) of the Egyptian Army. The administration of the country was until then based on the principle of Direct Rule and was, especially before the First World War, carried out along military lines. This was necessitated by the fact that resistance to the new régime did not cease after the battle of Omdurman and risings against it occurred annually. By the end of the war, however, the process of pacification, except in the south, was completed, and the last stronghold of Mahdism was taken when, in 1916, Sultan Ali Dinar of Darfur was killed and his Sultanate made a province of the Sudan.

INDIRECT RULE

The evacuation of the Egyptians from the Sudan in 1924 was generally unpopular with the Sudanese, especially the non-Mahdists and the small but influential educated class, who sympathized with the Egyptians on grounds of common language and religion, and saw in Egypt a natural ally against the British. Demonstrations were therefore organized in order to show solidarity with the Egyptians, and a Sudanese battalion mutinied and clashed with British troops. The rising was however ruthlessly crushed. Relations between the Sudan government and educated Sudanese deteriorated rapidly and a period of intense bitterness began which lasted well into the 1930s and was much aggravated by the depression and the subsequent retrenchment of salaries.

It was against this background that Indirect Rule, through the agency of tribal sheikhs and chiefs, was introduced, which soon replaced Direct Rule as the guiding principle in administration. Tribalism, which had been greatly weakened during the Mahdiyya, was revived and encouraged not only for purposes of administrative decentralization but also, and more importantly, as an alternative to bureaucratic government which necessitated the creation and employment of more and more educated Sudanese. These, because of their education, however limited, were politically more conscious than tribal leaders and therefore

more difficult to control. Simultaneously with the stimulation of tribalism and tribal institutions therefore, training centres such as the military college were closed down; courses for training Sudanese administrators were discontinued; and harsh discipline which "savoured strongly of the barracks" was introduced in the Gordon College—an elementary institution which had been opened in 1902 for the training of artisans and junior officials. In general, the period from 1924 to the mid-thirties may be described as the golden age of Indirect Rule, or Native Administration; but from the point of view of education—always, under the British, closely connected with policy and administration—it was, in the words of a distinguished British scholar, "a period of utter stagnation". Economically however it was notable for the development of the Gezira scheme, whose cotton crops were largely responsible for the growth of the government's revenue from £1,654,149 in 1913, when the budget was balanced for the first time since the reconquest, to over £54 million in 1936 and nearly £546 million in 1956. Today the scheme covers over 1,500,000 acres and is the basis of the country's prosperity.

The introduction of Native Administration in the Northern Sudan after 1924 was paralleled in the south, by the launching of the government's new "Southern Policy". Until then official policy in the south was, apart from the maintenance of law and order, largely limited to the provision of various forms of assistance to Christian missionary societies which, in the words of an official Annual Report, worked for the proselytization of the population and "teaching these savages the elements of common sense, good behaviour, and obedience to government authority". After the rising of 1924 which, incidentally was led by an officer of southern (Dinka) origin, the "Southern Policy" was introduced. It had two main objectives: the prevention of the spirit of nationalism, which had already taken root in Egypt, from spreading across the Northern Sudan to the south and to other East African "possessions"; and the separation of the three southern provinces from the rest of the country with a view to their eventual assimilation to the government of neighbouring British territories which, it was hoped, would then emerge as a great East African Federation under British control. Accordingly, Muslim and Arabic speaking people in the south, whether they were of Egyptian, northern Sudanese or west African origins, were evicted from the region while stringent systems of permits and "Closed Districts" were introduced to prevent others from entering. Southerners, on the other hand, were discouraged from visiting or seeking employment in the north, and those among them who had adopted the Muslim religion or used Arabic names, clothes or language were persuaded, by administrative means (which sometimes involved the burning of Arab clothes) to drop them and use, instead, Christian, English or native equivalents. Whereas education was then stagnating in the north and had so far been neglected in the south it was now enthusiastically supported by the government—but along lines calculated to eradicate all traces of Islamic and Arabic culture, and thus gradually sever relations between the northern and southern provinces.

TOWARDS SELF-GOVERNMENT

As may be expected the Southern Policy, like Native Administration, was most unpopular with the nationalists who by the mid-1930s had recovered from the shocks they had suffered after the failure of 1924. Encouraged by the challenge which the Axis powers were then presenting to Britain and by the restoration of Egypt's position in the Sudan in 1936 itself largely the result of the changing international scene they began to mobilize themselves and prepared to resume their offensive. The Graduates' Congress representing the *literals* of the country, was established early in 1938. Stimulated by the war, the Atlantic Charter and the open competition of the Egyptian and Sudan governments for their sympathy and support the graduates in 1942 submitted to the government a famous Memorandum in which they demanded *inter alia* the abolition of the Closed Districts Ordinance, the cancellation of subventions to missionary schools and the unifications of syllabuses in the north and the south, increasing the share of the Sudanese in the administration of their country and the issue of a declaration granting the Sudan the right of self-government directly after the war. The government rebuffed the graduates by refusing to receive their Memorandum but nevertheless proceeded to react, on the local level, by the gradual transformation of Native Administration into a modern system of local government and, in central government administration, by launching, in 1943, an Advisory Council for the Northern Sudan which was replaced, in 1948, by a Legislative Assembly for the Sudan as a whole. The development of local government however, was a very slow process (the first comprehensive local government Ordinance being promulgated as late as 1951) and it was in any case peripheral to the main wishes of the nationalists. The Advisory Council and the Legislative Assembly on the other hand failed to satisfy them because among other things, they had very little power to exercise (in the case of the Council no power at all), while their composition, largely based on the principle of appointment rather than free elections, only partially reflected political opinion in the country.

The limitations of the Council and the Assembly notwithstanding the promulgation of these institutions had the effect of accentuating differences within Congress and eventually splitting it into two rival groups. Some worried about Egypt's continued claims over the Sudan, and feeling that independence could best be achieved by co-operating with the government thought that Congress should participate in the Council and the Assembly however defective they were. This group, led by the Umma Party, was supported by the Mahdists and their motto was 'The Sudan for the Sudanese'. Others being more distrustful of the British felt that independence could best be achieved through co-operation with Egypt which was an Arabic speaking and Muslim neighbouring country and, like the Sudan despite its formal independence, a victim of British imperialism. They therefore stood for 'The Unity of the Nile Valley' and supported by the Khatmiyya, the chief rival of the Mahdists among the religious fraternities, boycotted both the Council and the Assembly.

In the meantime successive negotiations between the British and Egyptian governments led from one deadlock to another and the unhappy schism between 'the Unionists' and 'the Independence Front' continued until the outbreak of the Egyptian Revolution in July 1952. The new régime promptly disowned the king and the Pasha class with whom 'The Unity of the Nile Valley under the Egyptian Crown' was a basic article of political faith and thus cleared the way for a separate settlement of the Sudan question. Neguib Nasser and Salah Salem, all of whom had served in the Sudan and knew the Sudanese well, then staged a diplomatic *coup* which put the initiative in their hands.

The British had consistently justified their continued presence in the Sudan in terms of their desire to secure self-determination for the Sudanese as opposed to imposing on them a unity with Egypt which many Sudanese were prepared to resist by force of arms if necessary. Having got rid of the king the new Egyptian régime now declared that it was equally willing to grant the Sudanese the right of self-determination. On the basis of this declaration an Anglo-Egyptian Agreement was signed in 1953. This Agreement provided among other things, for the Sudanization of the police and the civil service and the evacuation of all British and Egyptian troops in preparation for self-determination within a period of three years. Elections, held under the supervision of an international commission, resulted in the victory of the National Unionist Party, whose leader Ismail El Azhari became the first Sudanese Prime Minister in January 1954 and proceeded to put the terms of the Agreement into effect. The Egyptians had supported the NUP during the elections and it was naturally expected that Azhari would try to lead the country in the direction of union with Egypt. However, by the time the Sudanization programme was completed and the Egyptian and British troops had left the country, it was clear that he stood for independence. Several reasons led to this apparent reversal of attitude. Among these was the fact that the overwhelming majority of the NUP had looked upon solidarity with the Egyptians as a means for achieving the independence of the Sudan. Besides, the official opening of Parliament of March 1st, 1954, witnessed a violent demonstration by the Mahdists of their determination to split the country if the government wanted to lead the Sudan along the path of unity with Egypt rather than independence. Several people were killed and the ceremony in which guests from many countries including Gen. Neguib, had been invited, was postponed. It then became obvious that independence would not only satisfy the aspirations of the Sudanese but would also save the country from civil war. One thing, however, could still frustrate the country's progress to independence namely the mutiny of southern troops at Juba in August 1955. This was the prelude to an attempted revolt in the south in which nearly three hundred northern Sudanese officials, merchants and their families were massacred. The disorders except for some sporadic outbursts, did not spread to the two provinces of Upper Nile and Bahr El Ghazal but were centred in Equatoria. Order was

restored in due course but the political problem of the south which, springing from the geographic and social differences between the northern and southern provinces, had been greatly accentuated by the "Southern Policy" of the British administration, continued to present a serious challenge to the Sudanese and the unity of the Sudan. Before they could vote for independence southern members of Parliament insisted that their request for a federal form of government be given full consideration. This they were duly promised.

The agreement had prescribed a plebiscite and other protracted procedures for self-determination. Azhari, supported by all Sudanese parties, decided to sidestep these arrangements, and on December 19th, 1955, Parliament unanimously declared the Sudan an independent republic and, at the same time, resolved that a committee of five elected by Parliament to exercise the powers of the Head of State in place of the Governor-General. Faced with this *fait accompli* Britain and Egypt had no choice but to recognize the Sudan's independence, which was formally celebrated on January 1st, 1956.

INDEPENDENT SUDAN

Immediately after independence the Sudan sought to establish itself in the international field and was soon afterwards unanimously accepted as a member of the UN, and in regional organizations such as the Arab League and later the OAU. Internally, the social services were expanded; the University College of Khartoum was raised to full university status; railway extensions on the Blue Nile south of Sennar and from Darfur to El De'ain were completed; and the first stages of the Managil extensions began operating, in July 1958, with a gross irrigable area of 200,000 acres, the whole scheme, involving some 800,000 acres, being completed in 1961. The administration, despite the difficulties which inevitably followed the rapid Sudanization programme, overcame the increased responsibilities with which it was charged. But financial and economic problems arising from rapid expansion on the one hand and difficulty in selling the cotton crops of 1957 on the other began to brace the whole country and, coupled with difficulties on the political plane, resulted, in 1958, in the replacement of parliamentary government by the military regime of General Ibrahim Abboud.

The political problems in which the country was involved soon after independence began with a split which took place within the ruling N.U.P. between the Khatmiyya and the non-sectarian elements in the party. This was accompanied by an agreement between the leaders of the two religious fraternities, the Mahdists and the Khatmiyya, which was reflected in the political field by the final replacement of Azhiri by a coalition government which was formed by the Umma Party, representing the Mahdists, and the newly formed Peoples Democratic Party, the political organ of the Khatmiyya. The new Prime Minister was Sayed Abdalla Khalil, the secretary of the Umma Party and a retired officer of the Sudan Defence Force.

The unprecedented coalition of Mahdists and

Khatmiyya at first seemed to work reasonably well, but difficulties soon began to appear. One of these was the traditional difference of attitude towards Egypt which had always existed between the two but had been temporarily forgotten during the final stages of the country's progress towards independence. During the Suez crisis for example the P.D.P. felt that the Sudan should have given greater support to Egypt than the Prime Minister was prepared to give. And when a minor dispute arose between Egypt and the Sudan in February 1958 the P.D.P. was in turn accused by some Umma spokesmen of softness towards, if not actual complicity with, the Egyptians. Another point of difference arose over the constitutional future of the country. For while the Umma Party favoured a presidential form of government and felt that its patron, Sayed Abdel Rahman Al Mahdi, should be the first president, the P.D.P. and, behind them, the Khatmiyya, could not agree. A third difficulty arose from the deteriorating financial and economic situation which having initially resulted from failure to dispose of the cotton crop of 1957 was made even worse by an exceptionally poor crop in 1958. With the country's reserves falling rapidly, severe and unpopular restrictions had to be imposed and foreign aid sought. But the P.D.P., already worried by what it considered was the unduly pro-Western foreign policy of the Prime Minister, opposed acceptance of American aid.

Elections held in February 1958 resulted in no change and the already strained Umma-P.D.P. coalition was restored to power. If either party had been able to win a sufficient number of seats to form a government of its own the course of subsequent events would have been different. After hard negotiations the N.U.P. and the Umma Party agreed, on November 16th, 1958, to form a new government. But Abdalla Khalil did not view this move with favour, and having been an officer and having therefore close relations with the army, he consulted with a group of senior officers about the possibility of an army *coup*.

MILITARY GOVERNMENT

The *coup d'état* was launched on November 17th, 1958. To the people in general it came as a relief after the wrangling and differences of the parties. Gen. Abboud assured the country that his aim was restoration of stability and sound administration at home, and the fostering of cordial relations with the outside world, especially the U.A.R. For the politicians and those Sudanese who prized the Sudan's democratic institutions, however, the *coup*, followed by the suspension of the constitution and the dissolution of parliament and the parties, was a serious setback. But there was at first no sign of active opposition and the two leaders, Al Mahdi and Al Mirghani, gave their blessing to the new regime on the understanding that the army would not stay in power longer than was necessary for the restoration of stability.

The military regime made a good start in the economic field by following a realistic cotton sales policy which ensured the sale of both the carry-over from the past seasons and the new crop. Loans from

various international institutions and aid from the U.S.A., the U.S.S.R. and other sources were successfully negotiated. The money was used to finance such projects as the completion of the Managil extension and the construction of the Roseires Dam on the Blue Nile and the Khassam Al Garba Dam on the Atbara, the latter being used for the purpose of irrigating an area for the resettlement of the people of Halifa, whose ancient town has now been submerged by waters of the High Dam at Aswan.

In spite of these efforts discontent soon began to grow. Prompting this was the feeling that too many officers—encouraged by the absence of democratic procedures of control and accountability—had become corrupt and used public funds for private gain. The result was that when the country was again gripped by financial and economic difficulties in 1964 the public was convinced that this could not be accounted for in terms of the poor cotton crop of that year, nor in terms of over-ambitious economic development schemes, in a word, they no longer trusted the government.

In the field of administration other than financial, the military regime was again unfortunate. In July 1961 a new system of provincial administration not unlike Pakistan's "Basic Democracies" was inaugurated. This was crowned in 1962 by the creation of the Central Council which met for the first time in November 1963. The idea was to train the people in responsible self government through institutions which, it was said, would be more suitable to their genius than imported ones such as Westminster-type parliaments and the administrative system inherited from the pre-independence era. While this was, to most people, perfectly acceptable in principle, the actual working of the new system—under the close supervision and control of military personnel—turned out to be very different from the professed ideal. Friction between army officers on the one hand, and civil servants and other professional administrators on the other, resulted in the alienation of this important section of Sudanese society. Therefore, when the civil service was called to join the judiciary, university staff, workers and others in the general strike which took place after the outbreak of the revolution in October 1964 the response was both complete and enthusiastic.

THE CIVILIAN COUP

The immediate cause of the revolution was the Government's heavy handed administration in the southern provinces. This was based on the mistaken idea that the problem of the southern Sudan was a military, not a political problem and that it was mainly the result of the activities of the missionaries who had participated in the implementation of the 'Southern Policy' of the British administration. But the expulsion of the missionaries in February 1964 dramatized the problem for the outside world rather than helped to solve it, while military action against both the *Anaya Nya* rebels and the civilian villagers who were sometimes obliged to give them food and shelter, had the effect of forcing thousands of southern-

ers to live as refugees in neighbouring countries and convinced many that the only solution of the problem was for them to have a separate and independent state in the south. Concerned for the unity of the country, politicians, university students and others started campaigning for the view that the country could not be saved except by the removal of the military from authority and the restoration of democratic government. Orders forbidding public discussion of the southern problem and other political matters were issued but were defiantly disregarded by students. On October 21st the police, determined to break up such a discussion, opened fire on students within the precincts of the university. One of the students died, and thus the revolution was set into motion. A general strike brought the country to a standstill and General Abboud was forced to start negotiations with a Committee of Public Safety to which he subsequently agreed to surrender political power. His decision was partly dictated by the fact that the army was known to be divided, and the younger officers especially were reluctant to open fire on unarmed civilian demonstrators with whom they generally sympathized.

A transitional Government in which all parties, including for the first time the Communist Party and the Muslim Brotherhood were represented, was sworn in on November 1st. The Prime Minister was Sirr Al Khatim Al Khalifa of the Ministry of Education. He had worked for many years in the south and was much respected by southerners. The ministers of interior and communications were southerners. As a result of the inclusion as ministers of representatives of the communist-dominated Workers' and Tenants' Trades Unions and certain front organizations, the cabinet as a whole was dominated by the Communist Party, which had played an active part in mobilizing opinion against the military regime.

After restoring the freedom of the press, raising the ban on political parties, and starting a purge of the administration (which was subsequently abandoned on account of its being carried along partisan lines), the new government turned to the most important problem facing it: the problem of the southern Sudan. One of the first acts of the government had been a declaration of a general amnesty in the south which was accompanied by an appeal to southern leaders inside and outside the country to help solve the problem by peaceful means.

On March 16th, 1965, a Round Table Conference in which northern and southern parties participated was opened in Khartoum. It was also attended by observers from seven African states. The northern parties proposed to set up a regional government in the south which would have its own parliament, executive, public service commission, development committee and university. The southern parties which attended the conference were divided. Some wanted federation, others a separate state, while the unionists (who were not represented in the conference because the two other groups threatened to boycott it if they were allowed to participate) favoured the status quo. The federalists and the separatists eventually agreed to demand a referendum to enable southern voters to

choose between the three alternatives of regional government, federation and separation. By March 30th however no general agreement between the northern and southern parties was reached over the constitutional future of the country, and the subject was referred to a Twelve Man Committee, on which all parties (except the Southern Unionists) were represented. In the meantime the conference agreed on a constructive programme of immediate action which included the repatriation of refugees and the restoration of order, freedom of religion and unrestricted missionary activity by Sudanese nationals, and the training of southerners for army, police and civil service.

Externally the transitional government broke with the traditional neutralism which had characterized Sudanese foreign policy since independence, and supported national liberation movements in Southern Arabia, in the Congo, and among the Eritreans in Ethiopia. But this, like the purging of the administration, was controversial and was especially disliked by the leaders of the two main traditional parties, the Umma and the N.U.P., who together with the Islamic Charter Front (at the core of which was the Muslim Brotherhood) formed a front against the more left-wing P.D.P. and the Communist Party. The former felt that elections should be held as soon as possible so that a representative and responsible government could be formed, while the latter, who could not hope to improve their position in the country through elections, favoured the continuation of the new policies.

Elections were held in June 1965. They were boycotted by the P.D.P. but were heavily contested by all other parties, including the Communists. The Umma Party won the greatest number of seats, 76, followed by the N.U.P. who won 53. Neither part was however in a position to form a government on its own. The Communists won 11 out of the 15 seats in the graduates' constituency and had the further distinction of having among their representatives the first Sudanese woman M.P. Other seats were won by the Islamic Charter Front (7) and, for the first time, tribal groups representing the Beja (10) and the Nuba of Kordofan (11).

COALITION GOVERNMENT

It was obvious that the new government had to be a coalition. After some discussion the Umma and N.U.P. agreed to form a government in which Mohamed Ahmed Mahgoub (Umma) became Prime Minister and Azhari the permanent President of the Committee of Five which collectively acted as Head of State.

The new coalition at once ran into difficulties over the southern question. In July there was serious rebel activity at Juba and Wau, and large numbers of southerners were killed in the course of reprisals by Government troops. There were also severe difficulties in retaining southern representation on the Government; two members appointed by SANU, the leading southern nationalist party, were withdrawn when Buth Dieu, Secretary of the Southern Liberal Party, was appointed Minister of Animal Resources in August.

Personal animosity between the President of the Supreme Council, Al Azhari, and the Umma Party, Premier Mahgoub, led to a crisis within the coalition in October, which was only solved by the mediation of the young Umma Party President, Sadik el Mahdi. Government policies meanwhile became increasingly right-wing, as when, in November 1965, the Communist Party was banned and its members unseated from the Assembly. This act was contested in the courts, which in December 1966 ruled that it was illegal. But the Constituent Assembly, acting in its capacity as constitution-maker, overruled the courts' judgement. A crisis in which the judiciary and the Assembly confronted one another was thereby precipitated, but this was finally resolved in favour of the Assembly.

In order to pacify Ethiopian opinion, which had been provoked by the discovery in the Sudan of a consignment of arms from Syria destined for the Eritrean rebels, and the Chad Government, which was concerned about the possibility of a conspiracy being hatched against it on Sudanese soil, the new Prime Minister hastened to affirm his government's adherence to the Accra pledges of non-interference (in the case of Ethiopia signing a border pact in June 1966). This was followed by a number of visits to neighbouring countries with the purpose of confirming the new government's position in this respect and, at the same time, making arrangements whereby the return of Sudanese refugees from these countries would be facilitated.

SADIK EL MAHDI ELECTED PREMIER

In the meantime a serious split was developing between the right wing of the Umma Party, led by Imam el Hadi (Sadik's uncle), which supported Premier Mahgoub, and the younger and more moderate elements who looked to Sadik for more effective leadership. Sadik, however, was reluctant to accept the Premiership not only on account of his young age (30), but also because failure (which was likely, in view especially of the mounting financial and security problems of the country) would prejudice his political future. But events, particularly the growing split within his party, and the pressure of his supporters, finally obliged him to change his mind. After a heavy defeat in a vote of censure, on July 25th, 1966, Mahgoub resigned and Sadik was then elected Premier. His government was also a coalition of Umma and N.U.P. but included, as Minister of Finance an independent expert of Khatmiyya background, Hamza Mirghani, who in 1961 had resigned his post as Principal Under-Secretary of the Ministry of Finance, and had since worked with the IBRD. There were also two southern Ministers.

The new government at once addressed itself to the two major problems of the country. With the help of stringent controls, on the one hand, and loans from the IBRD and IMF, the economy gradually began to recover, and the country's reserves of foreign currency, which had dropped to the alarming level of £514 million, began to improve. Meantime the Twelve Man Committee had made considerable progress towards

the settlement of the southern problem on the basis of regional government. A "Parties Conference" continued the Committee's work and, in April 1967, submitted a report in which it also recommended a regional solution. By this time the long awaited supplementary elections in the south had been held, bringing 36 members to the Constituent Assembly, of whom 10, led by William Deng, represented SANU, the leading southern party. It was now possible to speed up the process of drafting the permanent constitution and the settlement, *inter alia*, of the southern problem.

The relative success of Sadik's nine-month-old administration, however, coupled with the announcement that he would stand for the post of President under the proposed constitution, resulted in the break-up of the coalition between his wing of the Umma Party and the NUP, whose leader, Azhari, like the leader of the Ansar, Imam el Hadi, also aspired to the Presidency. Thus, on May 16th 1967, Sadik was defeated in the Assembly (111 against 93) and Mahgoub was, once again, elected Premier.

MAHGBOUB RETURNS TO POWER

Under his leadership the new coalition of NUP, and El Hadi's branch of Umma pursued a vigorous foreign policy, particularly in the Middle East after the Six Days War. As a result, the first Arab Summit Conference after the war was convened in Khartoum (August 1967) and Mahgoub, together with Iraqi and Moroccan colleagues, was subsequently entrusted with the task of finding a formula for the settlement of the Yemeni dispute. Deterioration of relations with the Western Powers, culminating in the severance of diplomatic relations with the United Kingdom and the U.S.A. after the June War, was accompanied by the development of closer relations with the Eastern bloc, and the conclusion of an arms deal with the USSR resulted in the lifting, without formal announcement, of the ban which had previously been imposed on the Sudanese Communist Party.

The internal affairs of the country particularly the already precarious financial situation had in the meantime been somewhat neglected. The result was that when the Constituent Assembly was reconvened after the prolonged recess which followed the outbreak of hostilities in the Middle East, the opposition under the vigorous leadership of Sadik el Mahdi and William Deng (who, together with the ICF, now formed the New Forces Congress) was able to defeat the Government on several occasions. This together with the growing PDP and Communist opposition to the Draft Permanent Constitution based on Islamism regionalism and a strong executive on the presidential model, induced the Government to dissolve the Constituent Assembly on January 7th, 1968, following a mass resignation of government members in the Assembly. Sadik and his allies contested the constitutionality of this act in the courts. Before any judgement was pronounced, however, new elections were held in April, which were contested for the first time since 1958 by the PDP, now merged

with the NUP in the new Democratic Unionist Party. This won the largest number of seats, 101, followed by Sadik's Umma, who won 38, and El Hadi's Umma, with 30 seats. As the DUP did not command a majority on its own, a new coalition, also with Imam El Hadi's faction of the Umma Party, and under the leadership of Mahgoub, was formed when the Assembly was convened on May 27th. Like its predecessors since independence, Mahgoub's third government had to address itself to three principal tasks: drawing up a permanent constitution, rescuing the country from threatening financial and economic collapse resulting from its dependence on one cash crop on the one hand and poor financial administration on the other, and finally, tackling the problem of the Southern Sudan. The latter problem had been awaiting settlement ever since the attempted revolt in Equatoria province in 1955, and had become even more pressing from 1963 onwards with the onset of regular engagements between Sudanese troops and southern rebels in the Upper Nile and Bahr el Ghazal provinces as well as Equatoria. Estimates of numbers killed in the fighting run into thousands and government action in the south has been strongly criticized by Roman Catholic missionaries there who at the end of 1966 accused Sudanese troops of indiscriminate attacks on civilians. Successive central governments have tended to minimize the severity of the situation but the size of the problem can be gauged from the presence in neighbouring Uganda of 163 000 refugees and in the Congo (Kinshasa) of 40 000 (estimates of UN High Commissioner for refugees, July 1968). Relations with Uganda have been strained as a result of Sudanese border actions connected with southern refugees, and also by the use of Kampala as a base for the southern separatist groups.

THE 1969 COUP

The failure of the Mahgoub government to deal with either the southern Sudanese problem or the economic situation was compounded by the cabinet crisis of April-May 1969 over the reallocation of ministerial responsibilities between the Umma and Democratic Unionist Parties. The result was the bloodless coup of May 25th, 1969, when the government was overthrown by a group of officers and civilians led by Col (later Maj Gen) Jaafar al Nemery. The Transitional Constitution Supreme Council of State and Constituent Assembly were all abolished and a "Democratic Republic of the Sudan" and National Revolutionary Council with absolute powers established. The only civilian member of the Council, Abu Bakr Awadalla, the former Chief Justice, was appointed Prime Minister of a twenty-one-man cabinet, five of them members of the Sudan Communist Party. All political organizations were later dissolved, and several former ministers were tried on charges of bribery and corruption, rumours of which had been rife before the coup.

The new government stated the day after the coup that it was committed to a policy of "Sudanese socialism" under which the battle against Israel would play an important role in foreign relations and

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the state would participate to a greater extent in the economy, while preserving freedom for foreign and indigenous capital. The more militant attitude of the new regime towards the Middle Eastern question was quickly emphasized by its decision to recognize the German Democratic Republic, because of that country's hostility to Israel, and its refusal to consider re-establishing relations with either Federal Germany or the U.S.A., because of their support for Israel. The alliance formed with the U.A.R. and Libya in December 1969, and the announcement of federation in November 1970, marked a major step in the Sudan's involvement in Arab politics. A united western front was thus formed against Israel, and Libyan finance and Egyptian skilled manpower became available for Sudan's development programme. Both the U.A.R. and Libya have nationalized most of the foreign economic interests operating within their boundaries, and the Sudan followed suit in May 1970 by taking over all foreign banks and the principal trading companies, including the cotton exporters and some domestically owned organizations. However, Sudan's participation in the federation, joined in April 1971 by Syria, has been postponed because of the war in the south and because of the opposition of the communists. In May it was announced that a Sudanese Socialist Union was to be formed. Such a development, like the similar one announced in Libya, will presumably speed integration with the other countries of the federation.

Sudan's policy towards Palestine has naturally enough reflected the U.A.R.'s since 1969. The Rogers plan has been accepted; the fighting in Jordan deplored. President Nemery headed the conciliation committee which secured a cease-fire between the Jordanian army and the Palestine commandos at the end of September 1970. On Sudan's southern front relations with Uganda have been strained. In addition to the normal border tension trouble has been caused by supporters of deposed Ugandan president, Milton Obote, operating against General Amin's new regime from within Sudan's borders.

The pronounced commitment to the Arab cause did not slow up the new government's determination to tackle the problem of the three predominantly black southern provinces, and on June 10th, 1969, Gen. Nemery announced plans for the training of southern Sudanese for positions of responsibility and for eventual self-government for the south. Since then southerners have been appointed to ministerial, diplomatic and other high posts. Joseph Garang, a Catholic from the south and a communist, headed a Ministry for Southern Affairs until his execution in July 1971 for taking part in the abortive coup. Special efforts have been made at reconstruction and develop-

ment in the south, the latest series of measures being announced in January 1971. However, these measures have produced a mixed reaction among the rebel groups, and the fighting continues, with the rebels receiving aid from Israel and the government, it is reported, assistance from Soviet advisers. Three ministers from the south were included in the cabinet formed in August 1971, perhaps to mollify southerners upset by the execution of Joseph Garang.

Since the 1969 coup there have been various reported attempts to overthrow the regime. For some time the chief source of opposition was the Mahdi family, whose property had been confiscated after the coup. In March 1970 a rebellion led by the Imam al Mahdi from his stronghold of Aba Island in the White Nile was crushed by the government with many deaths, including that of the Imam. Later it was the communists who were accused of working against the government. Three ministers and thirteen army officers were dismissed in November 1970 for sympathizing with the Sudanese Communist Party, and the party's secretary-general was arrested. In February 1971 President Nemery expressed his intention of destroying the party, but it was the communists who moved first to remove him. On July 19th, 1971, a section of the army, led by communists, overthrew the Nemery régime, and Col. Babakr al Nur was proclaimed head of state. However, while Col. al Nur and his assistant, Maj. Farouk Hamadallah, were returning from London to take command of the revolution, the B.O.A.C. plane carrying them was forced to land in Libya. They were taken off, and the Libyan Government later handed them over to President Nemery, who had regained power in a counter-coup three days after being ousted. A massive purge of communists followed, and fourteen people were executed almost immediately. Apart from Maj. Hachem al Atta, who set the coup in motion in Khartoum, and the two leaders back from London, the Communist Party's Secretary-General, Abdel Khalik Mahgoub, the Secretary-General of the Federation of Sudanese Workers' Union, Shafieh Ahmed el Sheikh, and Joseph Garang, were all eliminated after hurried and secret trials before a military tribunal. The purge brought condemnation in unusually forthright terms from the Soviet and East European governments, though diplomatic relations have so far remained intact. President Nemery has received strong support from President Sadat of the U.A.R., and the alliance of Sudan, the U.A.R. and Libya has drawn closer, with the Soviet Union's position in the Middle East correspondingly weaker.

M.A.-R.

ECONOMIC SURVEY

THE MAIN CHARACTERISTICS
OF THE ECONOMY

It hardly needs stating that Sudan is an agricultural and pastoral country. Agriculture including livestock and forestry products contributed more than 50 per cent of the gross domestic product in 1967-68. Annual wealth though very undeveloped contributes about 10 per cent of the G D P while the share of forestry products in the G D P is about the same. However the contribution of fish and marine products is only about 2 per cent. The significance of agriculture in the Sudanese economy is also reflected in the distribution of manpower among the different economic sectors. About 85 per cent of those economically active (according to 1955-56 figures) are engaged in primary production. Manufacturing industries contributed only about 2 per cent of the G D P up to 1962-63 while the share of minerals is less than 1 per cent. No important minerals have yet been found in Sudan in significant enough quantities to be exploited economically. Sudan not only depends on agriculture but on one main crop for its exports. In fact the share of extra long staple cotton in the exports of Sudan reaches more than 70 per cent in some years. Such dependence on one major export crop with wide fluctuations in price and quantity exported has caused political as well as economic instability.

Furthermore about 48 per cent (on 1962-63 figures) of the G D P is produced in the traditional sector and about 25 per cent, it is estimated, is produced and consumed in the subsistence sector. With such a traditional agricultural sector it is not surprising that Sudan has a low per capita income which was only £32 (£1 sterling = £S 0.8358) at current prices in 1962-63 and which could not have risen much since then. For the last ten years or so the Sudanese economy has been growing at an annual rate of about 4 per cent while the population has been growing annually at a rate of about 2.8 per cent.

The average density of population in Sudan is low and there is no population pressure on the available resources at present. Open unemployment is very insignificant. In fact Sudan suffers from a shortage of labour particularly during the cotton picking season. Sometimes this problem is solved by immigrant labour from neighbouring countries.

Perhaps one of the most striking features of the Sudanese economy is the dominant role which is played by the public sector in all important economic activities. The government aside from its day-to-day administrative financial and fiscal efforts owns the majority of modern capital establishments in the economy. In the ten year plan the share of the government was £337 million out of the total investment of £565 million. In the period 1955/56-1967/68 the share of the government in gross fixed capital formation ranged between a half and two thirds. The government is not only the chief investor in public utilities but it is the main promoter of industries such

as sugar cotton ginning food processing tanning and printing. Governmental efforts to develop the country have expanded to such an extent that all large hotels in the various parts of Sudan are owned and managed by the government. With the nationalization of all commercial banks and several leading commercial firms in May and June 1970 the economic significance of the public sector has become even greater.

AGRICULTURE

The availability of water is the governing factor for agriculture in Sudan. In most parts of the rainlands of Sudan drinking water for humans and animals is a crucial factor especially before the rainy season when land is prepared for cultivation and after it during harvest time. However land does not impose any constraint on the agricultural development of the country. The cultivable land is estimated to be about 200 million feddans (one feddan = 1.038 acres). Only about 8 per cent of this cultivable land is being utilized in agriculture and less than four million feddans are under irrigation. Half of this area is in the Gezira scheme (with its Managil extension) and the rest is irrigated by the flood waters of two small rivers in eastern Sudan Gash and Baraka by the flood waters of the Nile and by pumps.

Prior to the Nile Waters agreement of 1959 the distribution of water between Sudan and the U.A.R. was governed by the Nile Waters agreement of 1929 which allocated four milliard cubic metres to Sudan. However with the 1959 agreement and the construction of the Roseires and Khassm el Girba dams the water problem has been solved. Sudan is now entitled to draw 18.5 milliard cubic metres at Aswan High Dam or the equivalent of about 20.5 milliard cubic metres in Sudan and the way has been opened for considerable expansion of irrigated agriculture. At present Sudan is drawing about half of its entitlement—about ten milliard cubic metres annually—but with the development of new areas along the White and Blue Nile Atbara River and the Main Nile as well as the intensification of the Gezira scheme by reducing fallow and its diversification by such crops as wheat groundnuts and *philipensara* vegetables Sudan is expected to utilize all its entitlement within the coming five years or so. One of the main development projects in Sudan is the Rahad project which will need about four milliard cubic metres of water for an area of about half a million feddans. The Sukki project which has also started may reach an area of 170 000 feddans while the pump-irrigated areas of the Northern Province may increase by about 165 000 feddans within a few years to come.

In spite of the significant role played by irrigation (particularly gravity irrigation) in the economic development of Sudan the rainlands are more important. In 1967-68 out of 9.7 million feddans which was the total area under the main crops 7.9 million feddans were rainlands 0.2 million feddans were

irrigated naturally by flood and 1.6 million feddans irrigated artificially. With the exception of cotton, pulses and a proportion of groundnuts, Sudan's food-stuffs and most exported agricultural products come from the rainlands. In fact Sudan is self-sufficient in the essential foods: millet, meat, edible oils and salt. However, the output per feddan in the rainlands is low. Rainlands agriculture is a somewhat risky business and to some extent this has probably deterred investment and modernization. The government has already taken steps to encourage large farming units and agricultural mechanization. This type of cultivation is mainly practised in the Gedaref area, in Kassala Province and the Dali and Mazmoum regions of the Blue Nile Province. The total area has increased considerably since 1955-56. In peak years, the total area reaches about 1.5 million feddans. The area shows considerable fluctuations, which are mainly due to changes in the prices of dura. In these areas dura is the main crop, but sesame and American cotton are also grown.

The agricultural sector of the Sudan does not face any serious land tenure problems. The rainlands, in particular, are very free from such problems, and also enjoy the advantage of relatively low production costs. The present government has already started an anti-thirst campaign and has promised the economic and social development of those areas. The Ten-Year Plan (1961/62-1970/71) was more concerned with the modern sector and the irrigated lands.

Sudan has animal wealth which contributes about 10 per cent of G.D.P. annually. It was estimated in 1968 as 10.9 million cattle, 10.1 million sheep, 8.5 million goats and 2.3 million camels. Its annual share in Sudan's exports (animals, hides and skins) has been about 6 per cent for the last five years.

In the year 1962-63 forest reserve estates, which are completely owned by the government, increased by 7,000 feddans to a total of 2,574,000 feddans. Beside gum arabic, the other important forest products are the various types of timber which are processed by the forest department of the ministry of agriculture. In 1968-69 the forest department produced 90,000 railway sleepers, 595,000 poles and 4,500 tons of sawn timber. The main consumer of these products is the government itself.

Sudan is rich in fish and other marine resources. The inland fisheries cover more than 20,000 sq. km., while marine fisheries extend for a distance of about 700 km. along the Red Sea. It is estimated that the annual total value of the output of fish and marine resources in Sudan is about £S10 million. The output of fish from the Nile is 60,000 tons annually but only a small percentage of this wealth is utilized at present. Since the actual output of fish from inland fisheries is estimated at around 20,000 tons annually, therefore about 40,000, valued at £S4 million, are wasted.

The contribution of fisheries to Sudan's exports is small. The share of salted fish and shells (mother of pearl and torchus) is much less than 1 per cent of the total exports.

Cotton is the most important crop in Sudan from the economic point of view. It is the major export

crop, the chief exchange earner and the main generator of income in the Sudan. A proportion of it is consumed locally by the textile industry. Its average share of exports over the five years 1965-69 was 53 per cent, not including its by-products, and 63 per cent including them. The cotton is of two types: long-staple varieties, Skallarides and its derivatives (commonly known as Sakel) and short-staple varieties, which are mainly American types and are consumed locally. The Sakel varieties are exclusively for export and are grown in the large schemes of the Gezira and the Gash and Tokar deltas, while the American types are grown in the rainlands of Equatoria, the Nuba mountains, Gedaref and also in some of the pump schemes in the Northern Province. The volume of output of the American types fluctuates more than the Sakel, and in recent years was less than 20 per cent of the long-staple cotton. In 1967-68 the total production of Sakel was 440,033 tons, while the total production of American types was 86,832 tons.

Dura includes various types of sorghum millets. It is the most important staple food in Sudan and is mainly grown in the rainlands. Sudan produces annually about 1.2 million tons of dura, which is usually sufficient for domestic consumption. It is not an export crop, though in good years some is exported, as, for example, in 1962-63, when 68,635 tons were exported. In bad years the government may need to import some dura. However, there are still no adequate storage facilities for offsetting bad years against good years. So far there are only two grain silos in Sudan with a storage capacity of 150,000 tons.

With urbanization and social development the consumption of bread made out of wheat flour is increasing by about 10 per cent annually. There seems to be a shift in consumption from *kisra* made out of dura to bread made out of wheat. Wheat is grown mainly as a cash crop. A small proportion of rural people use wheat flour in their diet. To meet the rapidly expanding demand of the urban population the government is growing wheat in the Gezira scheme and other suitable areas. It is also paying a subsidy to encourage its production and at the same time keep the price of bread reasonably low. The government buys a ton of wheat from the farmer at £S38 and then sells it to the flour mills at £S28.7.

Sudan gums have been known in trade for at least two thousand years. Gum arabic, which contributes about 10 per cent of Sudan's exports, is the second export crop. It is the most important forest product and, though collected in the traditional sector, it is a purely cash crop. It is almost entirely exported, as the confectionery industry manufactures only a very small percentage of it. Sudan is the world's largest source of gum arabic, producing about 92 per cent of the total world consumption (1962-66). Two types of gum are produced in Sudan, *Hashab* from *Acacia Senegal* and *Talh* from *Acacia Seyal*. The former is of a superior quality. The annual production of *Hashab* gum in normal years ranges between 40,000 and 50,000 tons and that of *Talh* between 1,000 and 2,000 tons. Kordofan and Darfur provinces in western Sudan are the main production centres. The chief

market for gum is at El Obeid in Kordofan Province, where it is sold by auction. In order to stabilize the price of gum, the government formed the Gum Traders' Association in 1962 which was made responsible for buying any gum left in the market at a price not less than 288 piastres per kantar*. A levy of 35 piastres was paid by exporters on every kantar of gum exported to enable the Gum Traders' Association to pay the minimum price. This system was an improvement on previous methods but it was not satisfactory. In September 1969 the government formed the Gum Arabic Company Ltd., a public concession company in which government participation is 30 per cent of the capital. The company is now handling all the gum trade of Sudan with the objectives of promoting it, maximizing the returns to the country and to the producer and stabilizing gum prices.

INDUSTRY

Industrialization usually starts in one of two basic ways, either with the processing of exports which were previously exported in their crude form, or with the manufacturing of import substitutes for an expanding home market, a surplus perhaps being exported later.

The ginning of cotton encouraged the beginning of industry in Sudan early in this century. With the expansion of cotton production the number of ginning factories have increased until the Gezira Board alone has the largest ginning enterprise under single management in the world. The processing of cotton has not gone beyond ginning. Cotton seeds are partly decorticated, while the exports of cotton seed oil and oil cakes are increasing. Groundnuts are also shelled for export. In 1969 24 685 tons were exported in shell while 57 456 tons were exported shelled. Minerals (copper, iron, mica and chromite), which constitute less than 1 per cent of exports, are exported in the crudest form.

However, the story of import substitution is different. This type of industry, though of more recent origin than the industries which process for export, has made more progress, and is expected to play a more important role in the economic development of the country. With the exception of the soap, soft drinks and oil pressing industries, large industries manufacturing import substitutes started only after 1960. The government was not involved in any industry until 1959, with the exception of the Zande scheme which involved a cotton mill at Nzara for promoting the social development of the Zande tribe. From 1960 the involvement in industry began to increase and in 1962 the government formed an industrial development corporation to look after the large factories of the public sector. By 1968 the Industrial Development Corporation was managing nine manufacturing factories in which the government has invested £23.7 million. There are also

factories in the public sector managed by the ministries, such as the government printing press and the mint.

The first factory to be established was the Guneid sugar factory, which in response to the great increase in the consumption of sugar in the 1950s, came into production in November 1961 with a capacity of 60 000 tons of refined sugar annually. A second factory was needed to meet the local demand and in 1963 Khashm el Gurba sugar factory was started, with a capacity similar to that of Guneid. In addition to a tannery, opened in November 1961, the government also has five food processing plants: one cannery and one date factory in Kareima, another cannery in Wau, an onion dehydrating plant in Kassala and a milk factory in Babanousa. What is very striking about these food processing industries is that the supply of raw materials is not high enough to match the productive capacity, and therefore, the weakness in these factories is not technical but agricultural.

The private sector has also played an important role in the industrial development of this country. In the period 1960-69 the private sector invested £35.9 million in industries of which £16.1 million was Sudanese and £19.8 foreign capital. The foreign capital is mainly savings of foreign residents accumulated from the profits of the import and export trade. The bulk of the investment has gone into the textile, soap, oil pressing, footwear, soft drinks, printing, packing, flour, and knitwear industries.

The government has encouraged industrialization in Sudan by various means. The Approved Enterprises (Concessions) Act 1959 gave generous concessions to infant industries. The Organisation and Promotion of Industrial Investment Act, 1967, has been even more generous to industry. It gives exemption from the business profits tax for a number of years, depending on the size of the invested capital, allows very high rates of depreciation, gives very fair treatment to losses, reduces import duties on imported machinery and materials, protects domestic production by high tariffs and import restrictions and allocates building lands at reduced prices. In addition to this the Industrial Bank, which was established in 1961, assists in the financing of private industrial enterprises with up to two-thirds of the capital required. By the end of 1968 the value of loans given by the bank amounted to £53.9 million.

FOREIGN TRADE

The value of Sudan's exports rose from £563.4 million to £586.3 million in 1969 and the value of imports rose from £563.7 million in 1960 to £589.3 million in 1969, thus, while exports rose by 36 per cent, imports rose by 40 per cent. The balance of payments is therefore a problem because since 1960 Sudan has faced a deficit every year. This is so in spite of the attempts of the government to clamp down on imports and encourage exports. There are import restrictions and high import duties on a large number of goods, but export taxes are light and no licence is required for export with the exception of goods consumed locally and in short supply.

* Gum is weighed in small kantars. Cotton is weighed in big kantars. 1 small kantar = 44 928 kilogrammes. 1 big kantar = 141 533 kilogrammes.

Merchandise trade dominates the current account, while the net balance on the invisible account is usually negative.

Sudan's main exports are primary agricultural products, and since the establishment of the Gezira scheme in 1925, cotton has dominated. The share of lint cotton alone has ranged between 46 per cent and 62 per cent over the period 1960–69. After 1960 the EEC became the largest buyer of Sudan's cotton, followed by India, the U.S.S.R., the People's Republic of China, Japan and east European countries. Gum arabic is the second export product and its average share is about 10 per cent of Sudan's exports. The main buyers of gum are the EEC, the U.S.A. and the U.K. In the last ten years, due to the expansion of production in the traditional sector, the relative importance of oil seeds as exports has increased and now groundnuts form the third most important export crop with a share of about 9 per cent of exports. The EEC is the largest buyer of Sudan's groundnuts (60 per cent). The east European countries buy about 20 per cent of the groundnuts and the rest go to various west European countries.

The major imports are vehicles, transport equipment, machinery, appliances and textiles. The growth of industries which are manufacturing import substitutes has affected the pattern of imports since the mid-1960s. The imports of sugar, footwear and cigarettes are declining in relative and absolute terms.

Perhaps a more striking change has taken place in the pattern of suppliers and buyers, if the late 1960s are compared with the early 1950s. The U.K. used to be the largest seller and buyer from the Sudan (30–40 per cent before independence). In 1969 only 6.7 per cent of Sudan's exports went to the U.K., and only 20 per cent of imports were bought from the U.K. The EEC is now replacing the U.K. and becoming the largest buyer of Sudan's cotton, groundnuts and sesame. However, the U.K. still has a large share of Sudan's imports of machinery, appliances, vehicles, transport equipment, chemicals, pharmaceutical products and cigarettes. Trade with socialist countries has been increasing since independence, and especially in recent years, as a result of several bilateral agreements. In 1960–69 the Sudan signed agreements with Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, the German Democratic Republic, Yugoslavia, Hungary, Poland, China and others. The share of socialist countries in Sudan's trade is about 20 per cent of both exports and imports. Trade with the Arab countries has been expanding in recent years and exports to them have reached about 10 per cent, but imports from these countries form a smaller percentage. The Arab countries are a good market for Sudan's animals. Trade between the Sudan, the U.A.R. and Libya is expected to develop further as a result of an agreement on economic integration signed in May 1970. Furthermore, the summit conferences of east and central African heads of state and governments may increase trade between Sudan and east and central African countries in the near future.

FOREIGN AID 1960–1969

The Ten-Year Plan of Economic and Social Development, 1961/62–1970/71, is the country's first experience in planning, although there were three previous attempts to develop Sudan in a systematic manner: 1946–51, 1951–56 and the Managil extension programme. In contrast to the Ten-Year Plan, the development programmes were not comprehensive, being concerned only with some projects in the public sector and depending on finance from savings of the public sector.

The total gross investment of the plan was estimated to be £565 million, of which 40 per cent (£228 million) was to be sponsored by the private sector and 60 per cent (£337 million) by the public sector. Out of the total investment £415.9 million was to be financed by domestic savings and £219.7 million from foreign financial assistance. The £415.9 would consist of £219.7 million public savings and £196.2 million private savings.

The foreign aid actually received in the period 1960–69 has not fallen very much short of the target of the plan (*see* Statistical Survey). While £150 million of foreign aid was forecast for the period 1961/62–1970/71, £141 million of aid in the form of grants, long-term and medium-term loans and in kind was received in the period 1960–69. However, in spite of the small difference between projected and realized foreign aid, the plan could not be properly implemented, mainly because of a shortage of domestic and foreign finance.

The Khashm el Girba and Roseires dams could not be utilized fully because the lack of finance prevented the associated works being completed. Additional reasons, such as wastage and corruption, also contributed to hampering the completion of projects of the public sector. Foreign aid of about £560 million is needed in 1970 to complete the basic association projects, which will enable Sudan to utilize its investment reasonably well.

It is clear from the sources of foreign aid over the period 1960–69 that the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development has played an important part in the financing of development projects in Sudan. About 16 per cent of all foreign aid in the 1960–69 period has come from it. The Bank has financed very vital projects such as the Roseires Dam, mechanized farming, Sudan Railways extension and dieselization, and the Managil Extension. American aid, mainly given in non-project commodities, has also been important, constituting about 14 per cent of the total between 1960 and 1969. American aid to Sudan ceased when Sudan severed diplomatic relations with the U.S.A. in June 1967. Cumulative withdrawals up to the end of 1967 totalled £23.3 million.

Aid to Sudan from Yugoslavia included a tannery, a cardboard factory and three ships, which constitute the Sudan Shipping Line. The U.S.S.R. has provided Sudan with two grain elevators, factories for processing agricultural and dairy products, a hospital and veterinary laboratories. Federal Germany also played an important role in financing the economic develop-

ment of Sudan between 1960 and 1969 by contributing to the financing of the Roseires Dam, and credit from German firms helped in financing the Guneid and Khashm el Garba sugar factories

The June War (1967), which brought about closer relations between the Arab countries has increased the flow of Arab aid to Sudan. By the end of 1969 the drawings on Arab aid had reached £\$2.4 million—more than 30 per cent of the total foreign aid received between 1960 and 1969. In addition to this Sudan received £\$15 million from the United Arab Republic, not as aid, but as compensation for the resettlement of Halfa town, caused by the construction of the Aswan High Dam.

The financing of public sector projects has mainly come from various governments, but firms have also played a part. For example, Italian contractors granted a credit of £\$2.6 million to cover a part of the cost of the construction of Khashm el Garba dam and three Fokker aeroplanes were obtained on a three year credit from the suppliers.

During 1960–69 the Sudan government obtained short term loans from the IMF and some Dutch commercial banks. The Dutch commercial banks provided £\$9.9 million to finance about 90 per cent of the cost to the Sudan government of importing telecommunication equipment from Holland.

There is no information about foreign loans to the private sector, but the two textile mills in the country were financed by foreign loans from the USA and Japan.

At the end of 1969 the net foreign debt outstanding in respect of government loans amounted to £\$109.3 million. This figure includes £\$18 million representing obligations to the IMF, but it excludes the amounts received under the different American aid programmes, before such aid was stopped in 1967. The balances still available for utilization in the future amount to £\$32.8 million.

Repayment of loans in 1969 amounted to £\$10.9 million, of which £\$6.7 million was for principal and £\$3.9 million was interest. In 1968 and 1969 the Sudan Government secured sizable short term and medium term loans which had the effect of increasing the debt servicing burden immediately. The ratio of debt servicing to export proceeds rose from 6.9 per cent in 1967 to 12.5 per cent in 1969. It seems advisable for Sudan to be more cautious about foreign borrowing because it will soon reach the limit of its credit worthiness.

Looking to the future, now that a socialist government, which has close relations with other socialist countries is in power, and a five-year plan (1970–75) has just been prepared with the help of Soviet experts, it seems that socialist countries will be the main financiers of future economic development in Sudan. According to the new five-year plan, foreign loans will contribute £\$95 million out of the £\$200 million capital investment by the public sector.

The Sudan government, like governments in many other underdeveloped countries, depends heavily on indirect taxes as a major source of revenue. In the fiscal year 1969–70 indirect taxes contributed 44 per cent of the central government's revenue, while in 1968–69 they yielded about 50 per cent. In these two years the relative share of indirect taxes declined because of increased import restrictions, and also because of the increased revenue from direct taxes and proceeds from government agricultural enterprises, particularly in 1969–70. The main source of revenue from indirect taxation is import duties. Because of balance of payments deficits in recent years the government has been trying to restrict imports of consumer goods particularly luxuries, and those which bear the highest rates. Excise duties are growing in importance because of the growth of industries producing import substitutes. Thus, the share of excise duties in revenue from indirect taxation, 5 per cent in 1964–65, rose to 18 per cent in 1966–67. This change is also reducing the rate of increase of revenue from indirect taxation. Excise duties are of lower rates than import duties on the same goods and they are more difficult to collect.

The revenue from export taxes declined from £\$3.8 million in 1966–67 to £\$3 million in 1969–70. The majority of export taxes, which were an important feature of the tax system of Sudan, were cancelled, together with royalties in November 1968, with the exception of those on gum and cotton in an attempt to encourage exports. This action has not proved effective and the revenue of the government from export taxes has been greatly reduced. The taxes were reintroduced in November 1969 but at lower rates.

The revenue from direct taxes was about 13 per cent of the total revenue of the central government in 1969–70, having been 2.7 per cent in 1963–64. The present direct taxes of Sudan (1969–70) are income taxes, an emergency tax and a stamp duty. The income taxes comprise a personal income tax on monetary earnings, fringe benefits and interest, a business profits tax, and a tax on income from rent (as laid down by the Income Tax Act, 1967). The top rate is 50 per cent, when total income reaches £\$25,000. Dividends are not normally taxable in the Sudan, since companies pay a business profits tax, shareholders do not pay an income tax on their dividends. Nevertheless a holding company which receives dividends from its subsidiaries pays a business tax on aggregate profits after getting a tax credit for the tax paid by the subsidiary. An emergency tax was introduced in August 1969 to absorb part of the wage and salary increases given to employees in the public sector in 1968 by the previous government. The yield of the emergency tax is estimated to be £\$7 million in 1969–70. Stamp duty is considered as a direct tax in Sudan and its revenue is less than £\$2 million.

In addition to the revenue from taxation, fees, charges and profits from agricultural enterprises, the central government may borrow internally to meet current expenditure. Under the Bank of Sudan Act 1959, amended in 1962, the government, its boards

and agencies, are permitted to borrow from the Central Bank up to 15 per cent of the ordinary revenue of the government, defined to include the central government, provincial and local government bodies, government boards, government banks and enterprises owned by the government or in which the government participates. For the fiscal year 1967–68 the maximum limit of such borrowing was fixed at £S21.4 million, while the total advances from the Central Bank at the end of June 1968 amounted to £21.2 million. The revenue for the fiscal year 1968–69 for all the units in the public sector was estimated at £S171,878,116, and the maximum limit of borrowing by the government from the Central Bank was fixed at £S24.5 million, while the actual borrowing of the government during that fiscal year was £S24.3 million.

Furthermore, according to the Treasury Bill Act, 1966, the government may borrow by means of treasury bills, provided that the value of such bills outstanding at any time shall not exceed £S5 million. The bulk of treasury bills have already been bought by the commercial banks. At the close of 1968 the value of commercial banks' holdings of treasury bills amounted to £S4.85 million, and £S150,000 was held by other financial institutions in the private sector.

Since the mid-1960s the Sudan government has been finding it more and more difficult to make all its local cash payments, whether wages and salaries or payment to contractors, in time. This seems to be the result of two main factors: underestimation of expenditure and ineffective financial control of government accounts. This problem of the illiquidity of the public sector has forced the government to seek various ways to increase revenue and reduce expenditure, but it has not yet been solved.

The expenditure of the central government has been rising very fast since independence in 1956. In 1949 the total current expenditure of the central government was £S10 million; by 1969–70 it was £S142 million, an increase of more than fourteen times in a period of twenty years. Besides the rise in prices and the normal expansion in government services, increased expenditure on education, national defence and the rise in wages and salaries of the employees of the public sector have accentuated the rate of increase of the total current expenditure in recent years. The expenditure of the Ministry of Defence increased from £S14.1 million in 1965–66 to £S30 million in 1969–70, while the expenditure of the Ministry of Education increased from £S5.8 million in 1965–66 to £S9.8 million in 1969–70. This increase is a direct result of the continued crisis in the Middle East and a strong popular demand for more education. In 1968 the government raised the wages and salaries of its employees by 5–15 per cent and thus wages and salaries amounted to 41 per cent of the expenditure of the Central Government for 1968–69.

LABOUR AND WAGES

The number of persons five years of age and over reported in the 1955–56 census, as mainly engaged in economic activity, was 3,800,000 out of a population

of 10.2 million. In addition, it is estimated, on the basis of detailed tabulations of the census returns, that 1,116,000 persons, whose main activity was not economic, took part in subsidiary economic activity. So the total number engaged to any degree in economic activity is approximately 4,916,000 or 48 per cent of the population. Sudan's labour force is overwhelmingly male. Men make up 56 per cent of the total economically active population, women 24.7 per cent, boys 14.4 per cent and girls 4.9 per cent.

Of all the males and females in the labour force 86.7 per cent are primary producers, 3.3 per cent secondary producers and 10 per cent tertiary producers. All these percentages of sex and industrial distribution of the Sudan's labour force have not, it is thought, changed very much since 1955–56.

Beyond 1956 it is difficult to get any reasonably accurate data in order to assess the labour situation in Sudan. However, the number of wage-earners at present is estimated to be about one million—excluding agricultural workers. About half a million workers are engaged in the public sector and about the same number are employed by the private sector.

Until about 1965 one of the country's major problems was considered to be the shortage of skilled workers. There was heavy dependence on expatriates of Greek and Armenian descent, who filled a high proportion of skilled jobs and managerial and executive posts.

However, by 1965 the major development projects were finished. The most important factories in both private and public sectors, as well as Khashm el Girba and Roseires dams, were finished by that year. In the early 1960s institutes of technical education and training centres were established and by 1965 their graduates could meet the demand for skilled labour. The Khartoum Senior Trade School was opened in 1960 to teach electronics, commerce, electrical installation, machine shop, automobile and diesel mechanics, carpentry, cabinet making, brickwork and draughtsmanship. The Khartoum Technical Institute (Polytechnic) was opened in 1950, but the total enrolment was only 25 in 1950–51. At that time it taught only civil engineering. By 1960 the enrolment had risen to 569 and the institute syllabus included courses in civil engineering, mechanical and electrical engineering, surveying, secretarial work and commerce. An up-grading centre was established in Khartoum in 1960 by the Labour Department to improve the skills of workers already employed in both public and private sectors, and an apprenticeship centre was also established in Khartoum by the government, with German aid, in 1962. Another apprenticeship centre was established in Kosti in 1967.

In fact, after 1965, unemployment began to appear among skilled workers in the towns, and some economists and businessmen began to believe that the shortage of skilled workers was no longer a serious problem to the industrialization of Sudan. Sudan has already started to export skilled workers, clerical staff and teachers to the Arab countries.

The only available figures on unemployment come from the registrations at employment exchanges in

major towns In 1967-68 31,919 were registered as unemployed However, it is obvious that this figure does not represent total open unemployment in Sudan Not all the workers register themselves when they are unemployed, particularly unskilled workers On the other hand, some workers may register more than once, while, when other workers find a job, neither they nor their employers report to the employment exchanges Therefore, the present figures of unemployment in Sudan should be viewed with great caution

There is no legal minimum wage in Sudan However, in the public sector the minimum monthly wage paid for permanent employment is £S13 9, while it is about £S6 in the private sector The daily minimum wage ranges between 25 and 50 piastres depending on the region and the season During the cotton-picking season in the Gezira the daily minimum wage may rise as high as 50 piastres per day Wages and salaries are higher in the public sector than in the private sector, with the exception of modern and large firms in the private sector who only employ a very small percentage of the labour force engaged in the modern sector

Although wages in the public sector are higher than wages in the private sector, they have declined in real terms over the last twenty years or so At best, money wages increased by 40 per cent between 1951 and 1968 A wage increase was given in 1965 and 1968, but the cost of living increased by at least 70 per cent between 1951 and 1968, and therefore real wages declined by about 30 per cent in that period Most wages in the private sector have lagged behind wages in the public sector

POWER AND TRANSPORT

The installed generating capacity of the Sudan in 1970 is 96 685 kW thermal and 29 220 kW hydro The total power generated in 1969 was 310 051,000 kWh The number of consumers is 68 529 residential and commercial, 558 agricultural and 844 industrial All the main towns of Sudan are supplied with electricity and some of the small towns which lie near to the transmission lines, such as Kamlin, also enjoy this

facility Seventeen towns in Sudan are provided with electricity

The volume of electricity used by industry is 118,200,000 kWh, while the volume of electricity used by agriculture for pumps is 26,200,000 kWh The electricity consumption of industry does not include that of ginning factories, the large oil mills and Guneid and Khashm el Girba sugar factories All these generate their own electricity from by-products The grain silos at Gedaref and Port Sudan have their own generating sets

Sudan depends mainly on railways for transport Steamers and motor transport play only a secondary role All weather roads are very limited The total length of asphalt main roads in Sudan is 208 miles, of which Khartoum Province has 178 miles The length of cleared tracks covered with gravel is 3 210 miles The length of just cleared tracks is 7,810 miles and these make up the main network of roads in Sudan However, they are usually impassable immediately after the rains

The rail transport facilities are still far from adequate In 1969-70 the railway network was 4,756 km In 1970 the average density of railways for the whole country is only 1 9 km per 1,000 sq km The river fleet comprises 386 low-speed old steamers of various types River transport is mainly used between Kosti and Juba (1,435 km) and between Dongola and Kareima (187 km) However, river transport between Wadi Halfa and Shellal, which lies partly on Lake Nasser, is under development at present As far as sea transport is concerned, the government company, the Sudan Shipping Line, owns four dry cargo ships of 5 000 tons each At present, only 5 per cent of exports and imports are carried by domestic vessels Two additional dry cargo ships of 20 000 tons each, which are being built in Yugoslavia, will be delivered in 1971-72

The government-owned Sudan Airways, formed in 1947, operates internal and international services It connects Khartoum with twenty important Sudanese towns as well as with Europe, the Middle East and Africa In 1968-69 it carried 122,574 passengers and 1 8 million ton/km

A A S

THE SUDAN—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

STATISTICAL SURVEY

AREA AND POPULATION

TOTAL AREA	ARABLE LAND	PASTURE	FOREST	TOTAL POPULATION (1970)
2,505,805 sq. kilometres	71,000 sq. kilometres	240,000 sq. kilometres	914,999 sq. kilometres	15,503,000

PROVINCES

(1970)

	AREA (sq. km.)	POPULATION		AREA (sq. km.)	POPULATION
Bahr el Ghazal	213,751	1,445,000	Khartoum . . .	20,971	888,000
Blue Nile . . .	142,138	3,195,000	Kordofan . . .	380,546	2,846,000
Darfur . . .	496,369	1,715,000	Northern . . .	477,074	1,147,000
Equatoria . . .	198,121	1,320,000	Upper Nile . . .	236,180	1,298,000
Kassala . . .	340,655	1,649,000			

PRINCIPAL TOWNS

TOWN	POPULATION 1970
Khartoum (capital)	255,740
Omdurman	252,430
El Obeid	68,170
Wadi Medani	74,519
Port Sudan	108,930
Khartoum North	123,050
Atbara	55,669

Because of the flooding of the Wadi Halfa and adjacent areas by the Aswan High Dam, over 50,000 inhabitants have been resettled in Khashm el Girba, on the Atbara River.

TRIBAL DIVISIONS

(1956 Census)

	'000	%
Arab	3,989	39
Southerners (Nilotic, Nilo-Hamitic, Sudanic)	3,056	30
Western People	1,315	13
Nuba	573	6
Beja	646	6
Nubiyin	330	3
Miscellaneous	94	1

The remaining 2 per cent was made up of 260,000 foreigners.

Employment: 87 per cent of the labour force is engaged in agricultural or pastoral activities.

AGRICULTURE

COTTON CROP

(1 feddan=1.038 acres=4,201 sq. metres; 1 large kantar=141.523 kg.)

	AREA (feddans)			PRODUCTION (large kantars)		
	1967-68	1968-69	1969-70	1967-68	1968-69	1969-70
Long Staple	783,953	720,208	827,125	3,113,184	3,876,815	3,748,912
Medium and Short Staple	365,031	397,784	438,028	613,928	753,244	901,399
TOTAL	1,148,984	1,117,992	1,265,153	3,727,112	4,630,059	4,650,311

THE SUDAN—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

OTHER CROPS

Crop	Area (feddans)		Production (tons)	
	1957-58	1963-69	1957-58	1963-69
Groundnuts	846 922	822 688	297 366	184 838
Sesame	1 234 368	1 345 494	186 368	163 705
Dura	4 699 576	2 633 921	1 979 890	618 779
Millet	1 452 330	1 436 073	368 513	266 491

Livestock (1968—000) Cattle 10 900 Sheep 10 100 Goats 8 500 Camels 2 300

FRUIT AND VEGETABLES

(1968—tons)

Dates	50 000
Bananas	20 000
Mangoes	15 000
Lemons	9 500
Gnavas	4 000
Oranges	3 000
Grapefruit	1 500
Onions	32 000

TIMBER PRODUCTION

	Unit	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69
Railway Sleepers	number	90 000	86 300	86 000	112 049
Poles		51 497	89 379	394 929	390 000
Bamboo Canes		250 890	164 661	258 368	350 000
Firewood	cu metres	78 826	82 466	105 894	107 697
Other Sawn Wood		3 500	3 700	3 434	3 502

GUM ARABIC PRODUCTION

(tons)

Season	Gum Hashab	Gum Tali	Total
1965-66	47 960	2 444	50 404
1966-67	42 713	2 296	45 009
1967-68	58 896	2 649	61 545
1968-69	40 955	4 592	45 547
1969-70*	30 000	4 000	34 000

* Estimates

THE SUDAN—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

INDUSTRY PRODUCTION

	UNIT	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69
Cement	'000 tons	73.2	101.1	128.7	140.7
Flour of Wheat	" "	44.1	39.9	48.8	51.5
Sugar	" "	25.0	71.1	93.3	90.8
Soap	" "	18.8	18.8	18.4	18.2
Wine	'000 litres	1,254.8	1,650.9	1,634.6	1,453.8
Beer	" "	7,487.5	7,778.7	7,447.6	7,159.1
Cigarettes	'000 kilos	535.0	647.4	660.9	532.9
Matches	billion	3.1	3.9	4.0	3.9
Shoes	million pairs	7.2	8.2	9.5	10.7
Textiles	yards	79,503.0	56,170.0	93,122.0	101,350.0
Alcohol	'000 litres	457.0	542.1	552.6	464.0
Oil	'000 tons	—	17.0	36.0	46.0

ELECTRICITY OUTPUT

YEAR	CAPACITY (kWh.)	UNITS GENERATED ('000 kWh.)	UNITS SOLD ('000 kWh.)
1966 . . .	91,036	261,964	214,214
1967 . . .	91,976	317,865	254,468
1968 . . .	97,412	333,795	293,851
1969 . . .	130,893	528,176	430,173

MINING PRODUCTION

	UNIT	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969
Iron Ore	'000 tons	35	14	39	—	—
Manganese Ore	tons	800	2,500	1,500	5,000	850
Chromium Ore	"	11,000	25,000	17,391	22,086	23,944
Gold	ounces	215	—	111	29	—
Magnesite	tons	—	4,000	3,000	6,500	500
Salt Unrefined	'000 tons	52	57	43	50	51

THE SUDAN—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

FINANCE

1 Sudanese pound (£S) = 100 piastres = 1 000 milliemes

£S 835 = £1 sterling £S 350 = U.S. \$1

£S100 = £118 75 sterling = U.S. \$157

BUDGET ESTIMATES FOR CURRENT REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE

REVENUE	1965-69	1969-70	EXPENDITURE	1965-69	1969-70
Direct Taxation	8 800 000	17 500 000	Ministry of Agriculture and Forests	3 075 961	3 558 739
Indirect Taxation	56 275 250	61 201 000	Ministry of Communications and Tourism	1 726 050	4 239 099
Fees and Charges, etc.	7 197 781	8 129 786	Ministry of Education	8 312 580	9 803 319
Proceeds from Government Enterprises	-8 833 250	42 395 227	Ministry of Health	5 678 720	6 585 877
Interest and Dividends	1 166 227	1 217 037	Ministry of Works	2 610 495	3 826 839
Pension Contributions	2 300 000	1 373 964	Works	1 957 067	2 434 941
Reimbursement and Inter-Departmental Services	7 629 177	7 203 271	Ministry of Irrigation	3 785 984	3 852 513
Other Sources	1 274 858	1 093 435	Department of Stores and Equipment	1 659 056	1 104 171
			Other Ministries and Departments	43 772 396	65 083 411
			General Central Services	25 117 369	40 623 911
			Constitutional Commissions	367 721	—
TOTAL REVENUE	113,476 573	142 113 720	TOTAL EXPENDITURE	100 063 399	141 113 720
			SURPLUS	13 413 174	1 000 000
	113 476 573	142 113 720		113 476 573	142 113 720

THE TEN YEAR DEVELOPMENT PLAN

(£S million—1961-62 to 1970-71)

	PRIVATE	PUBLIC	TOTAL
Agriculture Livestock and Forestry	30	90	120
Industry Mining Public Utilities	65	43	107
Transport and Distribution	32	63	95
Social Services Administration	60	90	150
Replacement Capital	41	51	93
TOTAL	228	337	565

Five-Year Plan (1970-75) £S700 mill on capital investment by public sector

Expenditure (1964-65) £S30 6 million.

(1965-66) £S30 0 million

(1966-67) £S30 7 million.

(1967-68) £S34 4 mill on

(1968-69) £S33 4 mill on

THE SUDAN—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

NATIONAL ACCOUNTS

(£S'000)

	1966	1967
Wages and Salaries . . .	315,238	338,632
Operating Surplus . . .	110,221	117,488
Domestic Factor Income .	425,459	456,120
Wages and Salaries Paid		
Abroad (net)	—2,924	—1,774
Property and Entrepreneurial		
Income Paid Abroad (net) .	—3,023	—3,049
Indirect Taxes	45,737	50,467
Less Subsidies	—5,083	—4,090
National Income at Market		
Price	460,166	497,674
Other Current Transfers to the		
Rest of the World (net) .	—1,939	—2,042
National Disposable Income .	458,227	495,632
National Disposable Income per		
capita (£S)	32.7	33.8

COMPOSITION OF THE MODERN SECTOR OF THE ECONOMY

(£S million)

	1965-66	%	1966-67	%	1967-68	%
Agriculture	72.8	32.1	71.2	31.5	83.4	33.6
Transport and Distribution and						
Banking	66.5	29.3	66.7	29.5	75.0	30.3
Industries	26.3	11.6	26.6	11.8	27.2	10.9
Administration and Social Services.	47.8	21.0	47.8	21.1	48.3	19.5
Other Services	13.7	6.0	13.8	6.1	14.0	5.7
TOTAL	227.1	100.0	226.1	100.0	247.9	100.0

THE SUDAN—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

WITHDRAWALS FROM FOREIGN AID: GRANTS, LONG-TERM AND MEDIUM-TERM LOANS AND IN KIND, 1960-69

SOURCE	RATES OF INTEREST PER ANNUM	£\$ MILLION			
		Grants	In Kind	Long- and Medium-term Loans	Total
IBRD	5½-6½			22.2	22.2
IDA	Free			4.4	4.4
Yugoslavia	3	0.3	1.5	2.5	4.3
U.S.S.R.	2		2.5	5.2	7.7
Bulgaria	n.a.		1.6		1.6
Czechoslovakia	3		3.3	0.3	3.6
Saudi Arabia	5			13.3	13.3
Kuwait	3½-4			16.5	16.5
U.A.R.	Free		3.0	1.1	4.1
Algeria	Free			0.9	0.9
Libya	n.a.			7.4	7.4
Italy	4½		5.7		5.7
Holland	5½		3.0	1.1	4.1
American Aid	—	20.6			20.6
Britain (E.C.G.D.)	6½		0.1	3.1	3.2
Suppliers' Credit	n.a.		8.0	0.6	8.6
UN Technical Assistance	Free	2.3			2.3
France	7½			3.0	3.0
Sweden	2			1.0	1.0
Germany	4½-6			6.4	6.4
TOTAL		23.3	25.5	89.2	140.9

Sources: Computed from the Bank of Sudan Annual Reports, 1960-69.

BALANCE OF PAYMENTS ESTIMATES (£\$ million)

	1967-68	1968-69
Receipts:		
Cotton exports	30.0	50
Other exports	33.8	41
Invisible	15.0	14
Foreign loans	14.8	15
Other short-term capital	2.9	3
	111.4	123
Payments:		
Government imports	18.9	20
Private sector imports	70.1	73
Invisible	23.7	27
Repayments of capital	3.6	6
	116.3	126
Deficit	4.9	3

THE SUDAN—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

EXTERNAL TRADE

(£S million)

	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969
Imports . . .	72.3	77.4	81.1	89.7	89.3
Exports . . .	68.0	70.7	74.6	81.2	86.3

PRINCIPAL COMMODITIES

(£S '000)

IMPORTS	1968	1969	1970*	EXPORTS	1968	1969	1970*
Sugar	4,165	2,715	1,635	Animals	2,131	2,332	1,554
Tea	4,013	2,210	2,109	Cotton, Ginned	48,562	49,498	44,619
Coffee	2,091	453	1,331	Cotton Seed	893	1,489	1,067
Wheat Flour	2,138	1,125	449	Cotton Seed Oil	881	920	743
Textiles	19,817	16,561	8,456	Dura	1,071	43	60
Clothing	1,561	749	369	Groundnuts	4,598	5,991	3,989
Footwear	637	585	103	Gum Arabic	7,849	8,699	6,201
Sacks and Jute	1,712	2,611	2,347	Oilseed Cake	4,425	3,879	1,748
Cement	54	47	29	Sesame	6,217	8,017	4,746
Fertilizers	944	1,397	1,106	Hides and Skins	1,509	1,803	1,120
Machinery, Apparatus, Vehicles	17,618	22,790	17,301				
Tyres	1,318	1,485	814				
Petroleum Products	4,766	8,809	5,239				
Pharmaceuticals	2,060	2,200	1,895				
Iron and Steel	3,490	4,594	2,352				

* First seven months.

COTTON EXPORTS BY COUNTRIES

(million tons)

	1968	1969	1970*
German Federal Republic	34,411	21,034	11,877
India	25,101	29,913	19,651
Italy	23,754	28,596	17,268
Japan	15,519	15,663	7,721
United Kingdom	13,605	15,038	9,839
People's Republic of China	12,381	13,735	9,407
United States	1,024	935	1,665
U.S.S.R.	1,065	8,319	51,491
Romania	2,116	6,126	2,221
France	3,643	2,925	4,345
Netherlands	3,884	859	709
Hungary	4,467	3,124	3,667
Poland	5,906	4,839	2,210
TOTAL (all countries)	183,462	172,425	160,266

* First seven months.

THE SUDAN—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES

(£S 000)

	IMPORTS				EXPORTS			
	1967	1968	1969	1970*	1967	1968	1969	1970*
Belgium	1 643	1 830	2 094	1 040	1 600	2 206	1 957	1 023
China People's Republic	6 375	5 993	4 876	1 987	2 656	4 838	6 430	3 340
France	1 711	3 325	3 351	961	4 013	2 061	1 307	1 389
German Federal Republic	4 313	4 647	5 771	3 890	8 810	12 256	10 142	6 386
India	8 219	9 342	9 063	7 991	6 817	7 946	10 133	6 634
Italy	3 347	4 990	4 327	1 002	8 790	9 713	10 777	5 916
Japan	4 665	8 113	7 153	3 781	5 718	6 652	8 010	5 403
Netherlands	2 552	2 346	3 512	1 730	4 571	4 276	3 359	1 828
Poland	960	1 498	1 789	545	936	1 786	1 544	665
U.S.S.R.	1 101	6 223	4 486	3 748	3 223	4 818	3 389	15 274
United Arab Republic	3 324	3 516	3 848	2 431	2 940	2 402	3 914	3 860
United Kingdom	16 349	15 831	16 944	11 851	5 826	4 800	5 762	3 737
U.S.A.	9 352	1 945	2 605	1 275	4 559	2 760	3 010	2 704
Yugoslavia	410	639	770	337	68	831	989	902
Others	16 861	19 471	21 887	16 129	13 532	13 489	14 901	9 165
TOTAL	81 182	89 709	92 476	58 698	74 059	80 834	85 624	68 226

* First seven months

TRANSPORT

RAILWAYS

(1968-69)

Number of Passengers (000)	3 548
Freight (000 tons)	2 669

ROADS

(1969)

Passenger Vehicles	29 094
Goods Vehicles	21 413
Motor Cycles	1 973

SHIPPING

	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969
Number of Ships calling at Port Sudan	1 087	1 223	1 004	845	770
Total Inward Tonnage	1 440 789	1 427 743	1 528 183	1 594 019	1 582 369
Total Outward Tonnage	921 689	941 317	866 948	952 449	950 975

CIVIL AVIATION

(Sudan Airways—International Traffic)

	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969
Number of Passengers	45 793	50 673	31 367	36 975	65 293
Freight (kg)	492 871 2	402 227 8	501 231 5	344 338	837 966

Source: Department of Statistics H.Q. Council of Ministers Khartoum

THE CONSTITUTION

In December 1955 a Transitional Constitution was adopted, under which the highest authority was vested in a Supreme Commission of five members, who were responsible for appointing the Prime Minister and his Cabinet from amongst the members of Parliament.

This Transitional Constitution was suspended following the military *coup d'état* of 1958, but the provisional

Government which took office after the overthrow of the military regime in October 1964, announced its intention of governing under the terms of the 1955 Constitution.

The Constituent Assembly, whose term had been extended in 1968, was abolished by the new regime in May 1969.

THE GOVERNMENT

NATIONAL REVOLUTIONARY COUNCIL

President: Maj.-Gen. JAAFAR AL NEMERY.

COUNCIL OF MINISTERS

(August 1971)

Prime Minister and Minister of Planning: Maj.-Gen. JAAFAR AL NEMERY.

Minister of Defence: Brig. KHALID H. ABBAS.

Minister of Foreign Affairs: Dr. MANSOUR KHALID.

Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Justice: ABU BAKR AWADALLA.

Assistant Prime Minister for Agricultural Sector and Minister of Animal Resources: Dr. MOHD. EL NASRI HAMZA.

Assistant Prime Minister for Public Services, and the Interior: Maj. ABU AL GASIM MUHAMMAD IBRAHIM.

Minister of State for Presidential Affairs and Head of National Security: Maj. MAMOUN AWAD ABU ZEID.

Minister for the Economy: MOHAMED I. MAHMUD.

Minister of Education: Dr. MOHI AL DIN SABIR.

Minister of Industry and Mining: AHMED SULIMAN.

Minister of Local Government: GAAFAR MOHAMED ALI BEKHIT.

Minister of Finance and Planning: Brig. MUHAMMAD ABDEL HALIM.

Minister of Works: SAYED LUIGI ADOK.

Minister of Health: Dr. TAHIA BASHER.

Minister of Irrigation and Hydro-Electricity: SAYED YAHIA ABDEL MAJID.

Minister of Transport and Communications: Maj. ZEIN ABDIN MOHD. AHMED ABDEL GADER.

Minister of National Guidance: Brig. OMER AL HAG MUSA.

Minister of Housing: MUBARAK SINADA.

Minister of Co-operation, Agriculture and Rural Development: Dr. OSMAN ABU AL GASIM.

Minister of Southern Affairs: SAYED ABEL ALIER.

Minister of Youth and Social Guidance: Maj. ABU AL GASIM HASHIM.

Minister of Labour: SAYED MUSA EL MUBARAK.

Minister of State: Dr. TOBI MADOT.

DIPLOMATIC REPRESENTATION

REPRESENTATIVES OF THE SUDAN ABROAD

(A) Ambassador, (M) Minister, (CA) Charge d'Affaires.

- Afghanistan:** (see Pakistan)
Albania: (see Italy)
Algeria: ABULBAK OTHMANE MUHAMMAD SALEH Algiers (A)
Austria: (see Italy)
Belgium: MUHAMMAD ABDEL MAGID AHMED Brussels (A)
Bulgaria: (see USSR)
Central African Republic: HASSAN EL HAMIN EL BECHIR, Bangui (A)
Ceylon: (see India)
Chad: BASHIR AL AHMADI 1001 Lamy (A)
China, People's Republic: ABDEL WAHAN ZEIN AL ABDIEM Peking (A)
Congo (Kinshasa): FADHL OBEID Kinshasa (A)
Cyprus: (see Greece)
Czechoslovakia: (see USSR)
Ethiopia: OSMAN ABDULLAH HAMID Addis Ababa (A)
France: OSMAN HASHIM Paris (A) (also accredited to Netherlands Spain and Switzerland)
German Democratic Republic: HASSAN DARAWI Berlin (A)
Ghana: AL BASHIR ABDEL MUTA'AL, Accra (A) (also accredited to Liberia)
Greece: ABDEL KARIM MIRGHANI, Athens (A) (also accredited to Cyprus)
Hungary: (see USSR)
India: AMRY MAGZHOUB ABDOUN New Delhi (A) (also accredited to Ceylon)
Iraq: SHARIF AHMED, Baghdad (CA) (also accredited to Jordan and Turkey)
Italy: (vacant), Rome (A) (also accredited to Austria and Albania)
Japan: SALAH AL DIN BADIKIR, Tokyo (A)
Jordan: SAYED SHARIF, Amman (CA)
Kenya: (vacant) Nairobi (A)
Kuwait: MARGHOUT MALKAWI BADIKIR Kuwait (A)
Lebanon: MUSTAPHA MADANI, Beirut (A)
Liberia: (see Ghana)
Libya: MUHAMMAD KAMAL AL BAKKI Tripoli (A)
Morocco: (see United Arab Republic)
Netherlands: (see France)
Nigeria: HAMID MUHAMMAD AL AMIN, Lagos (A)
Pakistan: AL NUR ALI SULZIMAN, Karachi (A) (also accredited to Afghanistan)
Poland: (see USSR)
Saudi Arabia: BUSRRA HAMID GABRA'LDAR Jeddah (A)
Somalia: BRIG AHMED AL BASHIR SHIDDAAD Mogadishu (A)
Spain: (see France)
Switzerland: (see France)
Tanzania: BARNABAS WILSON, Dar es Salaam (A)
Turkey: (see Iraq)
Uganda: MUHAMMAD OTHMAN SHANDI, Kampala (A)
USSR: (vacant) Moscow (A) (also accredited to Bulgaria Czechoslovakia Hungary Poland and Romania)
United Arab Republic (Egypt): MUHAMMAD SOLIMAN MUHAMMAD AHMED Cairo (A) (also accredited to Morocco)
United Kingdom: ARDIN ISMAIL London (A)
Yugoslavia: (vacant) Belgrade (A)

United Nations: (vacant) New York (Perm Rep)

EMBASSIES AND LEGATIONS IN KHARTOUM

(C) Embassy, (L) Legation.

- Austria:** Slavos Bldg (E)
Belgium: 3GE Contomichalos St, P O B 969, Ambassador ROBERT SIX
Bulgaria: House 7, St 4Y, P O B 1690, Ambassador (vacant)
Chad: House 9 Block 9A, New Extension P O B 1514 Ambassador ABDARAHMAN MUSA
China: 69 31st St, P O B 1425 Ambassador YU PEI WEN
Central African Republic: Block 12DE 17th St, New Extension Ambassador JEAN PIERRE KOMBET
Congo Democratic Republic: 29th St, New Extension, Ambassador COL ANDRÉ SIMON MEAN
Czechoslovakia: Plot 18 Block 4ZE P O B 1947, Ambassador JAN STARESECK
Ethiopia: New Extension Ambassador MENGISTE DESTA
France: Plot 2 Block 6HE, Ambassador MARC POPILET
Ghana: Plot 21, Block 4 St 15 P O B 1418 (L)
Greece: Block 74 31st Ave, P O B 1182, Ambassador, PAVLOS PANDERMALIS
Hungary: Block 12A, Plot 6, 3rd St, P O B 1033, Ambassador KAROLY SZARKA
India: Kronfli Bldg, Gamhouriya St, P O B 707, Ambassador P L BHANDARI
Iraq: Aboul Ela New Bldg, P O B 1138 (E)
Italy: 51 Gamhouriya St; Ambassador MARIO UNGARO
Japan: Gellatly House, P O B 1649 Ambassador MASA-YUKI HIRAGAI
Jordan: 7th St, New Extension, Ambassador JAWDAT AL-MUNHEISSY

THE SUDAN—(DIPLOMATIC REPRESENTATION, CONSTITUENT ASSEMBLY, POLITICAL PARTIES, ETC.)

Kuwait: 21B, 9th St., New Extension; *Ambassador:* YOUSIF ABDEL-LATIF EL-ABDEL-RAZAK.

Lebanon: House 60, 49th St., P.O.B. 1407; *Ambassador:* ADEL ISMAIL.

Libya: 7th St., New Extension, P.O.B. 2091 (L).

Netherlands: Sharia El-Mahdi, cnr. Sharia El-Gama'a, P.O.B. 391; *Ambassador:* P. W. H. SCHAEPMAN.

Niger: No. 1, New Extension (L).

Nigeria: House 1, Block 5, East, P.O.B. 1538 (E); *Ambassador:* ALHAJI NUGU MOHAMED.

Pakistan: House 58, Plot 27, Block 2FE, P.O.B. 1178; *Ambassador:* SAAD RASHIDUL KHAIRI.

Poland: 73 Africa Rd., P.O.B. 902 (L).

Saudi Arabia: Block 10-1, New Extension, P.O.B. 852; *Ambassador:* SHEIKH ABDALLA EL MALHOUG.

Somalia: No. 18, Block 11, New Extension; *Ambassador:* ABDALLA ADEN AHMED.

Sweden: Sharia El-Mek Nimr, Barlaman Ave., P.O.B. 2206; *Ambassador:* TORD B. HAGEN.

Switzerland: Aboul Ela New Bldg., P.O.B. 1717; *Ambassador:* ANDRÉ PARODI.

Syria: 3rd St., New Extension, *Ambassador:* HAFEZ EL-JAMALI.

Turkey: 71 Africa Rd., P.O.B. 771; *Ambassador:* CEMIL MIROGLU.

United Arab Republic: El Mogran Residential Area; *Ambassador:* MOHAMED KAMAL EL DIN KHALIL.

United Kingdom: Aboul Ela New Bldg., P.O.B. 801; *Ambassador:* ROBERT FOWLER.

U.S.S.R.: St. 5, P.O.B. 1161; *Ambassador:* ANATOLY NIKOLAEVIC NIKOLAEV.

Yemen: St. 35 (L).

Yugoslavia: 79A, 31st St.; *Ambassador:* GOJKO ZARKOVIC.

Sudan also has diplomatic relations with Afghanistan, Albania, Cameroon, Ceylon, Congo People's Republic, Cyprus, Denmark, Dahomey, Finland, Gabon, the German Democratic Republic, Guinea, Liberia, Mali, Morocco, Norway, Spain, Tanzania, Uganda and the Democratic Republic of Viet-Nam.

CONSTITUENT ASSEMBLY

The Assembly was dissolved in May 1969

POLITICAL PARTIES

All political organizations were banned by the new government in June 1969.

Azania Liberation Front: Kampala, Uganda; Anyanya, the Front's military arm, provide the only rebel resistance in the southern Sudan since the Nile Provisional Government was dissolved in July 1970.

JUDICIAL SYSTEM

The administration of justice is the function of the Judiciary, as a separate and independent department of state. The general administrative supervision and control of the Judiciary is vested in the Chief Justice.

Civil Justice: is administered by the Courts constituted under the Civil Justice Ordinance, namely the High Court of Justice—consisting of the Court of Appeal and Judges of the High Court, sitting as Courts of original jurisdiction—and Provincial Courts—consisting of the Courts of Province and District Judges.

Criminal Justice: is administered by the Courts constituted under the Code of Criminal Procedure, namely Major Courts, Minor Courts and Magistrates' Courts. Serious crimes are tried by Major Courts which are composed of a President and two members and have power to pass the death sentence. Major Courts are as a rule presided over by a Judge of the High Court appointed to a Provincial Circuit, or a Province Judge. There is a right of appeal to the Chief Justice against any decision or order of a Major Court and all findings and sentences of a Major Court are subject to confirmation by him.

Lesser crimes are tried by Minor Courts consisting of three Magistrates and presided over by a Second Class Magistrate and by Magistrates' Courts consisting of a single Magistrate, or a bench of lay Magistrates.

Local Courts: try a substantial portion of the Criminal and Civil cases in the Sudan and work in parallel to some extent with the State Courts.

Chief Justice: UTHMAN AS SAYID.

MUHAMMADAN LAW COURTS

Justice in personal matters for the Muslim population is administered by the Muhammadan Law Courts, which form the Sharia Division of the Judiciary. These Courts consist of the Court of Appeal, High Courts and Qadis' Courts, and President of the Sharia Division is the Grand Qadi. The religious Law of Islam is administered by these Courts in matters of inheritance, marriage, divorce, family relationships and charitable trusts.

Grand Qadi: Sheikh YAHYA ABDEL GASIM.

RELIGION

The majority of Sudanese are vigorous followers of Islam—it will be remembered that the Mahdi of 1896 was a religious leader—but some communities in the south remain untouched by Islam and practise animism or fertility worship. The cultural contrast between the Muhamadan north and centre and the non-Muslim south with differences in race language religion and outlook gives rise to one principal political problem of the Sudan. According to a 1955 survey the religious adherence of the population was as follows

Muslim	6 474 453
Animist	2 428 703
Catholic	162 745
Protestant	94 981
Orthodox	12 523
Jewish	380

The population has since grown by some 50 per cent so these figures should probably be increased proportionately

MUSLIM COMMUNITY

(Mainly divided into the following sects.)

Qadria Heads of important local sub-sections include

Sheikh AHMED EL GAALI
Sheikh ISRAHIM EL KABASHI
YOUSUF EL SHEIKH OMAR EL OBEID
KHALIFA BARAKAT EL SHEIKH
Sheikh HAMAD EL NIL ABD EL BAGI
Sheikh ABD EL BAGI EL MUKASHFI

Shadhila Heads of local sub-sections include

Sheikh EL MAGDOUB EL BESHIR
Sheikh GAMAR EL DAWLA EL MAGDOUB

Idrisia Heads of local sub-sections include

Sheikh EL HASSAN EL IDRISI

Khatmiya MUHAMMAD OSMAN EL MIRGHANI

Sammamia Sheikh FATEH GHARIBALLA.

Imamia Sayed JAYAL ASPIA EL SAYED EL MERKI

Ansari Sayed EL HADI AHMED EL MAHDI

CHRISTIAN COMMUNITIES

Coptic Orthodox Church Bishop of Nubia Atbara and Omdurman Rt Rev BAKHOMIOS

Bishop of Khartoum S Sudan and Uganda Rt Rev ANBA YOUSANNIS

Greek Orthodox Church Metropolitan of Nubia Arch bishop SINASSIOS

Greek Evangelical Church (Vacant)

Evangelical Church Rev RADI ELIAS

Episcopal Church in the Sudan Clergy House P O B 135 Khartoum Bishop in the Sudan The Rt Rev OLIVER C. ALLISON Asst. Bishops The Rt Rev YEREMAYA DOTIRO The Rt. Rev ELIVANA NGALAMU The Rt. Rev BUTRUS SHUKAI The Rt Rev BENJAMINA YUGUSUK

Catholic Church

Roman Rite

Vicariate Apostolic of Khartoum P O B 49 Khartoum Rt. Rev Bishop AUGUSTINE BARONI

Vicariate Apostolic of Wau P O B 29 Wau Rt Rev Bishop IRENEUS DUD

Vicariate Apostolic of Juba P O B 32 Juba Rt. Rev Mgr SILVESTRO LAHARANIA Apostolic Administrator

Vicariate Apostolic of El Obeid P O B 386 El Obeid Rt Rev Mgr FRANCO CAZZANIGA

Apostolic Administrator Prefecture Apostolic of Malakal P O B 27 Malakal

Rt. Rev Mgr PIUS YUKWAN

Maronite Church P O B 244 Khartoum Rev Fr JOSEPH NEAMA.

Greek Catholic Church P O B 766 Khartoum Archimandrite BASILIOS HAGGAR.

Jewish Community Chief Rabbi (Vacant)

THE PRESS

The Press was nationalized on August 27th 1970. A General Corporation for Press Printing and Publications was set up with two publishing houses the Al Ayam (P O B 363 Khartoum) and the Al Rai Al Amm (P O B 424 Khartoum). These two houses publish all the following newspapers and magazines with the exception of those produced by other ministries

DAILIES

Al Ayam P O B 363 Khartoum Arabic.

Al Sahafa P O B 424 Khartoum 1961 Arabic

Sudan Standard P O B 424 Khartoum English

PERIODICALS

Huna Omdurman 1942 Arabic weekly Sudan Broadcasting Service Magazine published by Ministry of National Guidance

Khartoum P O B 424 Khartoum Arabic monthly

Nile Mirror English weekly published by Ministry for Southern Affairs

El Rai Al Amm P O B 424 Khartoum Arabic weekly

Sudan Cotton Bulletin P O B 1672 Khartoum English approx quarterly published by State Cotton Marketing Corporation

El Sudan El Qadid P O B 363 Khartoum Arabic weekly

Sudanese Economist Khartoum English monthly economic and commercial review

NEWS AGENCIES

Sudan National News Agency P O B 624 Khartoum 1971 daily and weekly summaries in English and Arabic Man ABDEL KARIM OSMAN EL MAHDI

FOREIGN BUREAUX

Middle East News Agency. Dalala Bldg P O B 740 Khartoum.

Tass also has a bureau in Khartoum

PUBLISHERS

African Printing House: Press House, P.O.B. 1228, Khartoum; f. 1960; publishers of *al-Sahafa*; also African News Service; Gen. Man. ABDUL RAHMAN MUKHTAR.

Ahmed Abdel Rahman El Tikeina: P.O. Box 299, Port Sudan.

Al Avam Press Co. Ltd.: Aboul Ela Building, United Nations Square, P.O. Box 363, Khartoum; f. 1953; Man. Dir. BESHIR MUHAMMAD SAID; newspapers, pamphlets and books.

Al Salam Co. Ltd. P.O. Box 197, Khartoum.

Central Office of Information: Khartoum; government publishing office; publications include the *Sudan Almanac*.

Claudios S. Fellas: P.O. Box 641, Khartoum.

Fuad Rashed: Wadi Halfa.

McCorquodale and Co. (Sudan) Ltd.: P.O. Box 38, Khartoum.

Mitchell Cotts and Co. (ME) Ltd.: P.O. Box 221, Khartoum.

RADIO AND TELEVISION

Sudan Broadcasting Service: P.O. Box 572, Omdurman; a government-controlled radio station which broadcasts daily in Arabic and English; Acting Dir. M. EL OBEID.

In 1968 there were 180,000 radio receivers.

Sudan Television Service (STS): P.O.B. 1094, Omdurman; f. 1962; thirty-five hours of programmes per week. Dir.-Gen. ALI M. SHUMMO.

In 1970 there were 50,000 television receivers.

FINANCE

BANKING

(cap.=capital; p.u.=paid up; dep.=deposits; m.=million)

CENTRAL BANK

Bank of Sudan: P.O. Box 313, Khartoum; f. 1960; acts as banker and financial adviser to the Government and has sole right of issue of Sudanese banknotes; cap. p.u. £51.5m.; Governor ABDEL LATIF HASSAN; Deputy Gov. (vacant); Gen. Man. EL FAKI MUSTAFA; 10 brs; publ. *Economic and Financial Bulletin* (quarterly), *Foreign Trade Statistical Digest* (quarterly), *Annual Report*.

COMMERCIAL BANKS

El Nilein Bank: P.O.B. 466, Khartoum; f. 1965 as a partnership between the Bank of Sudan and the Crédit Lyonnais; 4 branches Chair. Dr. BASHIR EL BAKRI.

Juba Commercial Bank: P.O.B. 1186, Khartoum; formerly the Commercial Bank of Ethiopia; especially concerned with the non-Muslim south and with trading relations with African countries; 2 brs.; Gen. Man. AZIZ MUSTAFA ABU EISA.

Omdurman National Bank: Khartoum; formerly the Ottoman (National and Grindlays) Bank; 10 brs.

People's Bank: P.O.B. 922, Khartoum; formerly the Misr Bank; 6 brs.

Red Sea Commercial Bank: Khartoum; formerly the Arab Bank; 3 brs.

State Bank for Foreign Trade: P.O.B. 1008, Khartoum; formerly Barclays Bank D.C.O.; 23 brs.

Sudan Commercial Bank: P.O. Box 1116, Khartoum; f. 1960; cap. p.u. £51,099,611; dep. £58,280,000; Chair. MAHADI AHMED; Gen. Man. IBRAHIM GAR; 6 brs.

DEVELOPMENT BANKS

Agricultural Bank of Sudan: P.O. Box 1363, Khartoum; f. 1957; cap. £57m.; provides agricultural credit; Chair. HAMMAD TEWFIK HAMMAD; Managing Dir. SALIH MUHAMMAD SALIH.

Estate Bank of Sudan: Khartoum.

Industrial Bank of Sudan: P.O.B. 1722, Khartoum; f. 1962; cap. £52m.

FOREIGN BANKS

All foreign banks were nationalized on May 26th, 1970 (see under Commercial Banks).

INSURANCE COMPANIES

There are over forty foreign insurance companies operating in the Sudan.

TRADE AND INDUSTRY

Sudan Gezira Board: H.Q. Barakat; Sales Office, P.O.B. 884, Khartoum; Chair. and Man. Dir. Dr. KAMAL AGABAWI; Deputy Gen. Man. MAHMOUD MOHD. ALI; Financial Controller ABDALLA JAMAM; Agricultural Man. SAYD. ABDALLA HASHIM; Sales Man. SAYD. BESHIR MEDANI; Sec. EL TAYIB GHALIB.

The Sudan Gezira Board is responsible for Sudan's main cotton producing area. Starting in 1911 as a company enterprise, it was nationalized in 1950 and has since then been run by a Board of Directors, consisting of 8 to 11

members. In 1969 the Revolutionary Government formed a temporary Board of Directors consisting of six officials and a tenant farmers' representative pending an extensive reorganization of the Board.

The Gezira Scheme represents a partnership between the Government, the tenants and the Board. The Government, which provides the land and is responsible for irrigation, receives 36 per cent of the net proceeds; the tenants (who numbered over 86,000 in 1970 and who do the actual cultivation) receive 50 per cent. The Board receives 10 per

THE SUDAN—(TRADE AND INDUSTRY)

cent and the balance is shared between the Local Government Councils in the Scheme area and the Social Development Fund set up to provide social services for the inhabitants.

The total possible cultivable area of the Gezira Scheme is over 5 million acres and the total area under systematic irrigation is now almost 2 million acres. In addition to cotton, groundnuts, sorghum, wheat and millet are grown for the benefit of tenant farmers.

Publications Annual Report, Annual Statement of Accounts, El Gezira News Paper (weekly), Weekly Bulletin.

CHAMBER OF COMMERCE

Sudan Chamber of Commerce: P.O.B. 81, Khartoum; f 1908, Pres ABDEL SALAM ABOUL ELA, Hon Treas TH. APOSTOLOU, Hon Sec. SAYED SALEH OSMAN SALEH

TRADE UNIONS

FEDERATIONS

Federation of Sudanese Workers' Unions (F.S.W.U.): P.O.B. 2258, Khartoum, f 1963; includes 135 affiliates totalling 450,000 mems, affiliated to the International Confederation of Trade Union Federations and the All African Trade Union Federation; Pres AWADALLAH IBRAHIM, Sec-Gen (vacant), publi. *Al Taha* (Arabic, weekly), *Bulletin* (English and Arabic, monthly)

Federation of Workers' Trade Unions of the Private Sector: Khartoum, f. 1965, Pres SALIH ABDEL RAHMAN.

Federation of Workers' Trade Unions of the Public Sector: Khartoum; f. 1965.

PRINCIPAL UNIONS

In 1958 all Trade Unions were dissolved, but legislation in 1961 permitted registration of Trade Unions satisfying certain conditions. The larger ones are

Central Electricity and Water Administration Trade Unions: P.O.B. 1380, Khartoum, 3,000 mems; Pres ALI SAID; Sec-Gen. MAHJUB SID AHMED

Department of Agriculture Trade Union: Khartoum Worker's Club, Khartoum, 1,170 mems, Pres ABDAL-KARIM SADALLAH, Sec-Gen. ABDULLAH IBRAHIM

Egyptian Irrigation Department Trade Union: Khartoum; 1,210 mems; Pres FADEL ABD-AL-WAHAB, Sec-Gen. MUHAMMAD AL SAHYD MUHAMMAD.

Forestry Department Trade Union: c/o Forests Department, Al Sukei; f. 1961, 2,510 mems; Pres IMAN UMAR, Sec-Gen. MUHAMMED IBRAHIM AHMED

Gezira Board Non-Agricultural Workers' Union: c/o Gezira Board, Wad Medani, f. 1961, 6,600 mems; Pres SULAYMAN ABD-AL-FARAJ, Sec-Gen. MIRGHANI ABD-AL-RAHIM.

Khartoum Municipality Trade Union: c/o Khartoum Municipal Council, P.O. Box 750, Khartoum; 891 mems; Pres MUHAMMAD ABDULLAH AHMAD; Sec-Gen. UTHMAN MUHAMMAD AL SHAIKH.

Khartoum University Trade Union: Khartoum University, P.O.B. 321, Khartoum, f 1947, 1,400 mems; Pres NAHJUB AHMAD AL-ZUBAYR.

Maritime Transport Department Trade Union: Khartoum Workers' Club, Khartoum, P.O.B. 617; 2,593 mems; Pres MADARRI MUHAMMAD AYO, Sec-Gen. IBRAHIM BARALLAH.

Ministry of Education Trade Union: Khartoum Workers' Club, Khartoum; 679 mems; Pres MUHAMMAD HAMDAN; Sec-Gen. UTHMAN AL-SIDDIQ

Ministry of Health Trade Union: c/o Khartoum Hospital, Khartoum; 3,592 mems; Pres ABDAL RAZIQ UBAYD; Sec-Gen. IBRAHIM UMAR ALHAJ.

Ministry of Irrigation and Hydro-Electric Power Trade Union: Medani Workers' Club, Wad Medani; 15,815 mems; Pres. YAHYA HASAN AL-RAU.

Ministry of Works Trade Union: Khartoum Workers' Club, Khartoum; 607 mems; Pres AWADALLAH IBRAHIM; Sec-Gen. HASSAN ABDEL GADIR.

Posts and Telegraphs Trade Union: Khartoum Workers' Club, 700 mems; Pres ABD-AL-MONEIM AHMAD; Sec-Gen. FADEL AHMAD FADL.

Sudan Textile Industry Employees Trade Union: Khartoum North; f. 1968; 3,750 mems; Sec. MUKHTAR ABDALLA

Sudan Railway Workers' Union (S.R.W.U.): Sudan Railway Workers' Union Club, Athara; f 1961, 28,000 mems; Pres MUSA AHMED MUTTAI, Sec. MUHAMMAD OSMAN ALI EL MUDIR

CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES

There are some 600 Co-operative Societies in the Sudan, of which 570 are formally registered. Of these 206 are Consumers' Societies, 152 are Agricultural Co-operative Societies, 41 General Purpose, 107 Marketing and Credit, 15 Flour Mill and 49 other types

MAJOR INDUSTRIAL COMPANIES

The following are a few of the larger companies either in terms of capital investment or employment

Abouleila Cotton Ginning Co. Ltd.: P.O.B. 121, Khartoum cotton mills

AGIP (Sudan) Ltd.: P.O.B. 1155 Khartoum, f 1959, cap £580,000
Distribution of petroleum products.
Pres MASSIMO DEL BO, Gen Man LUIGI VELANI, 121 employees

Bata Nationalized Corporation: P.O.B. 88, Khartoum, f. 1950; cap £31m
Manufacturers and distributors of footwear
Man. DIRS BABIKER MOHD ALI, HILARI LOGALI, ANTON KRONFELI, 1,300 employees

The Blue Nile Brewery: P.O.B. 1408, Khartoum, f 1954, cap £734 150.
Brewing, bottling and distribution of beer
Man. DIRS IBRAHIM ELYAS, HUSSEIN MOHAMED KEMAL, OMER EL ZEIN SAYAGYOUN; 336 employees.

The Central Desert Mining Co. Ltd.: P.O.B. 20, Port Sudan, f 1946 cap £510 000
Prospecting for and mining of gold, manganese and iron ore

DIRS ABDELHADI AHMED BASSHER, ABU BARR SAID BAASHER, 274 employees.

Sudan Tobacco Co. Ltd.: P.O.B. 87, Khartoum, production of tobacco products

TRANSPORT AND TOURISM

TRANSPORT

RAILWAYS

Sudan Railways: Atbara; Gen. Man. ISMAIL HUSSEIN.

The total length of railway in operation is about 4,756 route-kilometres. The main line runs from Wadi Halfa, on the Egyptian border to El Obeid, via Khartoum. Lines from Atbara and Sennar connect with Port Sudan on the coast. Since independence two new lines have been built, one from Sennar to Roseires on the Blue Nile (225 km.), opened in 1954 and one from Aradeiba to Nyala, in the south-western province of Darfur (689 km.), opened in 1959. A railway branching from this line, at Babanousa, to Wau in Bahr el Ghazal province (445 km.), has now been completed.

The construction of the Egyptian High Dam has flooded the Wadi Halfa. The U.A.R. proposes to operate river services in the Wadi Halfa/Aswan reach by deep-draught vessels suitable to sail in the big lake so created.

ROADS

Ministry of Public Works: P.O. Box 300, Khartoum; Director of Works IBRAHIM MOHD IBRAHIM.

Roads in the Northern Sudan, other than town roads, are only cleared tracks and often impassable immediately after rain. Motor traffic on roads in the Upper Nile Province is limited to the drier months of January–May. There are several good gravelled roads in the Equatoria and Bahr-el-Ghazal Provinces which are passable all the year round, but in these districts some of the minor roads become impassable after rain.

The through route from Juba to Khartoum is open from mid-November to mid-April.

Over 30,000 miles of tracks are classed as "motorable", but only 208 miles are asphalt.

INLAND WATERWAYS

Ministry of Communications: Khartoum.

The total length of navigable waterways served by passenger and freight services is 4,068 km. From the Egyptian border to Wadi Halfa and Khartoum navigation is limited by cataracts to short stretches but the White Nile

from Khartoum to Juba is navigable at almost all seasons. The Blue Nile is not navigable.

The Sudan Railways operate 3,700 km. of steamer services on the navigable reaches of the Nile, touching Juba, Gambeila, Wau, Shellal (in Egyptian territory), and Dongola. These services connect with the Egyptian main railway services and the Nile river services of Kenya and Uganda.

SHIPPING

Sudan Railways: Atbara; responsible for operating Port Sudan.

Port Sudan, on the Red Sea, 490 miles from Khartoum, is the only seaport. There are eleven fully equipped berths, with a total length of 5,718 feet, and two secondary berths. There are also two berths with a total length of 1,200 feet.

River Navigation Corporation: Khartoum; f. 1970; jointly owned by the U.A.R. and Sudan governments; operates services between Aswan and Wadi Halfa.

Sudan Shipping Line: P.O.B. 426, Port Sudan; f. 1960; four vessels operating between the Red Sea, North Europe and the United Kingdom; Gen. Man. YOUSIF BAKHEIT ARABI.

CIVIL AVIATION

Sudan Airways: Gamaa Ave., P.O.B. 253, Khartoum; f. 1947; this airline is owned by the Sudan Government; regular services throughout the Sudan and external services to Aden, Chad, Ethiopia, U.A.R., Greece, Italy, Lebanon, Libya, Saudi Arabia, and the U.K.; Charter and Survey based at Khartoum; fleet of 2 Comet 4C, 4 Fokker Friendship F-27A, 1 DC-3, and 3 Twin Otters; Gen. Man. M. E. ABDEL DAYEM.

The Sudan is also served by the following foreign airlines: Aeroflot, Alitalia, Balkan, B.O.A.C., Ethiopian Air Lines, Interflug, Lufthansa, M.E.A., Saudi Arabian Airlines, Swissair and U.A.A.

TOURISM

Tourist and Hotels Department: Ministry of Communications and Tourism, P.O.B. 2424, Khartoum; f. 1959; Gen. Man. AHMED ABU BAKR.

EDUCATION

Responsibility for education throughout the country is vested in a Minister of Education. His main offices are in Khartoum, from which education in the northern provinces is administered. For administrative purposes, the Sudan is divided into nine provinces and each province has an education office with an inspectorate to look after the conduct of elementary and intermediate education. Because of their remoteness, the three southern provinces, Upper Nile, Bahr el Ghazal and Equatoria have an Assistant Under-Secretary for Education with an office based in Juba. Measures are now being taken to integrate the southern Sudan system with that of the northern provinces, by Arabization and by unification of the syllabuses. Arabic is now taught in all elementary, intermediate and secondary schools and the next step is to use Arabic as the medium of instruction. Arabic is already being used in the majority of village schools. Northern syllabuses are being introduced wherever Arabic is used. A certain number of institutions are maintained by other ministries such as Health and Agriculture.

Primary Education. Primary education is provided by Junior Elementary, Elementary and Intermediate schools. In the northern province the Junior Elementary schools provide a 3-4 year course (7-10 or 11 years) which follows the same curriculum as in the 4-year Elementary school course, the difference being in the standard of qualification of the teachers. In the southern provinces the Village Schools provide a 2-year course (7-9 years), which teaches the pupils to read and write. Those who are unable to continue their studies beyond the elementary stage may receive some educational guidance from boys' clubs (organized by primary school teachers in co-operation with local government bodies) or from literature issued for the purpose by the Publications Bureau. Admission to the Intermediate and Technical Intermediate schools is by competitive examination, and the schools give a 4-year course (11-15 years) leading to the Secondary education. The teaching of Arabic is an important item at all levels of education and is the principal language of instruction except in a very few schools.

A decision to abolish the Village School system has been promulgated as from the academic year 1967-1968, full Primary schools are to be established instead.

A number of non Government schools, some of which are aided by Government grants, provide a valuable supplement to Government primary and intermediate schools. They include the Sudanese National schools, United Arab Republic schools, Christian Mission schools and others.

The number of junior elementary schools is decreasing thanks to the present educational policy to dispense with such type of school eventually. The number of elementary schools is steadily increasing and the rate of expansion is expected to increase as more teachers become available. In 1967-1968 there were 480,961 pupils in primary establishments. A great number of the junior elementary schools have been raised to the status of complete elementary schools (4-year courses).

Girls' education is also beginning to make headway as parental opposition decreases. The system of education has now been brought under the Provincial Education offices and the training of teachers and syllabuses are to be unified with those of the boys. Previously girls started school at a later age than the boys and the supervision of the syllabuses was left to a special adviser.

Secondary Education. Secondary education is provided by intermediate (lower secondary) and secondary schools. Intermediate schools give a four year course (11-15 years) leading to the secondary schools by competitive examination. The term of secondary education lasts four years and brings the student to School Certificate standard. Secondary courses are also provided by schools offering commercial subjects. In 1967-68 there were 71,607 pupils in government secondary schools and 63,800 pupils in non-government secondary establishments.

Religious Education. Religious Education comes under the Department of Religious Affairs which runs a number of schools designed to teach the Islamic culture. There are 54 government schools, 35 private schools which receive a Government subsidy, and six secondary schools. These schools provide a four year course at intermediate level leading on to a further four-year secondary course. The Omdurman Religious School became an Islamic University in 1965.

Technical Education. In view of the Sudan's expanding industry and economic development, the Government realizes the vital need for skilled technical workers. Great stress is laid on the importance of maintaining the standards of technical education and the students sit for internationally recognized examinations. There is at present a marked tendency towards the reform of technical education at all levels and a decision to dispense with intermediate technical schools has been put into effect. Courses on Architectural Engineering, Electricity and Mechanical Engineering, Commercial and Secretarial subjects and Fine Arts are given at the Khartoum Polytechnic. In addition there is 1 Secondary Technical School, 11 Post Intermediate Technical Schools, providing 3-year courses for students not academically suited for the Khartoum Technical Institute, and 26 Technical Intermediate schools. In 1967 there were 6,261 students receiving technical education.

Higher Education. University status was conferred on the University College of Khartoum in 1956. The University is not under the direct control of the Minister of Education, but it has its own governing body consisting of 27 members. However, it depends to a great extent on the Government for financial assistance and receives a substantial annual subsidy to supplement its own revenue from its special endowment fund. The Government also awards grants to many students who wish to pursue advanced courses in universities abroad. English is the language of instruction except in the departments of Arabic and Shari'a Law. In 1967-68 there were 3,242 students at the University.

In October 1955 the Khartoum branch of the University of Cairo was set up, with three faculties of Arts, Law and Commerce. The staff are all of U.A.R. nationality.

Teacher training is undertaken by the Institute of Education, which comprises two colleges at Bakht er Ruda for intermediate and elementary teachers, the latter has five branch colleges. Bakht er Ruda was founded in 1934, and it was given the responsibility of reforming boys' elementary and intermediate education. The college has undertaken a great deal of work in the experimental preparation of syllabuses and of text-books, mainly Arabic, for use in schools. It also supervises the inspection of elementary and intermediate schools. The importance of this work has been enhanced by the decision to introduce northern syllabuses into the southern provinces. Bakht er Ruda is now also responsible for training and syllabus planning for girls' education, except Home Economics.

THE SUDAN—(EDUCATION, LEARNED SOCIETIES AND RESEARCH INSTITUTES)

Training for elementary teachers is given in three girls' teacher training colleges. Refresher courses are organized for established teachers, and from time to time special courses are held for headmasters and education officers.

Teacher Training Colleges are also being expanded. There are two Intermediate Training Colleges, one for men and the other for women, and nine colleges, six for men (elementary standard) and three for women. The first women teachers training college was opened by the government in 1921. The Elementary Training College has a two-year course after the intermediate, and intermediate colleges have two-year courses after the secondary.

The Islamic University of Omdurman has become a feature of higher education in the country since 1965. The incorporation of the old Islamic College of Omdurman into a University has now been confirmed by the promulgation of the Islamic University of Omdurman Act, 1968. In 1967 there were 429 students at the Islamic University.

Other Higher Institutes include the Higher Technical Institute at Khartoum, the High Trade School, the Higher Nursing College and School of Hygiene, run by the Ministry of Health, and the Shambat Agricultural Institute. A Higher Teachers' Training Institute was established in 1961 with UNESCO assistance. It provides a 4-year course for teachers.

Adult Education and Literacy Campaigns. The Institutes of Education carried out the first experiments in adult education in order to reduce mass illiteracy and to instruct mothers in the fundamental principles of child welfare. The initial attempts were so successful that an Adult Education Section was established in the Ministry of Education to deal specifically with the problem. This section is responsible for organising campaigns against illiteracy, creating boys' clubs and libraries, and providing better cultural opportunities for the people. In 1966-67 there were officers organizing 1,681 literacy classes. There were 32 boys' clubs in 1967-68. The officers also meet the people in order to discuss village projects such as the building of a school or establishing a co-operative society, providing facilities for sport and cultural activities and giving lessons on subjects including elementary civics and public health. Under the same scheme, women welfare workers visit homes and give instruction in child care and household management. This scheme has been so successful that a Centre for training village teachers as Community Development Workers, was set up in July 1960 at Shendi.

Scholarships. Realizing the importance of multi-lateral international co-operation, the Ministry of Education set up a Cultural Relations Section to supervise and organize all educational activities connected with other countries. The work of this office has greatly expanded since the Sudan receives many scholarships as well as offering them to newly-independent countries.

LEARNED SOCIETIES AND RESEARCH INSTITUTES

Agricultural Research Corporation, Ministry of Agriculture: P.O.B. 126, Wad Medani; f. 1919; 116 specialists; includes the following sections: Agronomy and Plant Physiology; Botany and Plant Pathology; Entomology (pest control, etc.); Cotton Breeding; Cereal Breeding; Soil Science; Horticultural Research; also directs four Regional Research Stations at Wad Medani (Gezira), Ed Damer (Hudeiba), Abu Naama (Kenana), and Yambio (Equatoria); and six sub-stations.

Director: OSMAN MUHAMMAD SALIH, B.SC., M.SC.

Library (see below).

American Cultural Center: Qasr Ave., Khartoum; library of 8,000 vols.

Antiquities Service: P.O.B. 178, Khartoum; f. 1939; Acting Commissioner for Archaeology and Chief Inspector of Antiquities NAJM ED DIN SHAREEF; Acting Curator AKASHA MUHAMMAD ALI; Anthropologist ABDALLA KURDI; library: *see* Libraries; publs. *Kush* (journal of the Antiquities Service) (annual), occasional papers.

Association of African Universities: Secretariat c/o University of Khartoum, Khartoum; f. 1967; to promote exchanges, contacts and co-operation between African universities and to encourage international academic contacts; to study and make known educational and related needs in Africa and co-ordinate means whereby these needs may be met; to organize conferences and seminars; Pres. Dr. MUHAMMAD EL FASI; Exec. Vice-Pres. and Acting Sec. Gen. Dr. E. N. DAFALLA; Vice-Pres. Dr. T. TSHIBANGU.

British Council: Central Office, 32 Barlaman St., Khartoum (P.O.B. 1253, Khartoum); f. cultural and Educational activities, centre at Omdurman; libraries at Khartoum (*see* Libraries), Wad Medani (8,300 vols.), Atbara (4,600 vols.), El Obeid (5,200 vols.), Omdurman (8,000 vols.) and El Fasher (8,000 vols.); Rep. M. S. DALZIEL.

Centre Culturel Français: P.O.B. 1568, Khartoum; Dir. L. JARNO.

Educational Documentation Centre: P.O.B. 2490, Khartoum; f. 1967; documentation of information and educational information and exchange; library of 4,000 vols.; 7 mems.; Dir. IBRAHIM M. S. SHATIR; publs. *Documentation Bulletin, Educational Developments in Sudan* (annual).

Forest Research and Education Institute: P.O.B. 658, Khartoum; f. 1962; Dir. A. A. BAYOUMI.

Geological Survey Department: P.O.B. 410, Khartoum; applied research and surveys; library of 2,000 vols.; Dir. ABDEL LATIF WIDATALLA.

Industrial Research Institute: P.O.B. 268, Khartoum; f. 1965 by the Government with assistance from the UN Development Programme; performs tests, investigations, analysis, research and surveys; offers advice and consultation services on industrial planning; Acting Dir. M. M. BABIKER.

Institute of Public Administration: P.O.B. 1492, Khartoum; f. 1960; a joint undertaking between the UN and the Sudan, to provide practical and academic training for government officials; to conduct studies on current administrative problems and to produce manuals and other documents on administrative operation in the Sudan; library 5,000 vols.; Dir. GALOBAWI MUHAMMAD SALIH, M.A.

Ministry of Animal Resources, Research Division: P.O.B. 293, Khartoum, Sudan; Dir. of Research Dr. MUHAMMAD EL TAHIR ABDEL RAZIG, DIP.VET.SC., M.SC., PH.D.; Senior Veterinary Research Officer Dr. AMIN MAHMOUD EISA, B.V.S.C., M.SC.

National Council for Research: P.O.B. 2404, Khartoum; f. 1970; has five sub-councils: Economic and Social Research Council, Medical Research Council, Agricultural Research Council, Animal Wealth Research Council, and a Council for Industrial and Scientific Research. In the near future it will absorb all the other national research institutes. Sec.-Gen. Dr. EL SAMMANI A. YACOB, DIP.PHYS., PH.D.

Philosophical Society: P.O.B. 526, Khartoum; f. 1946; covers many subjects, including archaeology, ethnology, economics, sociology and natural history; publs. *Sudan Notes and Records, Proceedings of Annual Conferences*.

THE SUDAN—(LIBRARIES, MUSEUMS UNIVERSITIES)

Soviet Cultural Centre P.O.B. 359 Khartoum f 1946
of 9 800 vols Dir Dr SHOTA GOURGALLASHVILI

Sudan Medical Research Laboratories Khartoum f 1935
Director MAHMOUD ABDEL RAHMAN ZIADA D.K.S.M.
M.C.PATH

Bacteriologist AHMED MAHMOUD ABBAS D.M.S. DIP
BACT

Government Analyst JOSEPH ZAKI B.S.C. D.C.C. L.R.I.C.

Pathologist ESSAYED DAUD HASSAN D.M.S. M.C.PATH
PH.D

Medical Entomologist Dr OSMAN M. ABDEL NOUR
DIP SC PH.D

Library (see below)

LIBRARIES

Antiquities Service Library P.O.B. 178 Khartoum f 1946
embodies Flinders Petrie Library 6 000 vols excluding
periodicals Librarian Mrs AWATIF AMIN BEDAWI

Ekhel er Ruda Institute of Education Library Khartoum,
central library postal library for teachers

British Council Library Khartoum f 1963 13 100 vols
Librarian G. GLAISTER.

Central Records Office P.O.B. 282 Khartoum f 1949
Dir Dr M. I. A. ARU SALEEM 4 000 000 documents
covering Sudanese history since 1870 library of 350
vols

Flinders Petrie Library Sudan Antiquities Service P.O.
Box 178 Khartoum f 1946 number of vols 4 932

Geological Survey Library P.O. Box 410 Khartoum
f. 1904 2 000 volumes publs. *Annual Report Bulletin*

Gazira Research Station Library Wad Medani 6 500 vols
on agricultural topics

Khartoum Polytechnic Library P.O.B. 407 Khartoum f.
1950 10 000 vols on technical subjects Librarian
GABIR ABDUL RAHIM

Library of the University of Khartoum P.O.B. 321
Khartoum f 1945 contains 90 000 vols and receives
1 550 periodicals and journals includes a special Sudan
and African collection acts as a depository library for
UN FAO ILO WHO and UNESCO publications
both are under the general charge of the University
Librarian ABDEL RAHMAN EL NASRI

Omdurman Public Library Omdurman f 1951 17 650
vols

Research Division Library Ministry of Agriculture Wad
Medani f 1931 approx 6 500 vols 13 710 pamphlets
250 current journals Librarian S. A. MOHAMED

Sudan Medical Research Laboratories Library Khartoum
f 1904 (as part of Wellcome Tropical Research Labor-
atories) 7 000 pamphlets 6 000 vols

Wellcome Chemical Laboratories Library Chemical Lab-
oratories Ministry of Health, P.O.B. 303 Khartoum
f 1904 Librarian Government Analyst 1 600 pam-
phlets 1 500 vols

MUSEUMS

Ethnographical Museum Khartoum f 1956 collection
and preservation of ethnographical objects Curator
AKASHA M. ALI

Merowe Museum Merowe Northern Province antiquities
and general

Sheikan Museum El Obeid archaeological and ethno-
graphic museum

Sudan Natural History Museum University of Khartoum
P.O.B. 321 Khartoum f 1920 transferred from the
Ministry of Education to the University of Khartoum
and reorganized 1956 Keeper Dr FAYSAL T. ABUSH
AMA M.S.C. PH.D Curator MUHAMMAD A. AL RAYAH

Sudan Museum P.O.B. 178 Khartoum f 1905 Depart-
ments of Antiquities and Ethnology Dir NAJM EL
DIN M. SHARIF Curator Sayed AKSHA MUHAMMAD
ALI publs *Report on the Antiquities Service and*
Museums Kush (annually) occasional papers museum
pamphlets etc

UNIVERSITIES

THE UNIVERSITY OF KHARTOUM

P.O.B. 321 KHARTOUM

Telephone 72271

The University of Khartoum came into being on July
24th 1956 having developed immediately from the
University College of Khartoum which had in turn been
established in 1951 by the fusion of the Gordon Memorial
College (f. 1903) and the Kitchener School of Medicine
(f. 1924). The University grants its own degrees in all
Faculties. The language of instruction is English except in
the departments of Arabic and Sharia Law.

Chancellor THE REVOLUTIONARY COUNCIL

Vice Chancellor Prof O. M. OSMAN M.A. PH.D

Chairman of the Council SALAH HASSAN LL.B. LL.M.

Administrative Secretary MAGDOUB EL SHOOSH B.A.

Academic Secretary M. A. HASSAN B.A.

Personnel Secretary SHERIF TAHIR B.A.

Number of teachers 200

Number of students 2 100

DEANS

Agriculture Dr HUSSEIN EL SAYED OSMAN B.S.C. (AGRIC.)
M.S.C. DIP. ANIM. GENETICS PH.D

Arts Dr MOHAMMED IBRAHIM EL SHOOSH B.A. PH.D

Economic and Social Studies Dr SHARIF A. EL DISHOUBI
DIP. AGRIC. M.S.C. PH.D

Engineering and Architecture Dr OSMAN MUKHTAR
ABAYAZID B.S.C. PH.D. CENG. MIMCHENG

Law Sr SAEED MOHAMMED AHMED EL MAHQI LL.B.
LL.M. PH.D

Medicine Prof AHMED MOHAMMED EL HASSAN D.C.P.
M.C.PATH. PH.D

Pharmacy RIFAAT B. SALAMA, B.S.C. M.S.C.

Science Dr ALI MOHAMMED KHEIR DIP. SC. B.S.C. DR. SC.

Veterinary Science Prof MOHAMMED EL NASRI HAMZA
B.V.S.C. DIP. BACT. PH.D

ATTACHED INSTITUTES

Arid Zone Research Unit f 1961 scientific investigations
into problems of the fauna flora and geology of the
and regions of the Sudan Sec. M. O. EL MUBARAK
M.S.C. PH.D

Hydrobiological Research Unit f 1951 scientific investi-
gations into the problems of the hydrobiology of the
Nile with special reference to inland fisheries financed
by the Government Research Officer B. HAMMERTON
B.S.C. M.B.IOL.

National Building Research Station f 1962 to promote and
conduct research in problems related to design con-
struction and performance of buildings in the Sudan
Acting Dir. ADAM MADIBBO M.S.C. PH.D

THE SUDAN—(UNIVERSITIES, COLLEGES AND INSTITUTES)

Sudan Research Unit: f. 1964 to promote and co-ordinate interdisciplinary research on the Sudan; Dir. YUSUF FADL HASSAN, PH.D.; publs. *Bulletin of Sudanese Studies* (Arabic), *Sudan Notes and Records* (English).

University Farm: Shambat; experimental agriculture; Dir. MOHAMMED SHAZALI OSMAN, M.SC., PH.D.

CAIRO UNIVERSITY—KHARTOUM BRANCH

P.O.B. 1055, KHARTOUM

Founded October 1955, as a branch of Cairo University.

Vice-Chancellor: Prof. MUHAMMAD TULBA AWEIDA, PH.D.

Registrar: MUHAMMAD SABRI EL SAADI, LL.B.

Number of teachers: 80.

Number of students: 5,100.

DEANS:

Faculty of Arts: Prof. MUHAMMAD RIFAAT RAMADAN.

Faculty of Commerce: (vacant).

Faculty of Law: (vacant).

ATTACHED INSTITUTE:

Higher Institute of Statistics: f. 1969; offers two-year postgraduate course; 10 teachers, 150 students; Dir. A. M. SHAFIE, M.SC., PH.D.

COLLEGES AND INSTITUTES

COLLEGE FOR ARABIC AND ISLAMIC STUDIES; OMDURMAN

P.O.B. 328, OMDURMAN

Founded 1961; University status 1965 but reverted to a college in 1970.

Languages of instruction: Arabic, French and English.

Four-year courses in a variety of subjects including: Arabic, History and Islamic Civilization, Sociology, Journalism, Law, Economics, Political Science, and Business Administration.

Registrar: MUHAMMAD ABU BAKR ABDALLAH.

Library of 20,000 vols.

Number of teachers: 53.

Number of students: 625.

HIGHER SCHOOL OF ARTS AND CRAFTS

KHARTOUM

Founded 1964

Four-year Diploma course; two-year special certificate course.

Number of teachers: 28.

Number of students: 160 (full-time); 200 (evening).

KHARTOUM NURSING COLLEGE

P.O.B. 1063, KHARTOUM

Founded 1956

Principal: FAWZIA MUHAMMAD ABDEL HALIM, M.SC.

Three-year post-secondary courses.

Number of teachers: 11.

Number of students: 65.

KHARTOUM POLYTECHNIC

(Formerly Khartoum Technical Institute)

Box 407, Khartoum.

Telephone: 72324

Founded 1950

Principal: ABDALLA RABIH.

Registrar: MUSA HASSAN EL KHALIFA.

Librarian: GABIR ABD EL RAHMAN.

HEADS OF DEPARTMENTS:

Engineering Department: F. A. HADDAD.

Building Department: GASHIM AHMED.

Commerce Department: EL TAYEB IBRAHEEM.

Department of Fine and Applied Art: S. EL GADAL.

Further Education Department: TUT KIROLLOS.

Mathematics and Science Department: T. EL AGIB.

Library of 10,500 vols.

Number of teachers: 115.

Number of students: 883 (full-time); 3,000 evening.

Courses are offered to the level of Higher National Certificate and K. P. Advanced Diploma.

SENIOR TRADE SCHOOL

P.O.B. 22044, KHARTOUM

Founded 1960

Principal: MUSTAFA MUHAMMED ALI, B.SC.

Three-year post-secondary courses in a variety of technical subjects.

Number of teachers: 66.

Number of students: 150.

SHAMBAT AGRICULTURAL INSTITUTE

P.O.B. 71, SHAMBAT

Founded July 1954.

Three-year courses in general agriculture. Administered under Ministry of Agriculture.

Principal: MUTWALI AHMED EL HOWERIS.

Library of 20,000 vols.

Number of teachers: 18.

Number of students: 150.

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GENERAL

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Syria

PHYSICAL AND SOCIAL GEOGRAPHY

Before 1918 the term 'Syria' was rather loosely applied to the whole of the territory now forming the modern States of Syria, the Lebanon, Israel, and Jordan. To the Ottomans as to the Romans Syria stretched from the Euphrates to the Mediterranean and from the Sinai to the hills of southern Turkey, with Palestine as a smaller province of this wider unit. Though the present Syrian Arab Republic has a much more limited extension an echo of the past remains to colour the political thinking of a few present-day Syrians and from time to time there are references to a "Greater Syria" as a desirable but possibly remote aspiration.

The frontiers of the present-day State are largely artificial, and reflect to a considerable extent the interests and prestige of outside Powers—Britain, France, and the United States—as these existed in 1918–20. The northern frontier with Turkey is defined by a single-track railway line running along the southern edge of the foothills—probably the only case of its kind in the world, whilst eastwards and southwards boundaries are highly arbitrary, being straight lines drawn for convenience between salient points. Westwards, the frontiers are again artificial, though less crudely drawn, leaving the headwaters of the Jordan river outside Syria and following the crest of the Anti Lebanon hills, to reach the sea north of Tripoli.

PHYSICAL FEATURES

Geographically, Syria consists of two main zones a fairly narrow western part, made up of a complex of mountain ranges and intervening valleys and a much larger eastern zone that is essentially a broad and open platform dropping gently towards the east and crossed diagonally by the wide Euphrates Valley.

The western zone, which contains over 50 per cent of the population of Syria, can be further subdivided as follows. In the extreme west, fronting the Mediterranean Sea, there lies an imposing ridge rising to 5,000 feet, and known as the Jebel Ansariyeh. Its western flank drops fairly gradually to the sea, giving a narrow coastal plain, but on the east it falls very sharply, almost as a wall to a flat bottomed valley occupied by the Orontes river, which meanders slightly over the flat floor, often flooding in winter, and leaving a malarial marsh in summer. Farther east lie more hill ranges opening out like a fan from the south west, where the Anti Lebanon range with Mount Hermon (9,000 ft.) is the highest in Syria. Along the eastern flanks of the various ridges lie a number of shallow basins occupied by small streams that eventually dry up or form closed salt lakes. In one basin lies the city of Aleppo, once the second town of the Ottoman Empire, and still close to being the largest city of Syria. In another is situated Damascus irrigated from five streams, and famous for its clear fountains and gardens—now the capital of the country. One remaining sub-region of western Syria is the Jebel Druze, which lies in the extreme south west, and consists of a vast outpouring of lava, in the form of sheets and cones. Towards the west this region is fertile and produces good cereal crops, but eastwards the soil cover disappears leaving a barren countryside of twisted lava and caverns, for long the refuge of outlaws, bandits and minority groups. Because of its difficulty and isolation the Jebel Druze

has tended socially and politically to go its own way, remaining aloof from the rest of the country.

The entire eastern zone is mainly steppe or open desert, except close to the banks of the rivers Euphrates, Tigris, and their larger tributaries, where local irrigation projects have allowed a little cultivation. The triangular shaped region between the Euphrates and Tigris rivers is spoken of as the Jezireh (Arabic *Janra* = island), but it is in no way different from the remaining parts of the east.

The presence of ranks of relatively high hills aligned parallel to the coast has important climatic effects. Tempering and humid effects from the Mediterranean are restricted to a narrow western belt and central and eastern Syria show marked continental tendencies that is, a very hot summer with temperatures often exceeding 100° or even 110° F., and a moderately cold winter, with frost on many nights. Very close to the Mediterranean, frost is unknown at any season, but on the hills altitude greatly reduces the average temperature, so that snow may lie on the heights from late December to April, or even May. Rainfall is fairly abundant on the west, where the height of the land tends to determine the amount received, but east of the Anti Lebanon mountains the amount decreases considerably, producing a steppe region that quickly passes into true desert. On the extreme east, as the Zagros ranges of Persia are approached, there is once again a slight increase, but most of Syria has an annual rainfall of under ten inches.

ECONOMIC LIFE

There is a close relationship between climate and economic activities. In the west where up to 30 or even 40 inches of rainfall occur, settled farming is possible, and the main limitation is difficult terrain, but from the Orontes Valley eastwards natural rainfall is increasingly inadequate and irrigation becomes necessary. The narrow band of territory where annual rainfall lies between 8 and 15 inches is sometimes spoken of as the "Fertile Crescent", since it runs in an arc along the inner side of the hills from Jordan through western and northern Syria as far east as Iraq. In its normal state a steppeland covered with seasonal grass, the Fertile Crescent can often be converted by irrigation and efficient organisation into a rich and productive territory. Such it was in the golden days of the Arab Caliphate, now, after centuries of decline it is once again reviving. Even within ten years a marked change can be observed and thanks to small-scale irrigation schemes and the installation of motor pumps to raise water from underground artesian sources large areas of the former steppe are producing crops of cotton, cereals and fruit. Syria has now a surplus of agricultural production, especially cereals, and this allows her to export to Jordan and the Lebanon, neither of which are self sufficient in foodstuffs. Production will increase further if a scheme for a barrage on the middle Euphrates east of Aleppo eventually comes to fruition. This has been discussed for several years.

Because of its relative openness and accessibility and its geographical situation as a "waist" between the Mediterranean and the Persian Gulf, Syria has been a land of passage and for centuries its role was that of an intermediary, both commercial and cultural between the Mediterranean world and the Far East. From early times until the end of

the Middle Ages there was a flow of traffic east and west that raised a number of Syrian cities and ports to the rank of international markets. Within the last twenty or so years, following a long period of decline and eclipse resulting from the diversion of this trade to the sea, one can again note a revival due to the new elements of air transport and the construction of oil pipelines from Iraq.

RACE AND LANGUAGE

Racially, we can distinguish many elements in the Syrian people. The nomads of the interior deserts are unusually pure specimens of the Mediterranean type, iso-

lation having preserved them from intermixture. To the west and north there is a widely varying mosaic of other groups: Armenoids, such as the Kurds and Turkish-speaking communities of the north, and the Armenians themselves, who form communities in the cities; groups such as the Druses, who show some affinity to the tribes of the Persian Zagros, and many others.

As a result, there is a surprising variety of language and religion. Arabic is spoken over most of the country, but Kurdish is widely used along the northern frontier and Armenian in the cities. Aramaic, the language of Christ, survives in three villages.

HISTORY

ANCIENT HISTORY

From the earliest times, Syria has experienced successive waves of Semitic immigration—the Canaanites and Phoenicians in the third millennium B.C., the Hebrews and Aramaeans in the second, and, unceasingly, the nomad tribes infiltrating from the Arabian peninsula. This process has enabled Syria to assimilate or reject, without losing its essentially Semitic character, the alien invaders who, time and again, in the course of a long history, have established their domination over the land. Before Rome assumed control of Syria in the first century B.C., the Egyptians, the Assyrians and the Hittites, and, later, the Persians and the Macedonian Greeks had all left their mark in greater or lesser degree. Damascus is claimed to be the oldest capital city in the world, having been continuously inhabited since about 2000 B.C., and Aleppo may be even older. Under Roman rule the infiltration and settlement of nomad elements continued, almost unnoticed by historians, save when along the desert trade routes a Semitic vassal state attained a brief importance as, for example, the kingdom of Palmyra in the Syrian desert, which the Emperor Aurelian destroyed in A.D. 272 or, later still, when the Byzantines ruled in Syria, the Arab State of Ghassan, prominent throughout the sixth century A.D. as a bulwark of the Byzantine Empire against the desert tribes in the service of Sasanid Persia.

ARAB AND TURKISH RULE

When, after the death of the Prophet Muhammad in A.D. 632, the newly-created power of Islam began a career of conquest, the populations of Syria, Semitic in their language and culture and, as adherents of the Monophysite faith, ill-disposed towards the Greek-speaking Orthodox Byzantines, did little to oppose the Muslims, from whom they hoped to obtain a greater measure of freedom. The Muslims defeated the Byzantine forces at Ajnadain in July 634, seized Damascus in September 635, and, by their decisive victory on the River Yarmuk (August 636), virtually secured possession of all Syria. From 661-750 the Umayyad dynasty ruled in Syria, which, after the conquest, had been divided into four military districts or junds (Damascus, Homs, Urdun, i.e. Jordan, and Palestine). To these the Caliph Yazid I (680-83) added a fifth, Kinnasrin, for the defence of northern Syria, where in the late seventh century, the Mardaites, Christians from the Taurus, were making serious inroads under Byzantine leadership. Under Abd al-Malik (685-705) Arabic became the official language of the State, in whose administration, hitherto largely carried out by the old Byzantine bureaucracy, Syrians, Muslim as well as Christian, now had an increasing share. For Syria was now the heart of a great Empire, and the Arab Army of Syria, well trained in the

ceaseless frontier warfare with Byzantium, bore the main burden of imperial rule, taking a major part in the two great Arab assaults on Byzantium in 674-8 and in 717-18.

The new regime in Syria was pre-eminently military and fiscal in character, representing the domination of a military caste of Muslim Arab warriors, who governed on the basic assumption that a large subject population, non-Muslim and non-Arab in character, would continue indefinitely to pay tribute. But this assumption was falsified by the gradual spread of Islam, a process which meant the progressive diminution of the amount of tribute paid to the State, and the consequent undermining of the fiscal system as a whole. In theory, conversion meant for the non-Arab convert (*Mawla*; in the plural, *Mawali*) full social and economic equality with the ruling caste, but in practice it was not enough to be a Muslim, one had to be an Arab as well. The discontent of the *Mawali* with their enforced inferiority expressed itself in an appeal to the universal character of Islam, an appeal which often took the form of religious heresies, and which, as it became more widespread, undermined the strength of the Arab régime.

To the ever present fiscal problems of the Arab State and the growing discontent of the *Mawali* was added a third and fatal weakness: the hostility between those Arab tribes which had arrived in Syria with or since the conquest, and those which had infiltrated there at an earlier date. The Umayyad house strove to maintain a neutral position over and above the tribal feuds; but from the moment when, under the pressure of events, the Umayyads were compelled to side with one faction to oppose the other (battle of Marj Rahit 684), their position was irretrievably compromised.

When in A.D. 750 with the accession of the Abbasid dynasty the centre of the Empire was transferred to Iraq, Syria, jealously watched because of its association with the former ruling house, became a mere province, where in the course of the next hundred years, several abortive revolts, inspired in part by the traditional loyalty to the Umayyads, failed to shake off Abbasid control. During the ninth century Syria was the object of dispute between Egypt and Baghdad. In 878 Ahmad ibn Tulun, Governor of Egypt, occupied it and, subsequently, every independent ruler, of Egypt sought to maintain a hold, partial or complete, over Syria. Local dynasties, however, achieved from time to time a transitory importance, as did the Hamdanids (a Bedouin family from Northern Iraq) who, under Saif ad-Daula, ruler of Aleppo from 946-967, attained a brief ascendancy, marked internally by financial and administrative ineptitude, and externally by military campaigns against the Byzantines which did much to provoke the great Byzantine reconquest of the late tenth century. By the treaty of 997, northern Syria became Byzantine, while

the rest of the country remained in the hands of the Fatimid dynasty which ruled in Egypt from 969. Fatimid control remained insecure and from about 1027 a new Arab house ruled at Aleppo—the Mirdasids, who were soon to disappear before the formidable power of the Seljuq Turks. The Seljuqs, having conquered Persia, rapidly overran Syria (Damascus fell to them in 1075) but failed to establish there a united State. As a result of dynastic quarrels, the Seljuq domination disintegrated into a number of amirates. Seljuq princes ruled at Aleppo and Damascus, a local dynasty held Tripoli and, in the south, Egypt controlled most of the littoral.

This political fragmentation greatly favoured the success of the First Crusade which, taking Antioch in 1098 and Jerusalem in 1099, proceeded to organise four feudal States at Edessa, Antioch, Tripoli and Jerusalem, but did not succeed in conquering Aleppo, Hama, Hama, and Damascus. From the death of Baldwin II of Jerusalem in 1131, the essential weakness of the crusading States began to appear. Byzantium, the Christian State of Lesser Armenia, and the Latin principalities in Syria never united in a successful resistance to the Muslim counter-offensive which, initiated by the energetic Turkish general Zangī Atabeg of Mosul, developed rapidly in the third and fourth decades of the century. Zangī, who seized Aleppo in 1128, and the Latin State of Edessa in 1144, was succeeded in 1146 by his able son Nur ad Din, who by his capture of Damascus in 1154 recreated in Syria a united Muslim Power. On Nur ad Din's death in 1174 the Kurd Saladin, already master of Egypt, assumed control at Damascus and, in 1183, seized Aleppo. His victory over the Crusaders at Hittin (July 1187) destroyed the kingdom of Jerusalem. Only the partial success of the Third Crusade (1189-92) and, after his death in 1193, the disintegration of Saladin's Empire into a number of separate principalities made it possible for the Crusaders to maintain an ever more precarious hold on the coastal areas of Syria. The emergence in Egypt of the powerful Mamluk Sultanate (1250) meant that the end was near. A series of military campaigns, led by the Sultan Baibars (1260-77) and his immediate successors brought about the fall of Antioch (1268) and Tripoli (1291), and, with the fall of Acre in 1291, the disappearance of the crusading States in Syria.

Before the last crusading States had been reduced, the Mamluks were faced with a determined assault by the Mongols in the course of which Aleppo and Hama were sacked and Damascus besieged until in 1260 the Mongol army of invasion was crushed at the battle of Ain Jalut, near Nazareth. The Mongol Il khans of Persia made further efforts to conquer Syria in the late thirteenth century, negotiating for this purpose with the Papacy, the remaining crusader States and Lesser Armenia. In 1280 the Mamluks defeated a Mongol army at Homs but in 1299 were themselves beaten near the same town, a defeat which enabled the Mongols to ravage northern Syria and to take Damascus in 1300. Only in 1303, at the battle of Marj as-Suffar, south of Damascus was this last Mongol offensive finally repelled.

The period of Mamluk rule in Syria, which endured until 1517, was on the whole one of slow decline. Warfare, periodical famine, and not least, the plague (there were four great outbreaks in the fourteenth century, and in the fifteenth century fourteen more recorded attacks of some severity) produced a state of affairs which the financial rapacity and misrule of the Mamluk governors and the devastation of Aleppo and Damascus by Timur (1400-01) served only to aggravate.

The ill-defined protectorate which the Mamluks asserted over Cilicia and considerable areas of southern Anatolia occasioned in the late fifteenth century, a growing tension with the power of the Ottoman Turks which broke out into

inconclusive warfare in the years 1485-91. When to this tension was added the possibility of an alliance between the Mamluks and the rising power of the Safavids in Persia, the Ottoman Sultan Selim I (1512-20) was compelled to seek a decisive solution to the problem. In August 1516 the battle of Marj Dabik, north of Aleppo, gave Syria to the Ottomans, who proceeded to ensure their continued hold on the land by conquering Egypt (1517). Turkish rule, during the next three centuries, although unjustly accused of complete responsibility for a decay and stagnation which appear to have been well advanced before 1517, brought only a temporary improvement in the unhappy condition of Syria, now divided into the three provinces of Damascus, Tripoli, and Aleppo. In parts of Syria the Turkish pashas in reality administered directly only the important towns and their immediate neighbourhood elsewhere, the older elements—Bedouin emirs, Turcoman chiefs etc.—were left to act much as they pleased, provided the due tribute was paid. The pashas normally bought their appointment to high office and sought in their brief tenure of power to recover the money and bribes they had expended in securing it, knowing that they might, at any moment, be replaced by someone who could pay more for the post. Damascus alone had 133 pashas in 180 years. As the control of the Sultan at Constantinople became weaker, the pashas obtained greater freedom of action, until Ahmed Jazzar, Pasha of Acre, virtually ruled Syria as an independent prince (1785-1804).

The nineteenth century saw important changes. The Ottoman Sultan Mahmud II (1808-39) had promised Syria to the Pasha of Egypt, Muhammad Ali, in return for the latter's services during the Greek War of Independence. When the Sultan declined to fulfil his promise, Egyptian troops overran Syria (1831-33). Ibrahim Pasha, son of Muhammad Ali, now gave to Syria, for the first time in centuries, a centralised government strong enough to hold separatist tendencies in check and to impose a system of taxation which, if burdensome, was at least regular in its functioning. But Ibrahim's rule was not popular, for the land-owners resented his efforts to limit their social and political dominance, while the peasantry disliked the conscription, the forced labour, and the heavy taxation which he found indispensable for the maintenance of his regime. In 1840 a revolt broke out in Syria, and when the Great Powers intervened on behalf of the Sultan (at war with Egypt since 1839), Muhammad Ali was compelled to renounce his claim to rule there.

Western influence, working through trade, through the protection of religious minorities, and through the cultural and educational efforts of missions and schools, had received encouragement from Ibrahim Pasha. The French Jesuits returning to Syria in 1831, opened schools, and in 1835 founded their University at Beirut. The American Presbyterian Mission (established at Beirut in 1820) introduced a printing press in 1834, and in 1866 founded the Syrian Protestant College, later renamed the American University of Beirut. Syria also received some benefit from the reform movement within the Ottoman Empire, which, begun by Mahmud II, and continued under his successors, took the form of a determined attempt to modernise the structure of the Empire. The semi-independent pashas of old disappeared, the administration being now entrusted to salaried officials of the central government. Some effort was made to create schools and colleges on Western lines, and much was done to deprive the landowning class of their feudal privileges although their social and economic predominance was left unchallenged. As a result of these improvements there was, in the late nineteenth century, a revival of Arabic literature which did much to prepare the way for the growth of Arab nationalism in the twentieth century.

MODERN HISTORY

By 1914 Arab nationalist sentiment had made some headway among the educated and professional classes, and especially among army officers. Nationalist societies like *Al-Fatat* soon made contact with Arab nationalists outside Syria—with the army officers of Iraq, with influential Syrian colonies in Egypt and America, and with the Sharif Husein of Mecca. The Husein-McMahon Correspondence (July 1915–January 1916) encouraged the Arab nationalists to hope that the end of the Great War would mean the creation of a greater Arab kingdom. This expectation was disappointed, for as a result of the Sykes-Picot Agreement, negotiated in secret between England, France, and Russia in 1916, Syria was to become a French sphere of influence. At the end of the war, and in accordance with this agreement, a provisional French administration was established in the coastal districts of Syria, while in the interior an Arab government came into being under Amir Faisal, son of the Sharif Husein of Mecca. In March 1920 the Syrian nationalists proclaimed an independent kingdom of Greater Syria (including the Lebanon and Palestine); but in April of the same year the San Remo Conference gave France a mandate for the whole of Syria, and in July, French troops occupied Damascus.

By 1925 the French, aware that the majority of the Muslim population resented their rule, and that only amongst the Christian Maronites of the Lebanon could they hope to find support, had carried into effect a policy based upon the religious divisions so strong in Syria. The area under mandate had been divided into four distinct units; a much enlarged Lebanon (including Beirut and Tripoli), a Syrian Republic, and the two districts of Latakia and Jebel Druze. Despite the fact that the French rule gave Syria a degree of law and order which might render possible the transition from a medieval to a more modern form of society, nationalist sentiment opposed the mandate on principle, and deplored the failure to introduce full representative institutions and the tendency to encourage separatism amongst the religious minorities. This discontent, especially strong in the Syrian Republic, became open revolt in 1925–26, during the course of which the French twice bombarded Damascus (October 1925 and May 1926).

The next ten years were marked by a hesitant and often interrupted progress towards self-government in Syria, and by French efforts to conclude a Franco-Syrian treaty. In April 1928 elections were held for a Constituent Assembly, and in August a draft Constitution was completed; but the French High Commissioner refused to accept certain articles, especially Article 2, which, declaring the Syrian territories detached from the old Ottoman Empire to be an indivisible unity, constituted a denial of the separate existence of the Jebel Druze, Latakia, and the Lebanese Republic. After repeated attempts to reach a compromise, the High Commissioner dissolved the Assembly in May 1930 and, on his own authority, issued a new Constitution for the State of Syria, much the same as that formerly proposed by the Assembly, but with those modifications which were considered indispensable to the maintenance of French control. After new elections (January 1932) negotiations were begun for a Franco-Syrian treaty, to be modelled on that concluded between England and Iraq in 1930, but no compromise could be found between the French demands and those of the nationalists who, although in a minority, wielded a dominant influence in the Chamber and whose aim was to limit both in time and in place the French military occupation, and to include in Syria the separate areas of Jebel Druze and Latakia. In 1934 the High Commissioner suspended the Chamber indefinitely. Disorders occurred early in 1936 which induced the French to send a Syrian delegation to Paris, where the new Popular Front Government showed

itself more sympathetic towards Syrian aspirations than former French governments had been. In September 1936 a Franco-Syrian treaty was signed which recognised the principle of Syrian independence and stipulated that, after ratification, there should be a period of three years during which the apparatus of a fully independent State should be created. The districts of Jebel Druze and Latakia would be annexed to Syria, but would retain special administrations. Other subsidiary agreements reserved to France important military and economic rights in Syria. It seemed that Syria might now enter a period of rapid political development; but the unrest caused by the situation in Palestine, the crisis with Turkey, and the failure of France to ratify the 1936 treaty were responsible, within two years, for the breakdown of these hopes.

In 1921 Turkey had consented to the inclusion of the Sanjak of Alexandretta in the French mandated territories, on condition that it should be governed under a special regime. The Turks, alarmed by the treaty of 1936, which envisaged the emergence of a unitary Syrian State including, to all appearance, Alexandretta, now pressed for a separate agreement concerning the status of the Sanjak. After long discussion the League of Nations decided in 1937 that the Sanjak should be fully autonomous, save for its foreign and financial policies which were to be under the control of the Syrian Government. A treaty between France and Turkey guaranteed the integrity of the Sanjak, and also the Turco-Syrian frontier. Throughout 1937 there were conflicts between Turks and Arabs in the Sanjak, and in Syria a widespread and growing resentment, for it was clear that sooner or later Turkey would ask for the cession of Alexandretta. The problem came to be regarded in Syria as a test of Franco-Syrian co-operation, and when in June 1939, under the pressure of international tension, Alexandretta was finally ceded to Turkey the cession assumed in the eyes of Syrian nationalists the character of a betrayal by France. Meanwhile, in France itself, opposition to the treaty of 1936 had grown steadily; and in December 1938 the French Government, anxious not to weaken its military position in the Near East, declared that no ratification of the treaty was to be expected.

Unrest in Syria led to open riots in 1941, as a result of which the Vichy High Commissioner, General Dentz, promised the restoration of partial self-government; while in June of the same year, when in order to combat Axis intrigues the Allies invaded Syria, General Catroux, on behalf of the Free French Government, promised independence for Syria and the end of mandatory rule. Syrian independence was formally recognized in September 1941, but the reality of power was still withheld, with the effect that nationalist agitation, inflamed by French reluctance to restore constitutional rule, and by economic difficulties due to the war, became even more pronounced. When at last elections were held once more, a nationalist government was formed, with Shukri Kuwatly as President of the Syrian Republic (August 1943).

Gradually all important powers and public services were transferred from French to Syrian hands; but conflict again developed over the *Troupes Spéciales*, the local Syrian and Lebanese levies which had existed throughout the mandatory period as an integral part of the French military forces in the Levant, and which, transferred to the Syrian and Lebanese Governments, would enable them to form their own armies. Other points of dispute were the so-called "Common Interests" (i.e. departments dealing with matters of concern to both Syria and the Lebanon), and the control of internal security, hitherto in French hands. Strongly supported by the newly-created Arab League, Syria refused the French demand for a Franco-Syrian Treaty as the condition for the final transfer of these administrative and military services which had always been

the main instruments of French policy. In May 1945 disturbances broke out which ended only with British armed intervention and the evacuation of French troops and administrative personnel. The *Troupes Spéciales* were now handed over to the Syrian Government, and with the departure of British forces in April 1946 the full independence of Syria was at last achieved.

UNSTABLE INDEPENDENCE

Since the attainment of independence Syria has passed through a long period of instability. She was involved in a complicated economic and financial dispute with the Lebanon (1948-50) and also in various schemes for union with Iraq—schemes which tended to divide political opinion inside Syria itself and, in addition, to disrupt the unity of the Arab League. Syria, in fact, found herself aligned at this time with Egypt and Saudi Arabia against the ambitions of the Hashemite rulers of Iraq and Jordan. These rivalries together with the profound disappointment felt at Damascus over the Arab failures in the war of 1948-49 against Israel, were the prelude to a series of *coups d'état* in Syria. In March 1949, under Colonel Husni Zaim, in August of the same year under Colonel Sami Hinnawi, and in December 1949 under Lieut.-Colonel Shishakli. Dislike of continued financial dependence on France, aspirations towards a greater Syria, the resentments arising out of the unsuccessful war against the Israelis—all help to explain the unrest inside Syria.

The intervention of the army in politics was itself a cause of further tension. Opposition to the dominance of the army grew in the Syrian Chamber of Deputies to such an extent that yet another *coup d'état* was carried out in December 1951. Syria now came under the control of a military autocracy with Colonel Shishakli as head of the state. The Chamber of Deputies was dissolved in December 1951, a decree of April 1952 abolished all political parties in Syria. After the approval of a new constitution in July 1953 General Shishakli became President of Syria. In August of that year, the formation of political parties was now allowed once more. Members of the parties dissolved under the decree of April 1952 proceeded, however, to boycott the elections held in October 1953, at which President Shishakli's Movement of Arab Liberation obtained a large majority in the Chamber of Deputies. Politicians hostile to the regime of President Shishakli established in November 1953 a Front of National Opposition, refusing to accept as legal the results of the October elections and declaring as their avowed aim the end of military autocracy and the restoration of democratic rule. Demonstrations at Damascus and Aleppo in December 1953 led soon to the flight of Shishakli to France. The collapse of his regime early in 1954 meant for Syria a return to the Constitution of 1950. New elections held in September 1954 brought into being a Chamber of Deputies notable for the large number of its members (81 out of 142) who might be regarded as independents grouped around leading political figures.

INFLUENCE FROM ABROAD

There was still, however, much friction in Syria between those who favoured union or at least close co-operation with Iraq and those inclined towards an effective *entente* with Egypt. In August 1955 Shukri al Kuwaili became President of the Republic. His appointment was interpreted as an indication that pro Egyptian influence had won the ascendancy in Syria. On October 20th, 1955, Syria made with Egypt an agreement for the creation of a joint military command with its headquarters at Damascus.

The U.S.S.R., meanwhile, in answer to the developments in the Middle East associated with the Baghdad Pact, had begun an intensive diplomatic, propaganda and economic

campaign of penetration into the Arab lands. In the years 1954-56 Syria, the only Arab state where the Communist Party was legal, made a number of barter agreements with the Soviet Union and its associates in eastern Europe. A report from Cairo intimated, in February 1956, that Syria had joined Egypt in accepting arms from U.S.S.R.

At the end of October 1956 there occurred the Israeli campaign in the Sinai peninsula, an event followed, in the first days of November, by the armed intervention of Great Britain and France in the Suez Canal region. On October 30th the President of the Syrian Republic left Damascus on a visit to the Soviet Union. A state of emergency was declared in Syria. Reports from Beirut revealed on November 3rd that Syrian forces had put out of action the pipelines which carried Iraqi oil to the Mediterranean. The damage that Syrian elements had done to the pipelines earned the sharp disapproval of such Arab states as Iraq and Saudi Arabia, both of whom were now faced with a severe loss of oil revenues. The Syrian Government declared that it would not allow the repair of the pipelines until Israel had withdrawn her troops from Gaza and the Gulf of Aqaba. Not until March 1957 was it possible to restore the pipelines, Israel having in the meantime agreed to evacuate her forces from the areas in dispute.

In April 1957 a crisis took place in Jordan where the Palestinian elements in political circles with some support from the army, sought to draw Jordan into alignment with Egypt and Syria. At the time of the Sinai Suez crisis in November 1956 contingents of Syrian troops had been stationed in Jordan. These troops were still on Jordanian soil. There were also reports that reinforcements might be sent to the Syrian forces in Jordan. It seemed that a major intervention in the affairs of Jordan was imminent. On April 24th the U.S.A. announced that it regarded the independence and integrity of Jordan as a matter of vital concern. The United States Sixth Fleet was now ordered to the eastern Mediterranean with instruction to assist Jordan, if aid were requested. At the same time the U.S. Government deplored the flow of Soviet arms and equipment to Egypt and Syria. In May 1957 Syria stated that, in compliance with a request from Amman, she would withdraw her forces from Jordan.

UNION WITH EGYPT

The Syrian National Assembly, in November 1957, passed a resolution in favour of union with Egypt. Earlier in the year there had been discussions concerning proposals for a customs union between the two countries and for the co-ordination of their currencies and of their economic policies. The formal union of Egypt and Syria to constitute one state under the title of the United Arab Republic received the final approval of the Syrian National Assembly on February 5th, 1958. President Nasser of Egypt, on February 21st, became the first head of the combined state. A central cabinet for the U.A.R. was established in October 1958, also two regional executive councils, one for Syria and one for Egypt. A further move towards integration came in March 1960, when President Nasser announced the formation of a single National Assembly for the whole of the U.A.R. The Assembly, consisting of 400 deputies from Egypt and 200 from Syria, held its first meeting at Cairo on July 21st, 1960.

The more extreme elements of the right and of the left—the conservative class of landowners and also the Communist following in Syria—had viewed with distrust the union of Syria and Egypt. Amongst the Baath Socialists who had played an important role in bringing about the merger with Egypt in 1958, dissatisfaction grew as a result of the small progress made with schemes for the socialization of the Syrian economy. There was disillusionment, too, in the Syrian armed forces over the more

and more frequent transfer of Syrian officers to Egypt and of Egyptian officers to Syria. Administrators and officials of Egyptian origin had come, moreover, to hold a large number of the most influential positions in the Syrian Region of the U.A.R. Syria still retained, however, at the end of 1960 and in the first months of 1961, a considerable measure of autonomy in most economic matters.

August 1961 saw the abolition of the regional executive councils for Syria and Egypt created in 1958. This attempt to hasten the integration of the two countries was the prelude to a new crisis at Damascus. On September 28th, 1961, there occurred in Syria a military *coup d'état* which aimed—successfully—at the separation of Syria from Egypt and at the dissolution of the United Arab Republic. Political figures representing most of the parties which existed in Syria before the establishment of the U.A.R. in 1958 met at Damascus and Aleppo on October 3rd, 1961, issuing a declaration of support for the new regime and calling for free elections to a new legislature. Syrian members of the National Assembly of the U.A.R. gathered at Damascus on October 4th to denounce the arbitrary and dictatorial character of the control previously exercised from Cairo over Syrian affairs. President Nasser now, on October 5th, recognized the *fait accompli*. Most foreign states made haste to grant formal recognition to the government at Damascus. On October 13th, 1961, Syria became once more a member of the United Nations. A provisional constitution was promulgated in November and elections for a Constituent Assembly took place on December 1st, 1961.

The regime thus established in Syria rested on no sure foundation. At the end of March 1962 the Syrian Army intervened once more, bringing about the resignation of Dr. Nazim Kudsi, the President of the Republic, and also of the ministers who had taken office in December 1961. After demonstrations at Aleppo, Homs and Hama in April 1962, Dr. Kudsi was reinstated as President, but further ministerial resignations in May of that year pointed to the existence of continuing tensions within the government.

THE REVOLUTION OF 1963

A military junta, styled the National Council of the Revolutionary Command, seized control in Damascus on March 8th, 1963. During March and April 1963 tension was visible between those elements which advocated a close association with Egypt and those Baathist circles which tended to oppose such a programme. In May 1963 the Baathists took measures to purge the armed forces and the administration of personnel known to favour a close alignment with Egypt. A new government, formed on May 13th and strongly Baathist in character, carried out a further purge in June and at the same time created a National Guard recruited from members of the Baath movement. These measures led the pro-Egyptian elements to attempt a *coup d'état* at Damascus on July 18th, 1963. The attempt failed, however, with a considerable loss of life.

There were, in the second half of 1963, a number of moves designed to bring about some form of union between Syria and Iraq. In August it was announced that the two countries would establish committees empowered to promote effective co-operation in matters of defence; in September proposals for a federation of Syria and Iraq came under discussion; in October a Supreme Defence Council was established under General Ammash, the Defence Minister of Iraq; and, also in October, at an international conference of al-Baath held in Damascus, a resolution was adopted calling for the union of Syria and Iraq. The aspirations embodied in this resolution were

doomed, however, to disappointment; a *coup d'état* at Baghdad in November 1963 swept aside the Baath regime in Iraq.

BAATH SOCIALISM

The Syrian Government, in May 1963, had nationalized all Arab-owned banks in Syria and in August of that year proceeded to order their reduction into fewer but larger units with new boards set in charge of them. Government decrees issued in April 1964 nationalized a number of textile factories at Aleppo. The factories would henceforward be under the control of elected representatives of the employees, together with representatives of the Government, of al-Baath and of the trade unions. The principle of "self-management" in industrial concerns, and also in agriculture, had received approval at the international Baath conference of October 1963.

The nationalization of the banks and of various industrial enterprises, also the transfer of land to the peasants—all had contributed to bring about much dissatisfaction in the business world and amongst the influential landed elements. The Baath regime depended for its main support on the armed forces (purged of the personnel opposed to the policies of the government). These forces, however, had been recruited in no small degree from the religious minorities in Syria, including adherents of the Shi'i (Alawi) faith—most Syrians being, in fact, of Sunni or orthodox Muslim allegiance. In general, conservative Muslims tended to oppose the Baath government under guidance of the *'ulama* and of the Muslim Brotherhood. The mass of the peasant population was thought to have some pro-Nasser sympathies; the working class (small in number) was divided between pro-Nasser and Baathist adherents; the middle and upper classes opposed the domination of al-Baath.

The unease arising out of these frictions and antipathies took the form of disturbances at Baniyas and Homs (February 1964), at Aleppo (March 1964) and finally of open revolt—soon suppressed—at Hama (April 1964). After the Hama rising came a wave of anti-government demonstrations and a strike of shopkeepers in all the main towns—e.g. Damascus, Hama, Homs, Aleppo—of central and northern Syria, except Latakia (an Alawi centre). The government now used pressure to bring about a resumption of normal business activities—pressure which threatened confiscation and trial for sabotage as the penalties for resistance.

Meanwhile, on April 25th, 1964, a provisional constitution had been promulgated, describing Syria as a democratic socialist republic forming an integral part of the Arab nation. A Presidential Council was established on May 14th, 1964, with General Hafiz as head of the state.

A government decree of December 23rd, 1964, nationalized the as yet undeveloped petroleum and other mineral resources of Syria. Early in January 1965 the Syrian Government placed under national control, wholly or in part, industrial concerns connected with cement, dyes, textiles, sugar, canning, food production, chemicals and soap. On January 7th, 1965, a special military court was created with sweeping powers to deal with all offences, of word or deed, against the nationalization decrees and the socialist revolution. These new measures evoked once more a series of demonstrations and a strike of shopkeepers in Damascus (January 24th, 1965). Further government decrees now confiscated the goods and properties of merchants held to be responsible for the disorders. General Hafiz denounced the *'ulama* and the Muslim Brotherhood as being involved in the demonstrations. On February 19th, 1965, further decrees nationalized about forty pharmaceutical importing establishments at Damascus and

Alleppe together with a number of other trading companies. The official Importing and Exporting Organization was now alone able to import basic commodities such as tea, tinned meats, fish, rubber, iron, timber, textiles, tractors, cars, drugs, fertilizers, salt, tobacco and paper. Reports current at the beginning of March 1965 stated that the government had ordered the nationalization of nine oil companies estimated to control between them some two-thirds of the total fuel consumption in Syria.

The autumn of 1965 saw a number of important changes inside Syria. A National Council, almost one hundred strong, was established in August with the task of preparing a new constitution which would be submitted to a public referendum. Meeting for the first time on September 1st 1965, it created a Presidency Council of five members which was to exercise the powers of a head of state.

RADICAL REACTION

The tensions hitherto visible in al Baath were however still active. Two groups stood ranged one against the other—on the one hand the older more experienced politicians in al Baath, less inclined than in former years to insist on the unrestrained pursuit of the main Baathist objectives, socialism and pan Arab union, and on the other hand the extreme left wing elements, doctrinaire in their attitude and enjoying considerable support amongst the younger radical officers in the armed forces.

The tensions thus engendered found expression in a new coup d'état on February 23rd 1966. A military junta representing the extreme radical elements in al Baath seized power in Damascus and placed under arrest a number of personalities long identified with al Baath and belonging to the international leadership controlling the organization throughout the Arab world—amongst them Mr Michael Aflaq, the founder of al Baath, General Hafiz, the chairman of the recently established Presidency Council, and Mr Salah al Din Bitar, the Prime Minister of the displaced administration.

The new Prime Minister of Syria, Dr Zeayen, visited the Soviet Union in April 1966. Russia then granted Syria a loan of about £50 million for the construction of a great dam, about a mile long, on the River Euphrates at Taqba in northern Syria. The dam—to be built with Soviet technical assistance—is a major factor in a long term project of development designed to irrigate an additional million and a half acres of land, i.e. to double in extent the present irrigated area in Syria, and to make possible a notable increase in the production of cotton. The dam will also be able to produce large quantities of hydro-electric power.

Reports current in July 1966 indicated that the government at Damascus had arrested a number of politicians amongst them personalities associated with the former National and People's Parties. On September 6th the Syrian Government announced that it had discovered and foiled a conspiracy against itself. The conspiracy was said to have been prepared by Baathist elements representing the regime, evicted from power in the coup d'état of February 1966. Of the personalities charged with involvement in the conspiracy the most prominent were Mr Michel Aflaq, the founder of al Baath, Mr Salah al Din Bitar, a former Prime Minister, and Dr Munir al Razaz, at one time the Secretary-General of the International Baathist Organization. Also said to be implicated in the conspiracy were military elements supporting General Hafiz, the head of the preceding regime.

A delegation led by Dr Yusuf Zeayen, the Prime Minister of Syria, visited Cairo on November 1st 1966. On November 4th the United Arab Republic and Syria entered into a defence agreement for military co-ordination between the two countries. The agreement stipulated that

aggression against either state would be considered as an assault on the other, to be repelled by the armed forces of the U.A.R. and of Syria acting together. A defence council and a joint military command were to be established under the terms of the agreement.

ARAB-ISRAELI WAR

The friction ever present along the frontier between Syria and Israel had flared out from time to time during recent years into violent conflict—e.g. in March 1962 (Lake Tiberias), August 1963 (Huleh), November 1964 (Dan), August 1965 (Khirbet north of Lake Tiberias), February 1966 (al Dardara), May 1966 (Lake Tiberias) and July 1966 (again in the region of Lake Tiberias). Now in the winter of 1966-67 the tension along the border began to assume more serious proportions. Israel, in October 1966, complained to the Security Council of the United Nations about guerrilla activities from Syria across the frontier into Israeli territory. There was renewed violence near Lake Tiberias in January 1967. U Thant, in this same month, urged Syria and Israel to act with restraint and suggested that a special meeting be arranged of the Syrian Israeli mixed armistice commission. This commission—which had not been convened since 1959—began its new discussions on January 25th 1967. With further incidents occurring along the border, these discussions made no significant progress and came to an end on February 17th 1967. There was a more serious outbreak of violence during April 1967, tanks, mortars, cannon and air force units from Syria and Israel being involved in fighting south-east of Lake Tiberias.

The continuing tension on the Syrian Israeli frontier was now to become a major influence leading to the war which broke out on June 5th 1967 between Israel and her Arab neighbours, Egypt, Syria and Jordan. During the course of hostilities which lasted six days, Israel defeated Egypt and Jordan and then, after some stubborn fighting, outflanked and overran the Syrian positions on the hills above Lake Tiberias. With the breakthrough accomplished, Israeli forces made a rapid advance and occupied the town of Quneitra, about forty miles from Damascus. On June 10th Israel and Syria announced their formal acceptance of the United Nations proposal for a cease fire. UN observers were stationed on both sides of the line then existing between the Israeli and Syrian forces. The UN truce supervision control was established at Quneitra.

During the period following the war, Syria opposed all attempts to reach a compromise solution and in effect boycotted the Arab summit conference held at Khartoum in August 1967. In September the Baath party of Syria rejected all idea of a compromise with Israel, expressed its full support for the Yemen Republic and for the Arab nationalists in South Arabia and called on the Arab states in general to maintain a diplomatic, economic and cultural boycott of the United States, the United Kingdom and the German Federal Republic.

In the same month Israeli elements began to settle in some of the lands taken from the Arab states in the course of the war, particularly in Damas on the Syrian plateau. At the same time a number of small incidents occurred along the frontier between Israel and the adjacent Arab states, apparently the work of sabotage organizations trained and supported by Syria. On 4th November there was a brief conflict between Israeli forces and Syrian troops who crossed the cease-fire line on the Golan heights (located in the territories which Israel had taken over from Syria in June 1967).

A British resolution, urging the withdrawal of the Israeli forces from the lands occupied by them during the June war and the ending of the belligerency which the Arab governments had up till then maintained against Israel, was adopted by the UN Security Council in November 1967. However,

the resolution was immediately rejected by Syria, which alone maintained its commitment to a re-unified Palestine.

STRUGGLE FOR POWER 1968-71

The ruling Baath Party has for some years been divided into two main factions. Until October 1968 the dominant faction had been the "progressive" group led by Dr. Atassi and Dr. Makhous, the Premier and Foreign Minister respectively. This group was distinguished by its doctrinaire and Marxist-orientated public pronouncements (not always put into effect despite its control of the government) and by the strong support it received from the U.S.S.R. It held that the creation of a strong one-party state and economy along neo-Marxist lines was of paramount importance, overriding even the need for a militant stand towards Israel and for Arab unity.

By October 1968 the government felt particularly insecure, partly owing to a feud with the new Baath regime in Iraq, and at the end of the month a new cabinet was formed including several members of the opposing "nationalist" faction. This group took less interest in dieological questions and favoured a pragmatic attitude to the economy, improved relations with Syria's Arab neighbours and full participation in the campaign against Israel, including support for the fedayeen movement. Its leader was General Hafez Assad, who assumed the all-important Ministry of Defence. His critical attitude to the powerful Soviet influence on the government, seen by some "nationalists" as tantamount to colonialism in restricting Syria's freedom of action, led to a prolonged struggle with the "progressive" leadership. Cabinet reshuffles took place in March and again in May, but both Dr. Atassi and General Assad retained their positions. During the spring of 1969 a number of Communists were arrested or sent into exile, and the leader of the Syrian Communist Party (still technically an illegal organization) flew to Moscow.

General Assad attempted to take over the government in February 1969 but was forestalled by Soviet threats that if he did so all military supplies (including spares), economic and technical aid, and trade agreements would end. This would have brought about a major disruption in the national economy and the armed forces, and the "nationalists" were obliged to yield. In May General Mustafa Tlas, the Army Chief of Staff and General Assad's right-hand man, led a military delegation to Peking to buy arms. Some Chinese weapons were reported to be delivered in July. The incident indicated a new independence of Moscow. Some observers also saw this independence in the creation of a joint military command with Iraq (with whom relations improved during the spring) and Jordan. Relations with the Lebanon worsened, owing to Syria's support of the Lebanese fedayeen movement, which has many Syrian members. In the 1968-70 period this appeared to direct much of its activity towards bringing down the precarious Lebanese Government, presumably in the hope that a more militantly anti-Israel ministry would take power. Syria did, however, grant diplomatic recognition to the German Democratic Republic (East Germany) in June, and refused to resume diplomatic relations with Britain and the U.S.A. In May it was announced that a general election would be held in September, the first for seven years, but in August the elections were postponed indefinitely.

During the year 1969-70 there was some revival of activity on the front with Israel. Several air battles took place, and there was an extensive surface conflict involving tanks in June 1970; as usual, both sides claimed sweeping victories. Syria consistently supported the guerrilla forces in their struggle with the Jordan government, although guerrillas on Syrian territory seem to be allowed little freedom to manoeuvre.

In the spring of 1970 the Syrian section of the Tapline pipeline was put out of action, apparently by an accident. Syria refused to allow repairs, claiming that these operations would be dangerous as the section affected lies near Israeli-occupied territory. Since the pipeline and the crude oil it transports are American owned, the refusal was commonly seen as an attempt to put pressure on the United States and its Middle East policy. There was no official American reaction, but Saudi Arabia, as the oil producer affected and in any case at the opposite extreme to Syria in ideology, responded by threatening to abandon the use of Tapline altogether. This would have lost Syria (and the Lebanon and Jordan) considerable sums in transit dues. King Faisal also threatened to cease paying subventions to Egypt and Jordan, in the hope that these countries would then put pressure on Damascus to allow repairs. In January Syria allowed repairs to the pipeline to be started, after increased transit fees had apparently been conceded by Tapline.

In November 1970, following a reported coup attempt backed by Iraq in August, the struggle between the two factions of the Baath Party came to a head when General Assad seized power. Dr. Atassi, who was in hospital at the time, was placed under guard and retired General Salah Jadid, Assistant Secretary-General of the Baath Party and leader of the civilian faction, was arrested. Other members of the civilian wing were arrested or fled to the Lebanon. The coup was precipitated by attempts of Jadid and his supporters (culminating at the emergency session of the Tenth National Pan-Arab Congress of the Party) to oust Assad and Tlas from their posts. This power struggle had become acute as a result of differences over support for the Palestine guerrillas during the fighting with the Jordanian army in September. Jadid and Yousef Zayyen, a former Prime Minister, controlled the Syrian guerrilla organization, Saika, and supported the movement of tanks from Syria into Jordan to support the Palestinian guerrillas' efforts against the Jordanian army. This Assad and the military faction opposed. Their approach to the Palestinian problem was more akin to Nasser's and they wanted to avoid giving any provocation to Israel, because they considered the Syrian armed forces to be unready to offer adequate resistance.

There was no obvious opposition to the army takeover. Ahmed Khatib became acting President and General Assad Prime Minister and Party Secretary-General. A new Regional Command of the Baath Party was formed. The old leaders were removed from their posts in a purge which stretched into the new year. Saika was brought under army control. The Nasserite leanings of the new régime in foreign policy soon became apparent (and presumably helped Assad establish some kind of *modus vivendi* with the U.S.S.R.). Although Syria continued to reject the November 1967 UN Security Council resolution, relations with the U.A.R. and Jordan improved, and Syria's isolation in the Arab world was soon reduced. Syria's willingness to join a union with the U.A.R., Sudan and Libya almost immediately became apparent and agreement on federation with Libya and the U.A.R. was reached in April 1971. In the same month the Syrian Government advised the Palestinian guerrillas not to initiate any more operations from the Syrian front.

Following amendments to the 1969 provisional constitution in February 1971, General Assad was elected President for a seven-year term in March. In the following month General Abdel Rahman Khlefiawi became Premier and Mahmoud Ayoubi was appointed Vice-President. In February, the first legislative body in Syria since 1966, the People's Council, was formed. Of its 173 members, 87 represent the Baath Party.

ECONOMIC SURVEY

In many ways Syria is a land of great economic promise and her economy is basically stronger in several respects than that of her neighbour the Lebanon. It might therefore have been supposed that when the economic divorce between the two countries took place in 1950 Syria would do better than the Lebanon. Such expectations would not have been realized. Political instability interrupted by military dictatorship and accompanied always by the strident claims of extreme nationalism did not advance the country's economic development in the years that followed the separation of the two countries. The development of the country's economy therefore has been determined to a greater degree perhaps than anywhere else in the Middle East by the vagaries of her political history. Thus Syria's decision in 1958 to join Egypt in the United Arab Republic was followed by a period of increasingly severe *statism* on the Egyptian pattern of that time. The secession of Syria from the U.A.R. in September 1961 was similarly followed by the removal of many of the controls imposed during the preceding three years. The revolution of March 1963 and the worsening of the country's balance of payments in that year caused many of the controls to be brought back though some of them were relaxed in the spring of 1964. However in 1965 over 100 privately owned firms in Syria were nationalized including practically all the more important manufacturing concerns which were not already in public ownership. Since the Arab-Israeli war of 1967 the economic penetration of Syria by the communist countries has greatly increased. Something like a third of Syria's visible trade both export and import was with these countries by 1969. The new petroleum industry seems to be mainly managed by Russian technicians and the country's plans for economic development appear to depend very largely on Russian finance.

AREA AND POPULATION

The area of Syria is about 72 000 square miles rather less than three-quarters the size of England, Wales and Scotland and slightly larger than the state of Missouri. Just over a third of the country's area consists of desert and mountain and another 30 per cent of pasture suitable only for nomads. The cultivable area is estimated to amount to about 24 000 square miles or slightly more than a third of the total area but of this only about 10 000 square miles—a seventh of the whole—is actually under cultivation. In the middle of 1970 the population was estimated at 6 098 000 but for a country of which the basic occupation is agriculture and where the nomadic way of life is frequently followed a surprisingly high proportion—some 65 per cent—of the total population is classified as urban.

AGRICULTURE

There is a narrow strip of land along the coast from the Lebanese frontier to the Hatay ceded to the Turks in 1939 which enjoys a Mediterranean climate and is exceedingly fertile producing olives all kinds of hard and soft fruit, cotton and tobacco. East of this strip lies the northward continuation of the Lebanon range of mountains eastwards again the rainfall rapidly diminishes almost to vanishing point and there is a wider strip of steppe land perhaps a hundred miles wide curving north eastwards towards the Euphrates valley. On the edge of the steppe lies the Syrian desert. In earlier times Syria's economic importance was great for two important caravan routes between the Mediterranean and the Gulf and the Indian Ocean led through Syrian territory. One was from Damascus to Palmyra and then across the desert to the lower Euphrates. The other perhaps even more important hinged on the

ideal situation of Aleppo separated as that city is by no more than 50 miles from Antioch on the Orontes which flows into the Mediterranean and by the same distance from the upper Euphrates. Aleppo is still a place of importance but since the building of the Suez Canal and the development of air transport the importance of Syria as a link between the East and West has greatly diminished.

The grain crop of Syria is of some importance for in normal years there is generally an exportable surplus for the Lebanon and Jordan. But the harvest naturally depends on the rainfall which is uncertain and in several years during the last two decades there have been disastrous droughts when there is not only no surplus for export but grain has actually to be imported notably between 1958 and 1960 and during the years 1966 to 1968. The principal crop is wheat to which some 3 500 000 acres are generally sown the volume of the crop averages about 1 000 000 tons in a normal year such as 1969 but in 1970 it fell to about 600 000 tons. Similarly about 1 000 000 acres are usually sown to barley of which about 600 000 tons was produced in 1969 but in 1970 production was 200 000 tons so that fluctuations can be substantial. Other important cereal crops are sorghum, lentils, vetch, maize and rice.

Cotton has now come to assume even greater importance to Syria's economy than the cereal crop. Medium staple cotton has been grown in Syria for many years but the high price of cotton after the Second World War and particularly the dissatisfaction of western spinners with the unpredictable fluctuations in the price of Egyptian cotton during the early fifties gave a great stimulus to cotton production in Syria. In 1950 the area planted to cotton was only about 195 000 acres and production 35 000 tons. By 1955 the area planted was about 625 000 acres and production 85 000 tons. Since then the yield has greatly improved for though the acreage planted has remained roughly the same the production is generally well over 300 000 tons reaching 382 000 tons in the 1969/70 cotton season ending on August 31st. For the following season production was established in October 1970 at about 440 000 tons. Thus in two decades there has been a noteworthy increase in the size of the crop and simultaneously raw cotton has become far and away the country's most important article of export. This progress is partly due to the encouragement given to cotton growers by the government which strictly controls the planting and harvesting of the crop and the quality of the seed used and which has had some success in dealing with the diseases to which cotton is subject.

Fortunately there seems at present little danger that Syria might become like Egypt a one crop economy for apart from cereals and cotton the country produces abundant quantities of fruit and vegetables including grapes, figs, olives, apples, pears, potatoes, onions and sugar beet of which production was 114 000 tons in 1969. The famous tobacco of Latakia is not a heavy crop and the total yield does not often exceed about 7 000 tons. Stock raising also makes an important contribution to the Syrian economy and there are large flocks grazed by Bedouin in the steppe country west of the Syrian desert. In 1967 there were in the country some 5 600 000 sheep, 800 000 goats and 300 000 cattle. Live sheep and goats are usually exported in large quantities and so is their wool and hair. Except in the vicinity of Latakia and in the Jebel Druze in the south of the country the charcoal burner and the goat have deprived the country of extensive forests and the government is much concerned to preserve what remains.

AGRARIAN REFORM

In 1958 it was decided to carry out in Syria a land reform similar to that which had been provided for in Egypt under the legislation of 1952. In September 1958 a law was passed fixing the maximum limit of ownership in Syria at 80 hectares of irrigated and 300 hectares of non-irrigated land per person, though certain additional amounts were permitted to be held by the owner for his wife and his children if the additional amount did not exceed in all 40 hectares of irrigated and 160 hectares of non-irrigated land. The land expropriated was estimated at 2.75 million hectares. It was estimated also that about 750,000 persons, or 150,000 families, would benefit by re-distribution. There is good reason to think that discontent arising out of these measures was one of the factors contributing to Syria's secession from the United Arab Republic in September 1961. In May 1962 legislation was passed which, while not repealing the original law of 1958, increased the maximum holding both of irrigated and of non-irrigated land, and permitted the owner to select the land he wished to obtain free of any holders who had settled there under the law of 1958. In 1963 the law was again changed, and the maximum holding of irrigated land was reduced to between 15 and 50 hectares per person, according to the fertility of the land, the maximum holding of non-irrigated land falling to between 80 and 200 hectares per person. By the end of 1969, 1.5 million hectares had been expropriated. Some 380,000 hectares had been re-distributed to about 32,000 families and a further 200,000 hectares were not considered by the government as suitable for redistribution.

OIL

During the fifties, oil was discovered in commercial quantities in the north-east of the country. In 1956 a find was made at Karachuk by an American, J. W. Menhall, who later took the Atlantic Refining Co. into partnership, and in 1959 another find was made at Suwadiyah by Concordia, a subsidiary company of Deutsche Erdöl A.G. Later a third field was discovered at Rumaila. After several years of discussion about who was to exploit these fields, the government decided in 1964 that concessions should be granted only to the government-owned agency, the General Petroleum Authority. In the autumn of 1967, the government granted a contract to a Soviet firm for the development, on behalf of the General Petroleum Agency, of the Suwadiyah and Rumaila fields.

In the meantime, the government decided to arrange for the construction of a pipeline from these fields to the refinery at Homs (*see below*) and to the coast at Tartus. The contract was awarded to a British consortium in 1965, but was cancelled in July 1966 because of a dispute with the government and awarded to an Italian firm instead. The pipeline, which has a capacity of about 5 million tons per annum and runs for some 400 miles, was opened in May 1968, but at this point only one of the fields, that at Suwadiyah, was in production. Shortly after, the Karachuk and Rumaila field came into production. The port of Taitus is capable of taking 80,000-ton tankers, but is being expanded to take vessels of 120,000 tons. In 1969 the total oil production of the country was about 3 million tons, increasing to about 5 million tons in 1970, when it earned the equivalent of £820–825 million from export. Two other fields have been discovered at Jubaisah and Malikiyyah, plans are being made with Soviet assistance to expand the capacity of the pipeline, and in 1969 the Minister of Oil said he hoped that in four or five years' time production would be 15 million tons a year.

Apart from this, there are two systems of international pipelines which run across Syrian territory, and are of

great importance to the national economy. Of these, one follows the line of the original pipe of 1934 (though newer and larger pipes have since been laid by the side of the first pipeline) from the Iraq Petroleum Company's installations at Kirkuk to a point west of Homs. There it forks, one branch running south-west to Tripoli in the Lebanon, and the other, which was completed in 1952, not leaving Syrian territory, but turning north-west to reach the coast at Banias. The other system is Tapline, the pipeline which runs from Aramco's installations in Saudi Arabia to Sidon in Lebanon and in doing so crosses about 100 miles of Syrian territory, though some of this is now Israeli-occupied. From the transit payments made to the government large sums in foreign exchange enter the country.

The transit dues payable to Syria by the Iraq Petroleum Co. are much larger than those payable by Tapline because the length of the latter, which is inside Syrian territory, is much smaller. Dues payable by the Iraq Petroleum Co. were increased as the result of an agreement concluded in July 1971 for about £22 million to £34 million a year, the company undertaking, however, to increase throughput by the end of 1972 to the point where the dues would amount to more than £36 million a year. The dues payable by Tapline also were increased in January 1971 from about \$4.5 million a year to about \$8.5 million a year. Both lines have been subject to interruption by sabotage or military action. For example, in March 1969 Tapline was blown up by Arab guerrillas where it passes across the Golan Heights, since 1964 in the occupation of the Israelis, and it could not be repaired and reopened until the following September. It was out of action again for two short periods before the end of 1969 because of sabotage in Lebanese territory; and because of an accident to it in Syria in March 1970 it was once more out of action until the end of January 1971. These interruptions have caused a serious loss of foreign exchange to the government.

INDUSTRY.

Shortages of consumer goods during and immediately after the Second World War had induced the government to encourage the expansion of local industries by increasing duties on imported consumer goods, exempting new concerns from taxation and making credit available. The result was a remarkable expansion, and the production of electric power increased between 1960 and 1969 from an average of 30.7 to 85.2 kWh. per month. In July 1961, when Syria was part of the United Arab Republic, most industries were nationalized but after the break with Egypt in September 1961 many of them were denationalized in the spring of 1962, except for a large textile concern and certain flour mills. However, the provision of the legislation of July 1961, whereby companies were required to distribute 25 per cent of their profits to the workers, was retained, and as mentioned above there was a further wave of nationalization in 1965.

The principal industrial centres are around Damascus, Aleppo, Homs and Latakia. Exactly how many people are now occupied in industry is not certain, but in 1953 the Benthall Mission, which visited Syria on behalf of the British Board of Trade, stated that the textile industry alone employed some 60,000 persons. This is certainly the biggest single industry, and in recent years many modern spinning and weaving mills have been installed to spin or weave local cotton and imported yarn. The country's production of cotton yarn increased between 1950 and 1967 from 4,700 to over 17,000 tons. There has also been an important development of the cement industry, the production of cement having increased from 3,200 tons a month in 1951 to 77,800 tons a month in 1969. A sugar refinery has been installed at Homs to process local sugar-beet. There is an important vegetable-oil-refining in-

dustry, and a number of large tanneries, in addition to the usual industries for processing of foodstuffs, such as milling, canning and brewing. In 1959 a petroleum refinery at Homs was completed by a Czechoslovak group at a cost of \$554 million. In 1966 it produced about one million tons of products. In 1966 work started on the building of a nitrogenous fertilizer plant also at Homs. Recently the glass industry the secret of which according to Plunz, was discovered in Syria, has been revived and a factory is now in operation outside Damascus. All in all, Syria's manufacturing industries, though relatively new, have become an important element in the country's economy, and it has even been said that the contribution industry is making to the national income is nearly half that made by agriculture. So far as is known, Syria possesses few minerals of commercial value apart from oil. Chromium has, however, been mined near Latakia in recent times, and asphalt in the Jebel Ansariyeh. There is also asphalt in the region of Deir-zeor.

EXTERNAL TRADE

There has been a noteworthy expansion in the country's foreign trade since the separation between Syria and the Lebanon in 1950, though Syria's exports, being mainly agricultural, fluctuate severely with climatic conditions. Thus the value of exports increased from £271 million in 1951 to £722 million in 1961, falling because of bad cereal harvests to £591 million in 1967 and recovering to £775 million in 1970. Imports however, have increased more rapidly. Thus in 1951 the value of imports was £291 million. By 1961 it was £564 million and it has doubled in the years that followed reaching £810 million in 1967, and in 1970 it is estimated to have been about £813 million. There has consequently been a proportionately heavy increase in the adverse balance of visible trade during the past decade or so.

As already indicated, the principal export is raw cotton, which in 1969 accounted for 41 per cent of the total value of exports. The value of raw wool exports generally amounts to about 5 per cent of the total. As already mentioned large quantities of cereals are exported when the harvest is good but in 1969 the value of this class accounted for no more than about 5 per cent. Live animals, mainly sheep and goats amounted to about 13 per cent of the total value of exports in 1969 but by 1969 the value of petroleum exports already accounted for 20 per cent of the total. Imports consist mainly of industrial raw materials and manufactured articles. In 1969 for example, imports of machinery, including electrical machinery amounted to 16 per cent of the total value of imports and textiles for another 11 per cent, in spite of the high tariff imposed to protect the local industry. Petroleum took another 10 per cent.

Lebanon, France and Italy were formerly the largest buyers of Syria's exports. Syrian grain and cotton in normal years being exported in considerable quantities to these countries. In 1955 for example, the Lebanon took 23 per cent of Syria's exports, France 12 per cent and Italy 11 per cent. But the economic penetration of Syria by the USSR, the Eastern European countries and China has resulted in important changes. By 1969 no less than 38 per cent of her exports went to these countries of which just under half went to the Soviet Union though about 31 per cent still went to the other Arab countries, the share of Italy and France in 1969 being 12 and 3 per cent respectively. Nor has the West been able to maintain its share of Syria's import trade. In 1965, 12 per cent of the value of her imports was supplied by Western Germany, 11 per cent by the United Kingdom, 9 per cent by the United States and 8 per cent by France, the proportion then being bought from the Soviet Union and the other

communist countries standing at 11 per cent. By 1969 their share had increased to 31 per cent of the total value of imports but the percentage supplied by Western Germany, the United Kingdom, the United States and France had fallen to 7, 5, 3 and 7 per cent respectively. The other principal suppliers in 1969 were the other Arab countries with 14 per cent and Italy with 9 per cent.

In 1962 Syria and Iraq entered into negotiations designed to eliminate commercial barriers between them. Each agreed to issue import licences for goods manufactured in the other state, to foster joint industrial co-operation, to ease the transfer of capital and to co-ordinate legislation with a view to closer economic development between the two countries. In the summer of 1967 customs duties on trade between the two countries were eliminated and the two agreed to standardize tariffs on their trade with third parties. They also agreed to create a joint body designed to secure the economic integration of the two countries. An agreement for economic co-operation was also signed in December 1962 between Syria and Poland.

FINANCE

According to the latest figures available published by the International Monetary Fund Syria's balance of international payments showed a deficit of US \$92 million on current account in 1969. There was a visible trade deficit of US \$163 million after adjustment by the IMF, and this was partly offset by current invisible items, mainly private donations consisting of remittances by Syrian emigrants to America and West Africa, of receipts from oil companies and other services amounting in all to US \$71 million net. The balance was made good by capital imports. The gold and foreign exchange reserves of the country have remained fairly stable at about US \$90 million, and at the end of September 1970 stood at US \$95 million, excluding Special Drawing Rights of US \$5 million.

The international price of the Syrian pound remained remarkably stable after devaluation in 1949, until the promise of the introduction of a new currency as part of the economic reform entailed by the establishment of the United Arab Republic led to a flight of Syrian capital into foreign holdings and caused a sharp depreciation in the value of the Syrian pound. Shortly before the secession of Syria from the United Arab Republic, severe exchange restrictions had to be introduced, most of which were removed in the following summer only to be imposed again in May 1963. The restrictions failed to stop the drain on the country's exchange reserves, and negotiations eventually took place with the International Monetary Fund as the result of which the Fund agreed to a new stand by arrangement in 1964. Syria's quota in the Fund had been increased shortly before to £38 million, an increase of £18 million, which was fully drawn by the end of 1964. Syria for her part undertook to introduce a limited free exchange market, to restrict imports and to relate the growth of money supply to the increase of economic activity. In the autumn of 1967 the fund permitted Syria to make a special drawing of \$19 million, and the net amount owing to the fund in April 1971 also was \$19 million. The free rate of exchange was kept stable at about £4 20 to the US dollar and £510 1 to the £ sterling for 1968 and 1969, since which it has depreciated, standing at the end of 1970 at £4 32 to the US dollar, or £511 3 to the £ sterling.

Until 1956, the currency was managed by the Banque de Syrie et du Liban, a commercial bank formerly associated with the Ottoman Bank but in that year these functions were taken over by a new state-owned Central

Bank of Syria. Apart from the Banque de Syrie et du Liban, several other foreign banks operated in Syria, including the British Bank of the Middle East, but neither Damascus nor Aleppo acquired the importance of Beirut in the world of international finance. In 1959 a new industrial bank was established with 55 per cent of the shares held by the government. While Syria was a part of the United Arab Republic, all foreign banks were nationalized, the British and French banks having been under sequestration since 1956. After Syria broke with Egypt most of the Arab-owned banks were denationalized, but in May 1963 all the banks still in private hands were nationalized once more. At the beginning of 1967, the nationalized banks were merged into one institution named the Commercial Bank of Syria; the Industrial Bank and the Agricultural Bank which existed already were given the role of financing industry and agriculture respectively. Two new banks were formed, a Real Estate Bank to handle construction and a Popular Credit Bank to provide credit for personal needs.

There has been a constant and steady increase in the expenditure of the state during the past few years, and between 1953 and 1961-62 expenditure rose from £S 205 to 552 million, largely owing to the increased cost of defence. For the calendar year 1971, estimated ordinary budget expenditure was estimated at £S1,443 million compared with £S1,391 million in 1970. Getting on for half of the ordinary expenditure is spent on defence, excluding the cost of the internal security forces, and rather less than 20 per cent on education. In addition, there is an extraordinary budget covering expenditure on public utilities and on development. For 1971 the extraordinary budget estimated expenditure at £S1,426 million compared with £S1,396 million in 1970, so that in 1971 total expenditure was estimated to be £S2,869 million compared with £S2,737 in 1970. There has been a steady increase in the debt of the government to the Central Bank. At the end of 1960 it amounted to £S451 million. By September 1970 it amounted to £S2,358 million. As the result of the conference of Arab states held in August 1967 after the Arab-Israeli war of that summer, Kuwait, Libya and Saudi Arabia agreed to grant financial assistance to the states which had suffered heavy losses. Syria's share was U.S. \$40 million per annum.

ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

It has always been recognized that Syria is no less dependent on foreign capital and foreign techniques for her economic development than any other country in the Middle East. Since World War II, a series of attempts have been made to work out a comprehensive plan for the economic development of the country on the basis that a substantial part of the cost would have to be borne by foreign capital. In 1946, for instance, the British firm of engineering consultants, Sir Alexander Gibb and Partners, made a survey of the country, as the result of which several important projects were put in hand. In 1954, the government asked the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development to examine the problem of the country's economic development afresh, and the bank recommended that the government should adopt a six-year plan. In 1957 the government agreed to accept a loan from the U.S.S.R. for specific schemes of economic development amounting to £50 million sterling bearing interest at 2½ per cent per annum. The kaleidoscopic changes in the country's relations with Egypt introduced a further element of instability into Syria's economic life, and this created obstacles to steady economic development. Since 1967, Syria appears to have relied more and more upon the Russians for their development plans, as regards both

technical assistance and finance, and it is not easy to follow exactly what has been happening.

Nevertheless, a good deal of progress was made on several of the more important schemes included in the earlier plans. The construction of a new port at Tartus, recommended by the Gibb report, and made more than ever necessary by the economic divorce of Syria from the Lebanon and the free port of Beirut in 1950, carried out by Yugoslav contractors. The drainage of the Ghab marshes created by the flooding of the River Orontes between Latakia and Aleppo, which would irrigate an additional 100,000 acres, was put in hand as the result of the Gibb report and that of the World Bank. Similarly the construction of the oil refinery mentioned above, which was included in the six-year plan produced by the World Bank, was realized in 1959, as stated above.

Moreover, finance was found abroad for several other schemes of some importance. Among these were a long-term loan of about \$15 million from the United States Government for the construction of grain silos, a credit of \$15 million from Poland for the purchase of agricultural machinery, and a similar credit of up to \$50 million from France, all in 1962; in 1963, the International Development Association made \$8.5 million available for the foreign exchange cost of surveying the road system and strengthening the Department of Highways and Bridges. In 1967 a French firm arranged to provide credit to the government totalling about \$40 million, to finance work on the road from Damascus to Aleppo and the construction of grain silos; in 1969 loans of \$50 million were obtained from Eastern Germany for the construction of steel projects, and of KD3 million from Kuwait for silos.

In 1966 details were published of a five year plan for economic development for the period 1966-70. It was then estimated that the total expenditure would be £S4,955 million or about \$1,300 million, and that it would, when realized, increase the net national product by rather more than 7 per cent per year. In 1968 this was exceeded, the growth rate in that year having been just over 8 per cent according to the government, though no figure for the G.N.P. has been given by the IMF monthly bulletin for any year since 1965. The main projects covered by the plan were the realization of the first phase of the Euphrates Dam project, the development of the oilfields in the north-east and the construction of the pipeline to the Mediterranean, irrigation and agriculture, the establishment of the nitrogenous fertilizer plant at Homs, and important schemes for the electrification of the country and the improvement of communications. Some details were given in April 1971 of the five-year plan covering the years 1971 to 1975. The total expenditure over the period was to be £S8,000 million, or about U.S. \$1,900 million. Of this £S1,593 million were to be spent on the Euphrates Dam project, described below. A further £S1,489 million were to be allocated to public utilities and £S1,323 to industry. Electric power and petroleum were to receive £S1,014 million, of which just under three-quarters was to be spent on petroleum largely on exploration and development. The plan included also allocations of £S883 million for transport and communication, £S576 million for agriculture, and £S352 for irrigation and land reclamation. Little was said as to how the plan was to be financed, but as will be seen above, £S1,426 million was to be provided in 1971 out of the extraordinary budget for economic development.

The most ambitious of the projects contained in these five-year plans is the Euphrates Dam project. This is a scheme for constructing a huge dam on the Euphrates connected with a power station having an initial capacity of 200,000 kWh., and the digging of certain canals which would lead to the irrigation of about 1,640,000 acres of

land. The difficulties which this plan faces are not only financial but political for it would of course be necessary to reach agreement with the other riparian states Turkey and Iraq on how the waters of the Euphrates would be shared before the project could be finally realized. Notwithstanding these problems in 1963 the West German authorities agreed to provide credits of up to DM 350 million towards meeting the foreign exchange costs. Perhaps because of the worsening of relations between Germany and the Arab world arising out of the problem of Israel the German offer of finance was dropped in 1963. In April 1966 however an agreement was reached with

the U S S R, which consented to give the Syrians technical and financial assistance on the first phase of the scheme. It was estimated that this phase would cost some £51 000 million or about \$260 million of which the U S S R, would lend the Syrians £5600 million or \$137 million to cover the foreign exchange costs. The whole scheme and its associated hydro electrical project was estimated at the time to cost about £52 400 million or about \$628 million. Work began on the dam in the spring of 1968 with the assistance of large numbers of Soviet experts by 1969 considerable progress was reported and in that year some 22 per cent of the development budget was appropriated

B S E

STATISTICAL SURVEY

AREA AND POPULATION

TOTAL AREA	ARABLE LAND	PASTURES	FOREST	POPULATION (1970)
185,180 sq. km.	87,139 sq. km.	54,450 sq. km.	4,405 sq. km.	6,294,000

	BIRTHS	MARRIAGES	DEATHS
1967 . . .	183,900	33,714	25,486
1968 . . .	190,533	40,117	25,342
1969 . . .	181,925*	56,268	26,327

* The drop in 1969 is due to an increase in the number of non-registered births.

CHIEF TOWNS

(1969)

Damascus (capital) . . .	813,008	Latakia . . .	97,504
Aleppo . . .	589,482	Deir-ez-Zor . . .	72,743
Homs . . .	197,645	Hasakeh . . .	22,139
Hama . . .	157,477		

AGRICULTURE

AREA AND PRODUCTION OF PRINCIPAL CROPS

	1968		1969	
	Hectares	Metric tons	Hectares	Metric tons
Wheat . . .	891,000	600,000	1,221,000	1,003,000
Barley . . .	631,000	512,000	626,000	627,000
Maize . . .	5,000	7,700	5,500	8,700
Millet . . .	41,100	37,400	24,500	20,600
Lentils . . .	99,300	48,300	100,400	90,200
Cotton . . .	288,400	394,000	299,100	382,400
Tobacco . . .	10,700	8,500	10,700	8,900
Sesame . . .	13,000	8,300	9,700	5,700
Grapes . . .	69,000	213,000	68,000	248,300
Olives . . .	142,000	112,000	142,000	128,900
Figs . . .	23,000	53,000	24,000	50,100
Apricots . . .	10,000	19,000	10,000	13,000
Apples . . .	7,000	25,500	5,000	23,100
Sugar Beet . . .	7,600	166,000	7,100	188,700
Pomegranates . . .	3,000	15,900	3,300	18,000
Onions . . .	5,600	50,100	5,200	47,900
Tomatoes . . .	17,700	183,600	16,600	192,000
Potatoes . . .	4,400	50,300	4,500	47,500

SYRIA—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

LIVESTOCK (^{'000 head})

	1966	1967	1968
Cattle .	401	338 7	358
Horses .	67	62 8	63
Camels .	7 4	10 3	6 4
Asses .	199	239 8	235
Sheep .	5 682	5 735	4 847
Goats	910	827	779
Hens and Chickens	4 599	3 734	4 246

DAIRY PRODUCE

		1966	1967	1968
Milk .	^{'000 tons}	604	519	548
Cheese .	tons	32,379	29,029	29 919
Butter .	"	1,801	1,968	1,941
Honey .	"	169	237	220
Ghee .	"	15,439	10,492	11,476
Eggs .	^{'000}	221,790	212,006	312,929

INDUSTRY

	UNIT	1967	1968	1969
Cotton Yarn	^{'000 tons}	17 4	17 3	21 1
Silk and Cotton Textiles	" "	37 8	38 7	28 3
Woollen Fabrics	million metres	1 6	2 6	4 5
Cement	^{'000 tons}	638 0	917 0	933 0
Natural Asphalt	" "	13 0	20 1	29 1
Glass	" "	12 8	16 0	13 7
Soap	" "	14 0	14 2	18 7
Sugar	" "	71 3	83 1	113 8
Salt	" "	20 0	29 7	31 5
Edible Oils	" "	15 3	22 9	26 3
Manufactured Tobacco	" "	4 1	4 0	3 9
Electricity	million kWh	676 1	772 1	1 023 1
Beer	^{'000 litres}	2 103 0	2 608 0	2 950 0
Wine	" "	191 0	183 0	n.a.
Arak	" "	527 0	400 0	n.a.

OIL

FLOW OF OIL ACROSS SYRIA (^{'000 tons})

YEAR	TOTAL	To BANIAS	To SIDON (Lebanon)	To TRIPOLI (Lebanon)
1964 . .	60,855	25,517	20,854	14 534
1965 . .	63 348	26 235	21,414	15 699
1966 . .	62,875	25,460	22 340	15,075
1967 . .	51,381	20,593	16,553	14,235
1968 . .	73 389	29,533	23,543	20,313

Commercial oil production began in 1968 when about 1 million metric tons were produced. Estimated 1969 production 3 million metric tons.

SYRIA—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

FINANCE

Syrian pound (£S)=100 piastres.
£S11=£1 sterling; £S4.58=U.S. \$1.
£S100=£9.09 sterling=U.S. \$21.83.

ORDINARY BUDGET*

(£S million)

	1967	1968	1969
National Defence	421.6	647.6	661.6
Cultural and Social Affairs	216.5	242.3	251.2
Communications and Public Works	23.1	29.4	32.3
Economic Affairs and Planning	149.4	156.4	137.4
Administrative Affairs	54.0	67.0	116.5
TOTAL	864.6	1,142.7	1,199.0

* The Syrian budget is published at the end of the year in question.

General expenditure for 1970 amounted to £S1,443 million.

CONSOLIDATED BUDGET

(£S million)

A new consolidated budget has been issued incorporating both ordinary and development budgets

	1970
Justice and Public Authorities	45.2
National Security	679.3
Culture and Information	293.4
Social Welfare	59.3
Economy and Finance	276.2
Agriculture and Land Reclamation	554.5
Industry and Mining	443.6
Public Works, Utilities and Communica- tions	371.6
Other Expenditure and Revenue	56.9
TOTAL	2,780.0

NATIONAL ACCOUNTS

(£S million—at 1963 prices)

	1966	1967	1968	1969
NET DOMESTIC PRODUCT AT FACTOR COST	3,720	3,998	4,222	4,790
<i>of which:</i>				
Industry	577	616	693	832
Agriculture	1,008	1,202	1,025	1,337
Construction	121	104	142	147
Transport and Communications	339	363	451	482
Wholesale and Retail Trade	544	561	621	646
Banking and Insurance	80	73	89	104
Property	289	297	303	311
Public Administration	474	482	571	592
Services	288	300	327	339
Indirect taxation less subsidies	407	344	306	464
NET DOMESTIC PRODUCT AT MARKET PRICES	4,127	4,342	4,528	5,254
Depreciation Allowances	195	209	220	233
GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT AT MARKET PRICES	4,322	4,551	4,748	5,487

EXTERNAL TRADE

(£S 000)

	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969
Imports	812 205	1 103 438	1 009 000	1 263 000	1 411 300
Exports	643 741	661 390	591 000	643 000	789 900

COMMODITIES (£S million)

IMPORTS	1966	1967	1968	1969
Cotton textiles other textile goods and silk	139 4	88 2	109 9	158 9
Mineral fuels and oils	175 9	94 5	131 7	144 9
Lime cement and salt	5 2	4 2	4 7	16 6
Cereals	13 0	46 9	94 6	28 5
Vegetables and fruit	48 0	50 6	53 2	50 8
Oilseeds and medical plants	8 3	5 9	6 2	7 4
Machinery apparatus and electrical materials	122 1	173 2	206 1	226 3
Precious metals and coins	1 8	1 4	36 7	7 3
Base metals and manufactures	134 5	194 1	172 7	212 7
Vehicles	17 3	30 4	32 3	104 1
Chemical and pharmaceutical products	60 9	46 8	49 4	64 5
Preserved foods beverages and tobacco	31 5	34 7	29 1	49 1
Other products	265 5	242 0	269 5	340 2

EXPORTS	1966	1967	1968	1969
Cotton (raw yarn textiles)	356 7	269 8	269 1	325 9
Other textile goods	57 2	9 7	11 3	58 3
Cereals	6 1	11 9	23 1	39 8
Vegetables and fruit	27 9	46 1	43 1	46 0
Precious metals	0 7	1 1	0 9	0 8
Preserved foods beverages and tobacco	5 2	35 9	42 6	44 8
Live animals	83 8	71 8	106 8	99 6
Dairy products	5 7	6 2	5 6	4 0
Other	118 1	138 8	170 5	170 7

COUNTRIES (£S million)

IMPORTS	1966	1967	1968	1969
Iraq	69 7	65 2	75 8	88 1
Lebanon	37 1	36 2	59 8	72 1
Italy	76 9	113 4	98 3	123 1
France	62 5	76 5	92 8	93 7
German Federal Republic	102 3	76 6	68 5	99 4
United Kingdom	67 5	64 1	47 7	64 9
USA	86 6	36 2	78 5	50 9
Japan	43 4	30 7	33 4	59 6
Cuba	12 4	15 3	12 1	20 1
Belgium	18 5	13 9	18 6	26 2
Netherlands	22 1	14 0	21 5	28 4
USS R.	81 6	105 5	108 4	125 9

SYRIA—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

EXPORTS	1966	1967	1968	1969
United Kingdom	5.4	2.5	2.8	8.9
U.S.A.	12.6	5.7	3.7	5.1
Japan	29.6	42.4	43.9	11.3
U.S.S.R.	71.7	73.0	74.5	136.0
Kuwait	9.5	21.0	36.4	21.3
Czechoslovakia	4.7	7.3	3.8	11.4
German Federal Republic	29.7	17.8	21.4	7.6
France	30.6	43.3	33.7	26.4
Lebanon	117.8	120.5	142.7	112.2
Jordan	32.1	26.3	27.1	41.7
Italy	18.4	22.2	53.7	96.6
Saudi Arabia	23.7	25.0	14.2	12.4
China	83.0	29.7	29.2	43.7
Romania	33.7	24.2	14.1	22.0

TRANSPORT

RAILWAYS

	1968	1969
Passenger-km.	84,953	96,275
Freight, '000 tons	889	855

ROADS

	1968	1969
Private Cars	22,301	23,106
Buses	1,557	1,719
Lorries, Trucks, etc.	13,640	15,536
Motor-cycles	6,102	7,179
Taxis	6,165	6,268

SHIPPING

PORT OF LATAKIA

	1966	1967	1968	1969
Number of steam vessels entering harbour	1,490	1,341	1,527	1,697
Number of sailing vessels entering harbour	174	185	206	216
Cargo unloaded ('000 tons)	1,465	1,294	1,612	1,597
Cargo loaded ('000 tons) †	377	331	374	526

CIVIL AVIATION

(Damascus Airport)

	1967		1968		1969	
	ARRIVE	DEPART	ARRIVE	DEPART	ARRIVE	DEPART
No. of Planes	3,203	3,204	3,367	3,368	3,640	3,644
No. of Passengers	69,394	78,202	103,612	108,230	124,607	123,662

SYRIA—(STATISTICAL SURVEY, THE CONSTITUTION, THE GOVERNMENT)

TOURISM

	JORDANIANS AND LEBANESE	TOTAL VISITORS
1966	486 132	935 392
1967	576 792	864 400
1968	471 348	772 452
1969	518 029	760 193

Tourist Accommodation: 19 952 tourist hotel beds (1969)

EDUCATION

(1968-69)

	PUPILS		TEACHERS	
	Public Sector	Private Sector	Public Sector	Private Sector
Pre School	—	26 090	—	654
Primary	757 542	35 479	20 267	1 425
Intermediate	127 520	33 886	8 521	2 299
Secondary	53 705	19 977		
Vocational	8 124	160	839	8
Teacher Training	3 667	—	433	—
Universities	34 746	—	548	—

Source Statistical Yearbook of Damascus and Aleppo Universities

Source Central Bureau of Statistics Office of the Prime Minister, Damascus

THE CONSTITUTION

The constitutional position remained confused after the dissolution of the union with Egypt in 1961 until the promulgation of a new provisional constitution in May 1969. This declared that 'the Syrian Arab region will constitute a democratic popular and socialist republic' in which the Baath will be the sole political party. A People's Assembly will be the supreme power in the state,

and it will choose the President of the Republic and ratify laws. The republic will have a planned socialist economy but private property rights will be respected. In practice much power lies in the hands of the Baath Party, especially its sixteen member leadership committee and its nine-member Political Bureau.

THE GOVERNMENT

HEAD OF STATE

President: Lieut. Gen. HAFEZ ASSAD (elected March 12th 1971 for a seven year term)

Vice-President: MAHMOUD AYOUBI

CABINET

(May 1971)

Prime Minister: Gen. ABDEL RAHMAN KHEFAWI

Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Industry: MUHAMMAD TALIB HILAL

Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Foreign Affairs: ABDEL HALIM KHADDAM

Ministers of State: Dr. DAUD AL RIDDAWI, YOUSUF FAISAL, GHALEB ABDOUN, FAYIZ ISMAIL

Minister of State for Planning: SAMI SOUFAN

Minister of State for Village Affairs at the Front: AHMED KARLAN

Minister of Municipal Affairs: MAHMOUD KUMBAZ

Minister of the Economy and External Trade: MUSTAFA HALLAJ

Minister of Justice: ADIB AL-NABAWI

Minister of Transport: OMAR SEBAI

Minister for the Euphrates Dam: MUNIR WANNOUS

Minister of Education: ADNAN BAGHAJATI

Minister of Defence: MUTIB SHINAN

Minister of Religious Affairs: Sheikh ABDEL SATTAR EL-SAYYED

Minister of Health: MAHMOUD SAADAH

Minister of Information: FAYIZ NASSER

Minister of the Interior: Col. ALI ZAZA

Minister of Agriculture and Agrarian Reform: MUHAMMAD HAIDAR

Minister of Supply and Internal Trade: ABDEL KARIM ADI

Minister of Public Works and Water Resources: ABDEL GHANI KANNOUT

Minister of Higher Education: SHAKIR FAHHAM

Minister of Petroleum, Electricity and Mineral Resources: MUSTAFA HADDAD

Minister of Finance: NOURALLAH NOURALLAH

Minister of Culture, Tourism and National Guidance: FAWZI KAYYALI

Minister of Labour and Social Affairs: HARWAN SABBAQH

Minister of Local Administration: JABER AL KIYRI

DIPLOMATIC REPRESENTATION

REPRESENTATIVES OF SYRIA ABROAD

AMBASSADORS

(CA) Chargé d'Affaires.

Algeria: Dr. M. K. BAAS, Algiers.
Austria: (*see* Vatican).
Argentina: JAWDAT ATASSI, Buenos Aires.
Belgium: ADIB DAOUDY, Brussels (CA) (also accred. to Netherlands and Luxembourg).
Brazil: JAMIL CHAYA, Rio de Janeiro.
Bulgaria: ABDUL FATTAH BUSHI, Sofia.
Chile: BOURHAN KAYAL, Santiago.
China, People's Republic: YOUSSEF CHAKRA, Peking.
Cyprus: MUHAMMAD JOUHEIR ACCAD, Nicosia (CA).
Czechoslovakia: ADIB ASFARI, Prague (also accred. to Hungary).
France: KAMEL HUSSEIN, Paris.
German Democratic Republic: HEYSSAM KEYLANI, Berlin.
Greece: IBRAHIM KHOURY, Athens.
Guinea: NAIM KADAH, Conakry.
Hungary: (*see* Czechoslovakia).
India: HAMMOUD SHOUI, New Delhi.
Iran: (vacant), Teheran (CA).
Iraq: BAHAEDDIN NAKKAR, Baghdad.
Italy: JAMIL CHAYA (A).
Jordan: (vacant), Amman.

Korea (D.P.R.): YUSIF SHIKLA, Pyongyang.
Kuwait: MUHAMMAD KASSAR, Kuwait.
Luxembourg: (*see* Belgium).
Netherlands: (*see* Belgium).
Poland: (*see* U.S.S.R.).
Saudi Arabia: MEDHAT BITAR, Riyadh.
Somalia: ADNAN MURAD, Mogadishu.
Spain: ABDUL FATTAH AL-BOCHI, Madrid.
Sudan: HAFEZ JAMALI, Khartoum.
Switzerland: (*see* Vatican).
Tunisia: (to be appointed).
Turkey: Dr. SALAH EADINE TARAZI, Ankara.
U.S.S.R.: SHAYA JAMIL, Moscow (also accred. to Poland).
U.A.R.: Dr. SAMI DROUBI, Cairo.
Vatican: (Vacant), Rome (also accred. to Austria and Switzerland).
Venezuela: BASHIR AL KOTB, Caracas.
Yugoslavia: M. JAKS, Belgrade (A).

United Nations: Dr. GEORGES TOMEH, New York (Permanent Representative).

EMBASSIES ACCREDITED TO SYRIA

(Damascus unless otherwise stated)

Algeria: Rue Nouri Pacha, (E); *Ambassador:* ALI H. KAFI.
Argentina: Raouda, Rue Ziad ben Abi Soufian, Imm. Ab Kérim Abul, (E); *Ambassador:* RAMON CASANOVA.
Belgium: Rue Ata Ayoubi, Imm. Hachem, (E); *Ambassador:* XAVIER CLAEYS BOUUAERT.
Brazil: 76 Rue Ata Ayoubi, (E); *Ambassador:* ALTAMIR DE MOURA.
Bulgaria: 4 Rue Chahbandar, (E); *Ambassador:* VASSIL BALEVSKI.
Canada: Rue Clemenceau, Imm. Alpha, (E); *Ambassador:* CHRISTIAN HARDY.
Chile: Beirut, Lebanon, (E); *Ambassador:* ALBERTO SFEIR SFEIR.
Chinese People's Republic: Avenue Al Jala'a, (E); *Ambassador:* CHEN TAN.
Cuba: 81 Avenue Al Jala'a, (E); *Ambassador:* CARLOS ALVAREZ VARELA.
Czechoslovakia: Place Aboul-Alaa, (E); *Ambassador:* BEDŘICH PISTORA.
Denmark: Beirut, Lebanon, (E); *Ambassador:* HANS VALDEMAR BERTELSEN.
France: Rue Ata Ayoubi, (E); *Ambassador:* ANDRE NEGRE.
German Democratic Republic: (address not available) (E); *Ambassador:* ALFRED MARTER.

Greece: 57 Rue Ata Ayoubi, (E); *Ambassador:* ALEXANDER XYDIS.
Hungary: 13 Rue Ibrahim Hanano (Imm. Roujoulé), (E); *Ambassador:* ISTVAN MURAI.
India: 40/46 Avenue Al Malki, (E); *Ambassador:* VIRASAT ALI KIDWAI.
Indonesia: 19 Rue Al-Amir Ezzeddine, (E); *Ambassador:* HADJI MUHAMMAD SOEDJONO.
Iran: Avenue Al-Jala'a, Imm. Wazzan, (E); *Ambassador:* ARDACHIR NOURAZAR.
Iraq: Avenue Al Jala'a (Imm. Coudsi), (E); *Ambassador:* (vacant).
Italy: 82 Avenue Al Mansour, (E); *Ambassador:* (vacant).
Japan: 62 Rue Rawdak, (E); *Ambassador:* TOSHIO YOSHIOKA.
Jordan: Avenue Al Jala'a, (E); *Ambassador:* (vacant).
Korea, Democratic People's Republic: 89 Avenue Al Jala'a, (E); *Ambassador:* PAK IN KEUN.
Kuwait: Rue Ibrahim Hanano, (E); *Ambassador:* MAJRAJ AL-HAMAD.
Libya: Place Al Malki, 10 Avenue Mansour, (E); *Ambassador:* FARAJ BEN JULAYEL.

SYRIA—(DIPLOMATIC REPRESENTATION, POLITICAL PARTIES, JUDICIAL SYSTEM)

Mauritania: Address not available (E), *Ambassador* ABDALLAH OULD ERREBH

Netherlands: Rue Ziad Ben Abi Soufian, (E), *Ambassador* ANDRÉ M E BRINK.

Pakistan: Avenue Al Jala'a (E) *Ambassador* ALTAF AHMAD SHAIKH

Poland: Rue Georges Haddad Imm Chabine (Av Al Jala'a) (E), *Ambassador* LONGIN ARABSKI

Romania: 32 Rue Ibrahim Hanano, Avenue Al Jala'a (E), *Ambassador* VASILE POGACEANU

Saudi Arabia: Avenue Al Jala'a, (E), *Ambassador* ABDUL RAHMAN AL-HAMIDI

Spain: 14 Rue Mistr, (E), *Ambassador* JUAN JOSÉ ROVIRA

Sweden: Damascus (E), *Ambassador* AAKE JONSSON

Switzerland: 12 Rue Georges Haddad, (E), *Ambassador* ANDRÉ DOMINIC

Tunisia: (to be appointed)

Turkey: 58 Avenue Ziad Bin Abou Soufian (E) *Ambassador* FAHR ALACAM

U.S.S.R.: Boustan El Kouzbari Rue d Alep, (E), *Ambassador* NOUREDDIN MOHIEDDINOV

United Arab Republic: Rue Mistr, Imm Malka (E), *Ambassador* MAMDOUH GOBRA

Vatican: Rue Nasr (*Apostolic Nunciature*) RAPHAEL FORNI

Viet-Nam, Democratic Republic: (E) *Ambassador* HOANG DUC PHONG

Yugoslavia: Avenue Al Jala'a (E) MUSTAFA VILOVIC

Syria also has diplomatic relations with Austria Chad Cyprus Colombia Finland Morocco Sudan Venezuela and Yemen Republic

POLITICAL PARTIES

Baath Party: Arab socialist party in power since 1963 supports militant Arab unity 87 seats in the People's Council and 14 members of the Cabinet Founder MICHEL AFLAK the leader of the Party's military faction Lieut Gen HAFEZ ASSAD suspended its National Command in March 1971

Syrian Arab Socialist Union: Nasserite 11 seats in the People's Council and 2 members of the Cabinet Leader DR JAMAL ATASI

Socialist Union: 4 seats in the People's Council and 6 members of the Cabinet Leader SAMI SOUFAN

Syrian Socialist Party: a breakaway socialist party, 4 seats in the People's Council Leader AKRAM HOURANI

Communist Party of Syria: 8 seats in the People's Council and 2 members of the Cabinet Sec Gen. KHALID BAGDASH

JUDICIAL SYSTEM

Court of Cassation: Damascus is the highest court of appeal

Courts of Appeal: 9 Courts of Appeal try all criminal cases subject to appeal, as well as all other cases within their competence by virtue of the law in force decisions are given by three judges one of them being the President

Summary Courts: 85 Summary Courts try civil commercial and penal cases within their competence a Summary Court is constituted by one judge known as a "Judge of the Peace"

First Instance Courts: 12 First Instance Courts constituted by one judge, deal with all cases other than those within the competence of special tribunals

Chief Justice of Syria: IBRAHIM AL FARAJI

RELIGIOUS COURTS

Muslim Religious Courts: each court consists of one judge, the 'Qadi Shari'

Druze Religious Courts: consists of two courts, the First Instance Court with one judge (the "Confessional Qadi"), and the Court of Appeal in which three judges sit

Religious Courts for Non-Muslim Communities

OTHER COURTS

Courts for Minors: their constitution officers sessions jurisdiction and competence are determined by a special law

Military Court: Damascus

RELIGION

In religion the majority of Syrians follow a form of Sunni orthodoxy that is somewhat suspect to stricter Muslims by reason of the elaboration of ritual, and tolerance of art and ornament. There are also a considerable number of religious minorities: Muslim Shi'ites; the Ismaili of the Salamiya district, whose spiritual head is the Aga Khan; a large number of Druses, whose religion is secret, and is concerned with the transmigration of souls; the Nusairis or Alawites of the Jebel Ansariyeh, who combine features of Christianity and Islam with pre-Christian fertility rites; and the Yezidis of the Jebel Sinjar, who propitiate the power of evil.

MUSLIMS

Grand Mufti: AHMAD KUFTARO.

Most Syrians are Muslims. Nearly all are Sunnites with a small number of Ismailis and Shi'ites.

CHRISTIANS

Greek Orthodox Patriarch: GHOFRAIL FADDOUL.

Greek Catholic Patriarch: H.E. MAXIMOS V. HAKIM; Bab-Sharki, Damascus; P.O.B. 7181, Beirut, Lebanon.

Syrian Orthodox Patriarch: His Holiness IGNATIUS YACOB III.

Latins . . .	5,000
Greek Orthodox . .	172,783
Armenian Orthodox .	111,648
Syrian Orthodox . .	100,000
Greek Catholics . .	65,000
Armenian Catholics .	19,889
Syrian Catholics . .	20,013
Maronites	17,010
Protestants	10,000
Nestorians	11,348

OTHERS

Alawites	409,514
Druses	117,804
Chaldeans	5,570
Yezidis	3,095

THE PRESS

Since the coming to power of the Baath Arab Socialist Party the structure of the press has been modified according to an extreme socialist pattern. Most publications are published by organizations such as political, religious, or professional associations, trade unions, etc. and several are published by government ministries. Anyone wishing to establish a new paper or periodical must apply for a licence.

The major dailies are *al-Baath* (the organ of the party) and *al-Thawrah* in Damascus, *al-Jamahir al-Arabia* in Aleppo, and *al-Fida* and *al-Ounuba* in Hama and in Homs respectively.

PRINCIPAL DAILIES

Aravelk: Aleppo; Armenian; morning; Editor Dr. A. ANGYKIAN; circ. 3,500.

al-Baath (*Renaissance*): rue el Barazil, Damascus; Arabic, morning; organ of the Baath Arab Socialist Party; circ. 20,000.

Barq al-Shimal: rue Aziziyah, Aleppo; Arabic; morning; Editor MAURICE DJANDJI; circ. 6,400.

al-Fida: rue Kuwatly, Hama; political; Arabic, morning; Publishing concession holder OSMAN ALOUNI; Dir. and Editor MUHAMMAD EL HAFEZ; circ. 2,000.

al-Jamahir al-Arabia: El Ouedha Printing and Publishing Organization, Aleppo; political; Arabic; Chief Editor MORTADA BAKACH; circ. 10,000.

al-Ounuba: Kattan Bldg. rue Damas, Homs; political; Arabic; evening; Publishing concession holder ABDEL BASSET EL JANDALI; Dir. and Editor MUHAMMAD EL AZARI; circ. 2,000.

al-Shabab: rue al Tawil, Aleppo; Arabic; morning; Editor MUHAMMAD TALAS; circ. 9,000.

al-Thawrah: El Ouedha Printing and Publishing Organization, Damascus; political; Arabic; morning; circ. 20,000.

WEEKLY AND FORTNIGHTLY

al-Ajoua: Compagnie de l'Aviation Arabe Syrienne, Damascus; aviation; Arabic; fortnightly; Editor AHMAD ALLOUCHE.

al-Esbou al-Riadi: ave. Firdoisie, Tibi Bldg., Damascus; sports; Arabic; weekly; Publisher MOUNIR BAKIR; Dir. and Editor KAMEL EL BOUNNI.

Hadarat al-Islam: B.P. 808, Jadet Halbouni, Jadet El Raby, Damascus; religious; Arabic; fortnightly; Publisher MOUSTAPHA ESSIBAI; Dir. AHMAD FARHAT; Editor MUHAMMAD ADIB SALEH.

Homs: Homs; literary; Arabic; weekly; Publisher and Dir. ADIB KABA; Editor PHILIPPE KABA.

Jaysh al-Shaab: P.O.B. 3320, blvd. Palestine, Damascus; f. 1946, took present title 1967; army magazine, Arabic; weekly; published by Directorate of Public Affairs and Moral Guidance.

Kifah al-Oummal al-Ishtiraki: Fédération Générale des Syndicats des Ouvriers, Damascus; labour; Arabic; weekly; Published by General Federation of Trade Unions; Editor SAID EL HAMAMI.

al-Majalla al-Batriarquia: B.P. 914, Syrian Orthodox Patriarchate, Damascus; f. 1962; religious; Arabic monthly; Dir. and Editor SAMIR ABDON; circ. 3,000.

al-Maukef al-Riadi: El Ouehda Organization, Damascus; sports; Arabic; weekly; Published by El Ouehda Printing and Publishing Organization; circ. 5,000.

al-Nass: B.P. 926, Aleppo; f. 1953; Arabic; weekly; Publisher VICTOR KALOUS.

Nidal al-Fellahin: Fédération Générale des Laboureurs, Damascus; peasant workers; Arabic; weekly; Published by General Federation of Workers; Editor MANSOUR ABU EL HOSN.

Nidal al-Shaab: Damascus; published by the Communist Party of Syria.

SYRIA—(THE PRESS, PUBLISHERS)

Revue de la Presse Arabe: 67 Place Chahbandar Damascus, twice weekly

al-Riada: B.P. 292 near Electricity Institute, Damascus, sports Arabic, weekly, Dir NOUREDDINE RIAL, Publisher and Editor OUFANE UBARI

al-Sakafa al-Ishboul: B.P. 2570, Soukak El Sakr, Damascus, cultural, Arabic, weekly, Publisher, Dir and Editor MADHAT AKRACHE

Saut al-Fallah (Voice of the Peasants): Ministry of Agriculture Damascus agriculture, Arabic, fortnightly

al-Talla (Vanguard): B.P. 3037, the National Guard, Damascus Arabic fortnightly, Editor SOHDI KHALIL

al-Tamadon al-Islami: Darwishli, Damascus, religious, Arabic, fortnightly, Published by Tamaddon al Islami Association Dir MUHAMMAD LI KHATIB, Editor AHMAD MAZAR EL ADME

al-Thawrah al-Zirala: Ministry of Agrarian Reform Damascus f 1965 agriculture Arabic fortnightly, cur 7 000

al-Yanbu al-Jadid: al Awkal Bldg, Homs, literary, Arabic, weekly Publisher, Dir and Editor MAMDOU EL KOUSSEIR

MONTHLY

al-Dad: rue El Tital Wakt El Mourne Bldg, Aleppo literary Arabic, Dir RIAD HALLAK, Publisher and Editor ABDALLAH YAKRI HALLAK

Flash: P.O.B. 3320 Damascus monthly supplement to *Jaysh al Shaab*, English

al-Irshad al-Zirali: Ministry of Agriculture, Damascus, agriculture, every two months

al-Kalima: Al Kahma Association, Aleppo religious, Arabic, Publisher and Editor FATHALLA SAKAL

al-Kanoun: Ministry of Justice, Damascus, juridical, Arabic

al-Masrafa: Ministry of Culture and National Guidance, Damascus, f 1962, literary, Arabic, Editor ADME EL LAJMI

al-Majalla al-Askaria: P.O.B. 3320 blvd Palestine Damascus f 1950, official military magazine Editor NAKHILI HALLAK

al-Majalla al-Toubilla al-Arabilla: Al Jalla's St Damascus, Published by Arab Medical Commission, Dir Dr SHAMSUDDIN EL JUNDI, Editor Dr ADYAN TAKRITI

al-Majma al Ilmi al-Arabi: The Arab Academy, Bab el Barid, Damascus, f 1921, Islamic culture and Arabic literature (three a year)

Monthly Survey of Arab Economics: B.P. 2306, Damascus and B.P. 6063 Beirut, f 1958, English and French editions, published Centre d'Etudes et de Documentation Economiques, Financieres et Sociales, Dir Dr. CHAFIC AKHRAS

al-Mouallim al-Arabi (The Arab Teacher): Ministry of Education, Damascus, f 1948, educational, Arabic

al-Mouhandis al-Arabi: Federation of Engineers Trade Unions, Damascus, scientific Arabic, Dir KAZEM EL JAZZAR, Editor ELIAS SHAHIN

al-Moujlama al-Arabi al-Ishluraki: Ministry of Social Affairs, Damascus, social security, Arabic, Editor SAMI ATFE

al-Oumran: Ministry of Municipal and Rural Affairs, Damascus, fine arts, Arabic

Rissalat al-Kilma: B.P. 669 El Abid Bldg, Damascus, scientific, Arabic, Publisher, Dir and Editor HASSAN EL SAKA

Saut al-Farast: Deir-Ezzor, literary, Arabic; Publisher, Dir and Editor ABDEL KADER AYACH

al-Shouria: Directorate of Public Affairs and Moral Guidance, Damascus, juridical, Arabic

Sourya al-Arabilla: Ministry of Information, Damascus, publicity, in four languages

Syne et le Monde Arabe: P.O.B. 3550 Place Shahbandar, Damascus

al-Yazka: Sint St., Al Yazka Association, Aleppo, f 1935, Dir and Editor PAUL GENADRI

PRESS AGENCIES

Agence Arabe Syrienne d'Information: Damascus f 1966, supplies bulletins on Syrian news to foreign news agencies

Agence Nouvelle de l'Orient Arabe: Damascus, Dir. FAWZI ALLAF

FOREIGN BUREAUX

ANSA: P.O.B. 827, rue Salhié, Immeuble Tibi Seio, f. 1962, Chief KHALIL NAKKI

UPI: 3 Argentin St., Hafez Bldg, Chief ADNAN INAYEH.

DPA Reuter and Tass also have bureaux in Damascus.

PUBLISHERS

Arab Advertising Organization: 28 Moutanabbi St., P.O.B. 2842 and 3034 Damascus, f 1963 publishes Directory of Commerce and Industry and other advertising material Dir Gen GEORGE KHOURY

Bureau des documentations syriennes et arabes: B.P. 451, 67 place Chahbandar Damascus f 1948, affiliated with the *Office arabe de presse et de documentation* (see below) in 1966 Dir Gen SAMIR A. DARWICH, publs include *Répertoire Permanent des Lois et Règlements Syriens*, *Tarif Permanent des Douanes de Syrie*, *Recueil des Accords Internationaux conclus par la Syrie* and monographs legislative texts and other documents concerning Syria and the Arab world.

Damascus University Press: Damascus art, geography,

education history, engineering medicine, law, sociology, school books

Office Arabe de Presse et de Documentation: P.O.B. 3550, Damascus f 1964, numerous publications on political and economic affairs Dir-Gen SAMIR A. DARWICH

al-Ouedha Printing and Publishing Organization (Institut al-Ouedha pour l'impression, édition et distribution): Damascus and Aleppo, published *al-Jamahir al-Durubah* and *al-Thawrah* (dailies) and *al-Maukef al-Radi* (weekly)

al-Tawfiq Press: P.O.B. 3320, Palestine St., Damascus Other publishers include *Dar El-Yakaza El-Arabia*, *Dar El-Hakda El-Arabia*, *Dar El-Filak*, *Dar El-Fatah*, *Dubed*, *El Mouassassa El-Sakafieh*.

RADIO AND TELEVISION

General Directorate of Broadcasting and Television: Omayyad Square, Damascus; f. 1945; Gen. Dir. ATTIEH EL JOUDEH; Dirs. SAMI JANO, RASHID HALMOUCHI, GEORGE BOULAD; publ. *Here is Damascus* (fortnightly).

RADIO

Broadcasts in Arabic, French, English, Russian, German,

Spanish, Portuguese, Turkish, Bulgarian, Serbo-Croat and Hebrew; Dir. IBRAHIM SAKR.

There were 1,241,000 receivers in use in December 1969.

TELEVISION

Services started in 1960. Dir. GHODER AL SHA'AR.

There were 105,695 receivers in use in December 1969.

FINANCE

BANKING

(cap.=capital; p.u.=paid up; dep.=deposits; m.=millions; amounts in £S)

CENTRAL BANK

Central Bank of Syria: Shahbandar Square, Damascus, P.O.B. 2254; f. 1956; cap. 10m.; Gov. NASSOUH DAKAK; Deputy Gov. Dr. KARAM TOUMA.

OTHER BANKS

Agricultural Bank: Baghdad Street, Damascus; f. 1924; Dir.-Gen. Dr. HANNA KHOURY.

Commercial Bank of Syria: P.O.B. 933, Moawia St., Damascus; f. 1967 by a merger of the five commercial banks nationalized in 1963: Arab Orient Bank, Arab

World Bank, Banque de l'Unité Arabe, Omayad Bank, Syria and Overseas Bank, cap. 52m.; dep. 372m. (1969); Chair. and Gen. Man. FAKHR ED-DIN KHALIL.

Industrial Bank: Damascus; f. 1959; nationalized bank providing finance for industry; cap. 12.5m., dep. 53.4m., total investments (Feb. 1971) 106.8m.; brs. in Aleppo and Homs; Chair. and Gen. Man. Dr. A. S. KANAAN.

Popular Credit Bank: Damascus; f. 1966.

Real Estate Bank: Damascus; f. 1966; cap. 25m.

INSURANCE

Syrian Insurance Organisation: Damascus; f. 1961; controls all insurance in Syria.

TRADE AND INDUSTRY

CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE

Damascus Chamber of Commerce: B.P. 1040, Mou'awiah St., Damascus; f. 1914; 2,700 mems.; Pres. BASHIR RAMADAN; Dir. MOUSTAPHA TABBA'A; publ. *Economic Bulletin* (quarterly).

Aleppo Chamber of Commerce: Al-Moutanabbi, Aleppo; f. 1885; Pres. KASSEM NOUR-EL-DINE; Dir. FADEL ANIS.

Hama Chamber of Commerce and Industry: Sh. Bachoura, Hama; f. 1934; Pres. ABDUL-HAMID KAMBAZ.

Homs Chamber of Commerce: Sh. Aboul-Of, Homs; Pres. ABDUL HASIB RUSLAN.

Latakia Chamber of Commerce: Sh. Al-Hurriyah, Latakia; Pres. JULE NASRI.

CHAMBERS OF INDUSTRY

Aleppo Chamber of Industry: Sh. Wara el-Jameh, Aleppo; Pres. SAMI AL-DAHR.

Damascus Chamber of Industry: P.O.B. 1305, Harika-Mouawiya St., Damascus; Vice-Pres. SHAFIC SOUCCAR; Man. ABDUL HAMID MALAKANI; publ. *Al Siniye* (Industry) (irregularly).

EMPLOYERS' ORGANIZATIONS

FEDERATIONS

Fédération Générale à Damas: Damascus; f. 1951; Dir. TALAT TAGLUBI.

Fédération de Damas: Damascus; f. 1949.

Fédération des Patrons et Industriels à Lattaquié: Latakia; f. 1953.

TRADE UNIONS

Ittihad Naqabat al-'Ummal al-'Am fi Suriya (General Federation of Labour Unions): Qanawat Street, Damascus; f. 1948; Pres. FAWZI BALI; Sec. MAHMUD FAHURI.

FEDERATIONS

Fédération de la Mécanique: Aleppo; f. 1956.

Fédération de l'Electricité: Damascus; f. 1956.

Fédération de l'Imprimerie: Damascus; f. 1956.

Fédération des Administrations de L'Etat: Damascus; f. 1955.

Fédération des Chemins de Fer de L'Etat: Damascus; f. 1951.

Fédération des Tabacs: Damascus; f. 1949.

Fédération du Pétrole: Homs; f. 1956.

Fédération du Tissage à Bras: Damascus; f. 1956.

Fédération du Tissage Mécanique: Damascus; f. 1956.

Teachers' Federation: Damascus; Chair. AHMED AL KHATIB.

TRADE

Foire Internationale de Damas: 67 blvd. de Baghdad, Damascus; held annually from August 25th to September 20th.

OIL

General Petroleum Company: P.O.B. 2849, Damascus; f. 1958; state agency; holds the oil concession for all Syria; exploits the Suwadiyah, Karachuk and Rumaila oilfields; production in 1970 4.5 million tons; also organizes refining, storage and distribution of petroleum; Dir. ABDEL-RAHMAN SALAMEH.

TRANSPORT AND TOURISM

TRANSPORT

RAILWAYS

Syrian Railways Registered Office B.P. 182 Aleppo
Pres. of the Board of Administration WASSIL FAYSSAL
Gen. Manager ABDULKERIM EL CHAMI

The present railway system is composed of the following network.

Meydan Ekbez (Turkish frontier) Aleppo Çoban bey (Turkish frontier) Aleppo Qamishliya (Turkish frontier) Jaroubieh (Iraq frontier) Aleppo-Homs Homs-Koussair (Lebanese frontier) Homs Akkari (Lebanese frontier) there are 555 km of normal gauge and 313 km of narrow gauge track. Lines from Latakia to Aleppo and Djézira and from Tartous to Akkari are under construction.

Syrian Railways

Northern Lines 248 km

Southern Lines 295 km

Hejaz Railways (narrow gauge) 301 km in Syria the historic railway to Medina is the subject of a reconstruction project jointly with Jordan and Saudi Arabia but little progress has been made since the June 1967 war

ROADS

Syrian roads may be divided into three main categories the arterial roads the secondary roads and the minor roads or tracks.

Arterial roads run across the country linking the north to the south and the Mediterranean to the eastern frontier. The main arterial networks are as follows Sidon (Lebanon) Quneitra-Sweida-Safkhad Jordan border Beirut (Lebanon) Damascus Khan Abu Chamat Iraq border Baghdad Tartous Tell Kalakh Homs Palmyra Banias Hama Salemie Latakia Aleppo Rakka Deirzozor Abou Kemal Iraq border Tripoli (Lebanon) Tartous-Banias-Latakia Turkish border Antakya Amman (Jordan) - Dera - Damascus-Homs-Hama Aleppo-Azaz (Turkish border) Haifa (Palestine) Kuneitra Damascus Palmyra Deirzozor Hassetché Kamechle

Asphalted roads 6 000 kms

Macadam roads 1 300 kms

Earth roads 6 000 kms

Touring Club de Syrie P.O.B. 28 Aleppo f 1950 the principal Syrian motoring organization Pres ALFRED GIRARDI

PIPELINES

The three pipelines which cross Syrian territory are of great importance to the national economy representing a considerable source of foreign exchange. One of the pipelines runs from the Iraq Petroleum Company installations in Kirkuk to Tripoli in the Lebanon cutting through approximately 300 miles of Syrian territory. Another line also crosses Syria en route to Sidon (Lebanon). The third line runs from Kirkuk through Homs to the port of Banias. The pipelines achieved a record throughput in 1968 each carrying over 20 million tons of oil the combined total was over 73 million tons.

SHIPPING

The port of Latakia has developed and the construction of a deep water harbour which began in 1953 was completed in 1959. It is served by six foreign shipping lines. A new port at Tartous is under construction and will be ready for shipping in 1970.

The Iraq Petroleum Company has built a harbour at Banias to handle the oil transported in underground pipelines from Kirkuk.

CIVIL AVIATION

A new international airport for Damascus was opened in the summer of 1969.

Syrian Arab Airlines P.O.B. 417 Red Crescent Bldg Youssif Azmeah Square Damascus f 1946 refounded 1961 after revocation of merger with Misyar forming U.A.A. domestic services and routes to Cairo Teheran Kuwait Baghdad Sharjah Dahrán Doha Rome London Karachi Delhi Athens Paris and Munich Chair LOUIS DAKKAR Gen Man Brig Gen ZOUHARE AKIL

FOREIGN COMPANIES OPERATING SERVICES THROUGH SYRIA

The following foreign airlines serve Syria. Aeroflot Air France Alitalia Ariana Afghan Airlines Balkan (Bulgaria) BOAC CSA Interflug Iraqi Airways, I.L.M. Kuwait Airways Lufthansa Malev Pan Am, Pakistan International Airlines Qantas SAS Saudi Arabian Airlines Swissair and United Arab Airlines.

TOURISM

National Tourist Organization of the Syrian Arab Republic 29th Ayyar St. Damascus f 1958 Gen Dir IHSAN HUSNI

Youth Tourism and Travel Organization Av 29 Mai B.P. 201 Damascus f 1966 Dir MOHAMED DADOUCH 3 yrs

EDUCATION

Compulsory schooling lasts six years up to the age of 14, and text books are issued free in the primary sector. Both primary and secondary education are expanding rapidly.

In 1967-68 782 new classrooms were erected, partly government financed. The private sector still accounts for approximately 18 per cent of primary schoolchildren, but the numbers in public education increased by 5.4 per cent in 1967-68; the comparable figures for secondary education are 40 per cent and 18.9 per cent. Technical schools prepare students mainly for work in agriculture and are open to the sons of peasants. Higher education is provided by the Universities of Damascus and Aleppo.

The main language of instruction in schools is Arabic,

but English and French are widely taught and are used for instruction in the University of Aleppo.

There is still a great shortage of teachers in all types of school. It is hoped that an increase in training facilities and the number of scholarships available for study at home and abroad, combined with the introduction of a special class of pupil-teachers who are paid during training will help to remedy the shortage.

Outside the schools system a functional literacy programme has been implemented in the industrial and agricultural sectors with a resulting 20 per cent increase in literacy in 1968 as compared with the previous year.

LEARNED SOCIETIES

The Academy of Damascus: Damascus; f. 1919.

President: HOSNI SABAH.

Secretary: EMIR GAAFAR EL HASANI.

MEMBERS:

Dr. ASAAD EL HAKIM
SHEIKH BAHGA EL BITAR
Dr. HEKMAT HASHIM
Dr. SHOKRY FAYSAL
AREF EL NAKADY
WAAJH SAMMAN
Dr. KAMEL AYAD
Dr. AMGAD EL TARABOLSI

Dr. GAMIL SALIBIA
SAMI EL DAHAN
SHAFIK GABRY
Dr. SALAH EL DIN EL KAWAKBI
Dr. ADNAN EL KHATIB
ABD-el-HADI HACHEM
MOHAMED EL MOBARAK

Arab Academy: Damascus; carries out linguistic and literary research.

Centro Cultural Hispánico: P.O.B. 224, Damascus; f. 1957; 100 mems.; library of 3,067 vols.; Dir. JULIAN GOMEZ IzQUIERDO.

Goethe Institut: Sharia Adnan Malki, P.O. Box 2750, Damascus; f. 1957; Dir. Dr. FRIEDRICH SCHEPPER; centre at Aleppo (P.O.B. 1523).

Institut Français d'Etudes Arabes: B.P. 344, Damascus; f. 1922; library of 30,000 vols., 300 periodicals; Dir. ANDRÉ RAYMOND; 5 scholars; publs. *Bulletin d'Etudes Orientales* (annually, 23 vols. published), monographs, translations and Arabic texts (90 vols. published), Islamic archaeology.

U.S. Information Center: Seba Bahrat Circle, Damascus.

LIBRARIES

Al Maktabah Al Wataniah (National Library): Bab El-Faradj, Aleppo; f. 1924; Librarian YOUNIS ROSHDI.

Al Zahiriya (National Library): Bab el Barid, Damascus; f. 1880, attached to the Arab Language Academy 1919; national public library; 64,000 vols., 12,000 MSS., 39,000 periodicals, microfilms of MSS; Librarian Miss SAMA'EL MAHASSINI; publ. *Magazine of Arabic Language Academy* (quarterly).

Damascus University Library: Damascus; f. 1924; 102,000 vols.; subscribes to 700 scientific, literary and specialized journals and magazines; Librarian AMOUAR RIFAI; publs. *Conférences Générales* (annual), *Review* (twice yearly), *Faculty of Pedagogy Review*.

Dar al-Kutub al-Wataniah (National Library): Homs.

National Library of Latakia: Latakia; f. 1944; 12,000 vols.; Dir. MOHAMAD ALI NTAYFI.

MUSEUMS

Aleppo Museum: Aleppo; archaeology; f. 1960; Curator SHAUGUI SHAATH.

Bosra Museum: Bosra; traditional arts and crafts.

Museum Al Zahiriya: Damascus.

National Museum: Syrian University Street, Damascus 4; f. 1919; Details of exhibits: Ancient Oriental, Greek, Roman, Byzantine, Islamic and modern art collections; of special interest is the reconstruction of the Palmyrene Hypogeum of Yarhai (2nd century A.D.), of the Dura Synagogue (3rd century A.D.), and of the Umayyad Qasr El-Hair El-Gharbi (8th century A.D.); houses the

Directorate-General of Antiquities and Museums, established by decree in 1947 to conserve Syrian antiquities and to supervise the archaeological museums and the excavations; Dir. ABDUL HAMID DARKAL; publ. *Les Annales Archéologiques Arabes Syriennes*.

Palmyra Museum: Palmyra; f. 1961; archaeological and Syrian desert folklore; Curator KHALED ASSA'D.

Qasr-El-Azem: Damascus.

Sweida Museum: Sweida; Curator GHALEB AMER.

Tartus Museum: Tartus; Islamic history; Dir. AKRAM SHAATH.

SYRIA—(UNIVERSITIES)

UNIVERSITIES

UNIVERSITY OF ALEPPO

ALEPPO

Telephone 25902 24660 24661

Founded 1960

Languages of instruction Arabic English and French
State control Academic year October to June

President (vacant)

Vice President Dr S YASSIN

Chief Administrator ADNAN AOUTRA

Registrar M ELWANI

Secretary M IMAM

Librarian M MALLOUHI

Number of teachers 350

Number of students 4 936

DEANS

Faculty of Engineering Dr Ing T DIA

Faculty of Agriculture Dr M A HOURRIEH

Faculty of Languages Dr S ASHTAR

Faculty of Medicine Dr A AKTA

Faculty of Sciences Dr K MAGHOUT

Faculty of Economic Sciences Dr A AKEL

ATTACHED INSTITUTE

Agricultural Research Centre Meselmeh Aleppo

DAMASCUS UNIVERSITY

DAMASCUS

Telephone 15103 5 18623

Telegraphic Address Damascus University Damascus

Founded 1923

Language of instruction on Arabic State control Academic
year September to June (one term)

President Dr SHAKER FAHRAM

Vice-President Dr MAHMOUD SA DA

General Secretary A S HADAVA

Registrar HASSAN HABAL

Librarian ANWAR RIFAI

Number of teachers 632

Number of students 29 834

Publications *The University Catalogue The Faculty
Catalogue Series of General Lectures Statistics Collections*

DEANS

Faculty of Law Dr A MOURAD

Faculty of Medicine Dr M KHYAMI

Faculty of Engineering Dr I HOULA

Faculty of Science Prof. T TARBADAR

Faculty of Letters Dr ADEL AWA

Faculty of Education Dr J RIKABI

Faculty of Dentistry Dr CHAFIK AYOUBI

Faculty of Islamic Jurisprudence Dr A. R SABOUNI

Faculty of Agriculture Dr K AUDER

Faculty of Fine Arts Eng ABDEL RAOUF KASSEM

ASSOCIATE INSTITUTES

Higher Institute of Social Works Rawda Damascus f
1962 economic and social studies Dir SAMIR DROUBI

College of Agriculture P O B 536 Damascus f 1960
Dean Dr KARAM ODDEH Assistant Dean Dr NAGIM
ELDIN SHARABI Registrar SAMEH ABBASS

COLLEGES

Aleppo Institute of Music f 1955 departments of Eastern
and Western music.

Damascus Oriental Institute of Music f 1950 departments
of Eastern and Western music aims to revive Arab
music and preserve Syrian folk dances and tunes

Higher Industrial School Damascus f 1964 mechanical
and electrical engineering 120 students

Technological Institute of Damascus Tarik al Saida
Za'atib Damascus f 1963 mechanical production,
automobile electrical engineering heating and ventila-
tion library of 5 000 vols Dean F NASSER

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Tunisia

PHYSICAL AND SOCIAL GEOGRAPHY

Tunisia is the smallest of the four countries that comprise the "Maghreb" of north Africa but it is more cosmopolitan than either Algeria or Morocco. It forms a wedge of territory, some 48,200 square miles in extent, between Algeria and Libya. It includes the easternmost ridges of the Atlas Mountains but most of it is low lying and bordered by a long and sinuous Mediterranean coastline that faces both north and east. Ease of access by sea and by land from the east has favoured the penetration of foreign influences and Tunisia owes its distinct national identity and its varied cultural traditions to a succession of invading peoples: Phoenicians, Romans, Arabs, Turks and French. It was more completely Arabized than either Algeria or Morocco and remnants of the original Berber-speaking population of the Maghreb are confined, in Tunisia, to a few isolated localities in the south.

In 1966 the population was 4,457,862 and the overall density was 92.5 per square mile. Most of the people live in the more humid, northern part of the country and nearly one sixth of the total are concentrated in the sprawling city of Tunis (population 764,000). Situated strategically where the Sicilian Channel links the western with the central Mediterranean and close to the site of ancient Carthage, Tunis combines the functions of capital and chief port. No other town approaches Tunis in importance but on the east coast both Sousse (population 70,000) and Sfax (population 100,000) provide modern port facilities, as does Bizerta (population 70,000) on the north coast while some distance inland the old Arab capital and holy city of Kairouan (population 40,000) serves as a regional centre.

The principal contrasts in the physical geography of Tunisia are between a humid and relatively mountainous northern region, a semi arid central region of low plateaux and plains and a dry Saharan region in the south. The northern region is dominated by the easternmost folds of the Atlas mountain system which form two separate chains, the Northern and High Tell, separated by the valley of the River Medjerda, the only perennially flowing river in the country. The Northern Tell, which is a continuation of the Algerian Tell Atlas, consists mainly of sandstone and extends along the north coast at heights of between 1,000 and 2,000 feet. South of the Medjerda valley the much broader Tell Atlas, which is a continuation of the Saharan Atlas of Algeria, is made up of a succession of rugged sandstone and limestone ridges. Near the Algerian frontier they reach a maximum height of 5,965 feet in Djebel Chambi, the highest point in Tunisia but the folds die away eastward towards the

Cape Bon peninsula which extends north east to within 90 miles of Sicily.

South of the High Tell or Dorsale ("backbone") central Tunisia consists of an extensive platform sloping gently towards the east coast. Its western half, known as the High Steppe, is made up of alluvial basins rimmed by low, barren mountains but eastward the mountains give way first to the Low Steppe, which is a monotonous gravel covered plateau and ultimately to the flat coastal plain of the Sabel. Occasional watercourses cross the Steppes but they only flow after heavy rain and usually fan out and evaporate in salt flats, or sebkhas, before reaching the sea.

The central Steppes give way southward to a broad depression occupied by two great seasonal salt lakes or shotts. The largest of these, the Shott Djerid, lies at 52 feet below sea level and is normally covered by a salt crust. It extends from close to the Mediterranean coast near Gabès almost to the Algerian frontier and is adjoined on the north-west by the Shott el Rharsa which lies at 69 feet below sea level. South of the shotts Tunisia extends for over 200 miles into the Sahara. Rocky, flat topped mountains, the Monts des Ksour, separate a flat plain known as the Djeffara which borders the coast south of Gabès, from a sandy lowland which is partly covered by the dunes of the Great Eastern Erg.

The climate of northern Tunisia is "Mediterranean" in type with hot, dry summers followed by warm, wet winters. Average rainfall reaches 60 inches in the Kroumirie Mountains, which is the wettest area in north Africa, but over most of the northern region it varies from 16 to 40 inches. The wetter and least accessible mountains are covered with forests in which cork oak and evergreen oak predominate, but elsewhere lower rainfall and overgrazing combine to replace forest with meagre scrub growth. South of the High Tell rainfall is reduced to between 16 and 8 inches annually, which is insufficient for the regular cultivation of cereal crops without irrigation, and there is no continuous cover of vegetation. Large areas of the Steppes support only clumps of wiry esparto grass, which is collected and exported for paper manufacture. Southern Tunisia experiences full desert conditions. Rainfall is reduced to below 8 inches annually and occurs only at rare intervals. Extremes of temperature and wind are characteristic and vegetation is completely absent over extensive tracts. The country supports only a sparse nomadic population except where supplies of underground water make cultivation possible, as in the famous date-producing oasis of Tozeur on the northern edge of the Shott Djerid.

D R H

HISTORY

Although the creation of the present-day independent Republic of Tunisia has been a phenomenon of the post-war period, the history of this small but important part of North Africa has displayed a certain continuity since the earliest times. From the early days of Phoenician settlement in the course of the ninth century B.C., the region has alternated between being itself a focus of political control (the Carthaginian Empire, or the period of medieval Islam, for example) reaching out to colonize or dominate the adjacent shores of the Mediterranean; and being the object of imperial aggrandizement (Rome, the Ottoman Empire, France) on the part of the dominant Mediterranean power of the time. On top of this pattern must be superimposed the conquest of North Africa by the Arabs in the course of the seventh century A.D., which has determined the basic characteristics of Tunisia ever since.

The history of Tunisia may be said to begin with the establishment there of colonies of Phoenician settlers, and the rise of the Carthaginian Empire. Emerging, in the course of the sixth century B.C., from the mists of its legendary foundation by the semi-mythical Queen Dido, by c. 550 B.C. Carthage reached a position of commercial and naval supremacy in the Mediterranean, controlling part of Sicily, and with trading colonies established as far as what is now southern Portugal. The empire reached its height in the course of the fourth century, but shortly afterwards became involved with the rising power of the Roman Republic in a bitter struggle for the hegemony of the Mediterranean. The Punic Wars (264-241; 218-201; 149-146), of which the second is memorable for Hannibal's invasion of Italy, ended in the utter destruction of Carthage as a political entity, and the incorporation of its domains within the growing empire of Rome.

After one and a half centuries of abandonment, the ancient site of Carthage was rebuilt by Augustus at the dawn of the Christian era: intensive colonization from this time onward brought to what had become the Province of Africa a new prosperity, and the blessings of Roman civilization. During the first two centuries A.D. Carthage was generally accounted the second city of the Empire after Rome, but with the decline of the Empire in the west in the course of the fourth century, the great days of Roman Carthage were over. In A.D. 439 the city was lost to the Vandals, a nomadic people of Germanic origin, and became the capital of their ephemeral state, to be recovered for the Byzantine Empire in 533-34.

For the next two hundred and fifty years the history of Tunisia cannot be separated from the larger account of North Africa. Although Byzantine rule was better established in Tunisia than in the rest of the area, it was by no means secure. The tendency of the local governors to free themselves of the control of Constantinople was echoed by religious dissensions

among the native population, who, largely Berber in origin, adopted various Christian heresies as tokens of their opposition to Imperial rule.

It was from another quarter, however, that the final challenge to Byzantine rule was to come. The foundation in Arabia of the power of Islam, and its rapid expansion after the death of the Prophet (632), led quickly to the Arab conquest of Egypt and Syria, and to the shattering of the precarious unity of the Byzantine Empire. The first Arab raids into North Africa soon followed (647). After a confused period, in which the Arabs, the Berbers, and the forces of Byzantium all contested for the control of North Africa, Arab control over the area was finally established (698) with the conquest of Carthage, and the foundation of the town of Tunis. Islam now spread rapidly amongst the Berbers, but did not prevent them from making further attempts to regain their independence, merely providing them with new and more convenient pretexts for revolt in the shape of new Islamic religious heresies. The greater part of the eighth century is taken up with Berber-supported Kharijite risings, manifestations of extreme left-wing Islam against the central government, and with constant revolts among the occupying Arab forces. In the last years of the Ummayyad dynasty (overthrown 748-50) Tunisia escaped completely from Imperial control: the new dynasty of the Abbasids, ruling from Iraq, made strong efforts to recapture the province. Kayrawan, founded in 670 as the centre of Arab rule in the Maghreb, was retaken, but lost in 767, when a period of complete anarchy ensued. After a period of rule by petty chieftains, Tunisia was restored to Abbasid control in the year 800, in the person of Ibrahim ibn Aghlab. As a reward for his services, and as a means of maintaining the form if not the actuality of imperial control over the area, the caliph Harun al-Rashid thereupon appointed him as tributary ruler of al-Ifrikiya—corresponding more or less to the Roman Province of Africa, and to the present-day state of Tunisia.

The period of Aghlabid rule is one of great importance for the history of Tunisia. For the major part of the ninth century the country enjoyed a relatively stable and prosperous existence, while the importance of the dynasty was early recognized by the arrival of an embassy from the Emperor Charlemagne. Some years later, returning in a different way the interest of Europe, Aghlabid forces began the conquest of Sicily (827-39). The middle of the ninth century was the zenith of Aghlabid rule, and was signalized by the emir Ahmed with the construction of great mosques in the major cities, and the building of an elaborate system of dams and reservoirs to supply the capital of Kayrawan. From 874 the power of the Aghlabid state began to decline; despite the virtual completion of the conquest of Sicily (878) the dynasty was finally overthrown in the course of a religious revolution from the

west Between 905 and 909 Tunisia was brought under the control of the Fatimids, adherents and fanatical propagators of the heretical doctrines of Shiism. Established in their new capital of Mahdiyya, on the Tunisian coast, the Fatimids pursued a vigorous policy of expansion and conquest. Expeditions were sent against Egypt, and Sicily was once more ruled from North Africa while by 933 Fatimid rule was established throughout the Maghreb. A serious threat to the regime posed in 943-47 by the terrible Berber revolt led by 'the man with the donkey', was overcome, and for the next twenty-five years Tunisia enjoyed a certain degree of prosperity. Fatimid power meanwhile was expanding in the east. In 969-70 the dynasty gained control of Egypt and Syria three years later the caliph al Muizz abandoned Mahdiyya for his new capital of Cairo and handed over the government of Tunisia to the Zirids a family of Berber princes who had long supported the Fatimid regime. Under Zirid rule Tunisia enjoyed great prosperity, in which the arts and sciences, commerce and industry, all flourished, but this golden age was suddenly brought to an end in 1050 by the Zirids transferring their allegiance from Cairo to the orthodox caliph at Baghdad. Fatimid revenge was terrible. In 1051 hundreds of thousands of Hilali Arab nomads were sent against Ifrikiya from Egypt. Under the devastating impact of these marauding nomads the economy crumbled along with the political power of the Berbers and the country as a whole lapsed into political fragmentation. Further troubles now came from another quarter. In 1087 forces from the rising Italian city states of Pisa and Genoa took Mahdiyya, allowing the Zirids who had held out there against the Hilali invasion, to continue as its rulers. Early in the twelfth century the Zirids renewed their loyalty to Cairo and attempted to restore the shattered fragments of their state but were interrupted by the Normans who, having previously conquered Sicily and Malta in 1148 drove the last Zirid from Mahdiyya.

Norman rule in Tunisia was short lived. By 1160 they had been ejected from their last coastal stronghold, and for the next fifty years Tunisia formed part of the empire of the caliphs of Marrakesh (the Almohads). With the thirteenth century the authority of Baghdad was briefly restored over Tunisia. In 1207 the Abbasid caliph al Nasir set up a strong provincial government under a member of the Berber family of the Hafsids, who having held the governorship of Tunis since 1184 were to continue as the main political force in the area until the Ottoman conquest late in the sixteenth century.

For the most of the thirteenth century the Hafsids ruled over North Africa from Tripoli to central Algeria, and maintained close diplomatic and commercial relations with the trading ports and city states of the northern shores of the Mediterranean. European interest in Tunisia had never disappeared since the temporary Norman conquest of the twelfth century with the weakening of Hafsid rule in face of tribal and Arab unrest. Jerba came once more into Christian hands (1284-1337). In the reign of Abu'l-Abbas (1370-94) the fortunes of the dynasty once more improved, and further Christian attempts to seize

coastal places were repelled. His son held off repeated Sicilian and Catalan attempts to capture Jerba, and in 1428 went on the offensive, becoming involved in operations against Malta. The last Hafsid ruler of note was Abu Amr Uthman (1435-88). Shortly after his death the Hafsid Empire began to disintegrate, and at the same time Tunisia became involved in the wider struggle between the resurgent forces of the newly unified Spanish monarchy and the Ottoman Empire for control of the Mediterranean, the outcome of which conflict was to determine the future of Tunisia for the next four centuries, and to mark its emergence as a definite political entity.

OTTOMAN RULE

With the completion of the *reconquista* in 1492 by the incorporation of the Muslim kingdom of Granada, Spain turned her attentions to the conquest of Muslim North Africa. The first place in the crumbling Hafsid territories to fall under her control was Bougie, in 1510 and then Tripoli, in the same year. Ten years later the strategic place of Jerba also fell. But these events had already produced a reaction. In 1516 Algiers had come into the possession of the Turkish corsair Aruj. His brother, Khayr ed-Din Barbarossa, who had succeeded him in 1518, had in 1533 been summoned to Istanbul to act as high admiral of the Ottoman fleet. In this new capacity he drove the compliant Emur al Hasan from Tunis (1534), and placed the town under Ottoman control. In the following year a great Spanish naval expedition retook the town, and al Hasan returned as the Emperor's vassal, handing over la Goleta to Spain as the price of his restoration. Further coastal strongholds subsequently passed into Spanish hands while in 1542 al-Hasan was deposed by his son Ahmed, who, with the not disinterested help of the Turkish corsair chiefs, made a final attempt to reunite Tunisia against Spain. After a long drawn-out struggle Ahmed fell at the siege of Malta, 1565, which together with the Spanish naval victory of Lepanto six years later, marks the climax and virtual end of their struggle with the Ottomans for control of the sea. As far as Tunisia was concerned, the sole beneficiaries of the struggle were the Ottomans. Already well established at Algiers, in 1569 the Pasha of Algiers, Uluj Ali, placed a garrison in Tunis, only to be driven out briefly (1572) in the aftermath of the Spanish victory at Lepanto. The unfortunate Hafsid was restored for the last time as nominal ruler but in 1574 an Ottoman expedition put an end to Spanish power in Tunis, and to the Hafsid dynasty itself.

Direct Ottoman rule in Algiers lasted only seventeen years. The provincial administration set up in 1574 took its orders at first from Algiers, and later from the Porte itself, but a military revolt in 1591 reduced the power of the Pasha, the actual representative of the sultan, to a cypher, and the affairs of the state were taken over by one of the forty *deys* or high officers of the Ottoman army of occupation. By c. 1600 a situation had arisen analogous to that in Algiers, the *dewan*, or governing council coming to share a pre-eminent place with the *taifa* or guild of the corsair chiefs. By 1606 the *de facto* independence of Tunisia had been

recognized by the dispatch of a French embassy, under orders to negotiate commercial privileges with Tunis without reference to the Porte. Nevertheless, for the next two and a half centuries and more, Tunisia was regarded as part of the Ottoman Empire, a convenient fiction both flattering to the government at Istanbul, and useful to the *deys* in safeguarding their rule and bolstering their reputation with outside powers.

In the first half of the seventeenth century the situation of Tunis was fairly flourishing. Trade and commerce, especially with Marseilles and Livorno, prospered, while commercial relations were entered into with states as far distant as England and the Netherlands. From c. 1650 the power of the *deys* declined, and authority in the state gradually passed to the *beys*, originally subordinate in rank. Hammuda, *bey* from 1659 to 1663, became master of the entire country, and assured the maintenance of power in his family—the Muradids—until 1702. This was a period of decline, with tribal unrest away from Tunis, and incursions from the direction of Algiers. With the accession of Huseyn Ali Turki in 1705 a new line of *beys* brought some semblance of order to the country. The remainder of the eighteenth century passed fairly uneventfully for Tunisia, with a certain amount of quiet prosperity, despite the uncertainty of relations with Algeria, and the growing naval power of Europe in the Mediterranean.

With the aftermath of the Napoleonic Wars came the first real impact of Europe on Tunisia. The European powers, in congress at Vienna and Aachen (1815-17) forced upon the *bey* Mahmud (1814-24) the suppression of the corsairs and their piratical activities, which had provided a considerable part of the revenues of the state. The French occupied Algiers in 1830, and subsequently reduced the whole of Algeria to colonial status. The next fifty years witnessed desperate but unavailing efforts by Tunisia to avoid the same fate. Increasingly the influence of France and Britain, and later Italy, came to be manifest through the activities of their consuls. The *bey* Ahmed (1837-55) attempted to reform the army on western lines, and to liberalize the institutions of society: his efforts merely increased the financial dependence of Tunisia on France. Under Muhammad (1855-59) a proclamation of reform and equality based on the Ottoman Hatti-Sherif of 1839 was promulgated under European pressure: his successor Muhammad al-Sadik (1859-82) promulgated a Constitution (suspended 1864) which attempted to separate executive from legislative power, to codify the laws, and to guarantee the independence of the judiciary.

Nevertheless, Tunisia's position deteriorated. Increased taxes, imposed from the mid-fifties, provoked tribal rebellion, and the growing dependence on foreign loans led to foreign intervention. Annual debt charges eventually exceeded revenue and in 1869 the *bey* was obliged to accept international financial control by France, Britain and Italy. By 1881 the imminence of financial collapse decided France to intervene, especially as at the Congress of Berlin three years earlier Britain, confronted by French hostility to the

Cyprus Convention between Britain and Turkey, had indicated that it would not contest French influence in Tunisia, which Germany actually encouraged. French forces invaded Tunisia in April 1881, the immediate occasion being incidents on the frontier with Algeria. They encountered no serious resistance and the *bey* was forced to accept the terms of the Treaty of Kassar Said (also known as the Treaty of Bardo) under which he remained the nominal ruler of his country while French officials took over the direction of military, financial and foreign affairs.

FRENCH PROTECTORATE

The French presence once established, French control was soon extended. In 1883 Ali IV, the successor to Muhammad al-Sadik, was forced to sign the Treaty of Mersa, which formally established a French protectorate over Tunisia and brought the actual government of the country under French control. Although the office of *bey* was preserved, the real power passed to the French Resident-General. The international control commission was abolished in 1884, the currency was reformed on French lines in 1891, and the extra-territorial privileges of other Europeans were abrogated. Encouraged by large-scale grants of land, there was a considerable influx of settlers from France, and also from Italy, especially after 1900. Besides being confronted with the task of sustaining the economy by something better than the proceeds of piracy, which they tackled by investment in the development of the country's resources, the French were faced with rivalry from Italy, whose ambitions in North Africa were not extinguished until the collapse of the Fascist regime in the Second World War, and with the rise of Tunisian nationalism.

Tunisian cultural and political life absorbed many French ideas but was also influenced by movements in other parts of the Islamic world. An attempt to emulate the Young Turk reformers in the Ottoman Empire was seen in the Young Tunisian movement (1908) which called for the restoration of the authority of the *bey* together with reforms on democratic lines. The achievement of independence in eastern Arab countries after the Second World War, and the example of the nationalist movement in Egypt, inspired Tunisians with a greater national consciousness and in 1920 the Destour (Constitution) movement was formed under the leadership of Shaikh al-Tha'libi, one of the founders of the pre-war Young Tunisians.

The Destour called for a self-governing constitutional regime with a legislative assembly. French attempts to conciliate opinion by administrative reforms, beginning in 1920 with economic councils on which Tunisians were represented, did not satisfy the more radical elements, however, and in the face of further nationalist activity repressive measures were resorted to. Shaikh al-Tha'libi was exiled in 1923 and in 1925 the Destour movement was broken up. It revived in the years after the Depression but soon split, the old Destour leaders being accused of collaboration with France by younger members eager for political action on a broad front. In 1934, led by Habib Bourguiba, a Tunisian lawyer, these created

the *Néo Destour* (New Constitution) Party. The new party employed methods of widespread political agitation as a result of which Bourguiba was exiled. With the victory of the Popular Front in France in 1936 he returned to Tunisia but little was achieved in direct negotiations with the new French government, from which much had been expected in the way of reforms. The *Néo-Destour* was built up into a powerful organization its influence extending into all parts of the country, and its strength was proved in a successful general strike in 1938. Widespread clashes with the police followed, martial law was proclaimed, some 200 nationalists were arrested and both the *Destour* and *Néo-Destour* parties were dissolved.

When the Second World War broke out in the following year Tunisian opinion rallied in favour of France and when Italy entered the war some 23,000 Italians in Tunisia were interned. With the fall of France Tunisia came under Vichy rule and Bizerta, Tunis and other ports were used by Germany and Italy to supply their armies in Libya. The country became a theatre of war until the defeat of the Axis forces by the Allies in 1943 brought about the eventual restoration of French authority. The *bey*, Muhammad al Monsif, was accused of collaboration with the Axis powers and deposed, he was replaced by his cousin, Muhammad al Amin, who reigned until Tunisia became a republic in 1957.

GROWING AUTONOMY

The virtual restoration of peace-time conditions in 1944 brought a relaxation of political restrictions and the years immediately following saw renewed agitation for political changes. French action to repress this obliged Habib Bourguiba to remove himself to Cairo in 1945 but his chief lieutenant, Salah ben Youssef, was able to remain in Tunisia. The French authorities turned their attention to political reforms and by Beylical decrees in 1945 the Council of Ministers and the Grand Council (an elected body with equal French and Tunisian representation) were re-organized, the authority of the latter being extended. These moves did not satisfy the nationalists, however, who in August 1946 at a national congress unequivocally demanded complete independence. Later in the year a ministry was formed under Muhammad Kaak which included an increased number of Tunisians (moderate leaders being appointed, the *Destour* and *Néo-Destour* having refused to participate), the French retained overriding control.

Bourguiba returned to Tunisia in 1949. In April 1950 *Néo-Destour* proposals were put forward for the transfer of sovereignty and executive control to Tunisian hands, under a responsible government with a Prime Minister appointed by the *bey* and an elected National Assembly which would draw up a democratic constitution. Local French interests would be protected by representation on municipal councils and Tunisia would co-operate with France on terms of equality. These proposals were met with a reasonable response in France and a new Tunisian government was formed in August 1950, composed of an equal number of Tunisian and French ministers, with

Muhammad Chenik as Chief Minister and Salah ben Youssef Minister of Justice. The object of the new government was stated to be the restoration of Tunisian sovereignty in stages in co-operation with France. Despite strong opposition to these developments from the European settlers (some 10 per cent of the population), who opposed all concessions to nationalist demands, further reforms were effected in September 1950 and February 1951, when French advisers to the Tunisian ministers were removed and the Resident General's control over the Council of Ministers was diminished.

Peaceful progress towards autonomy came to a halt, however, with growing settler opposition, procrastination on the part of the French government and consequent alienation of the nationalists. Franco-Tunisian negotiations in 1951 came to nothing and Tunisian resentment erupted in strikes and demonstrations early in 1952. In February 1952 Bourguiba and other *Néo-Destour* leaders were arrested on the order of a new Resident General, de Hautecloche, and a wave of violence spread throughout the country, culminating in the arrest and removal from office of the Chief Minister and the imposition of French military control.

A new government was formed under Salaheddine Baccouche, a French inspired scheme of reforms designed to lead to eventual internal autonomy was announced in April, and a temporary easing of tension followed, although the now proscribed *Néo Destour* took their case to Cairo and the UN General Assembly. Against a background of increasing terrorism countered by French repressive action, and in face of opposition from both the *Néo Destour* and the settlers little in the way of reform could be achieved. The *bey* at first refused to sign French reform decrees and when he yielded in December 1952 under the threat of deposition the proposals were promptly repudiated by the *Néo-Destour*.

Terrorist activities continued and a secret settler counter-terrorist organization the "Red Hand", came into prominence. The situation, which approached civil war in 1953, with bands of *fellagha* active in the western highlands and around Bizerta and terrorism and counter terrorism in the towns, did not improve until July 1954 when the newly-formed Mendès France government in France offered internal autonomy for Tunisia with responsibility only for defence and foreign affairs being retained by France. The French proposals were accepted and in August a new Tunisian government headed by Tahar ben Ammar, which contained moderate nationalists but also three *Néo-Destour* members, was formed. Negotiations with the French government began at Carthage in September 1954 and although they had reached deadlock when the Mendès-France government fell in February 1955 they were resumed in March and a final agreement was signed in Paris on June 2nd.

The agreement gave internal autonomy to Tunisia while at the same time protecting French interests and preserving the close links with France. France retained responsibility for foreign affairs defence (including the control of frontiers) and internal security

Although it was supported by a majority of the Néo-Destour, the extremist wing, headed by the exiled Salah ben Youssef, and the old Destour and Communist elements, opposed it, as also did the settlers' organizations. An all-Tunisian cabinet was formed in September 1955 by Tahar ben Ammar, with Néo-Destour members holding six of the twelve posts.

Habib Bourguiba had returned from three years' exile in June 1955, to be followed by Salah ben Youssef in September. In October, however, ben Youssef was expelled from the party for opposition to the recent agreement and for "splitting activities". A Néo-Destour party congress at Sfax in November 1955 confirmed the expulsion and re-elected Bourguiba as party president. The congress accepted the agreement but at the same time reaffirmed that it would be satisfied only with independence and demanded the election of a constituent assembly. Clashes between "Bourguibist" and "Youssefist" factions followed and in December a conspiracy to set up a terrorist organization to prevent the implementation of the agreement was discovered. Salah ben Youssef fled to Tripoli in January 1956 and many suspected "Youssefists" were placed in detention. At the same time *fellagha* activity revived, rebel bands becoming active in the remoter parts of the country and acts of terrorism being committed against both Frenchmen and members of the Néo-Destour.

INDEPENDENCE

Against the background of these events a Tunisian delegation led by Bourguiba began independence negotiations with the French Government in Paris on February 27th, 1956. In a protocol signed on March 20th France formally recognized the independence of Tunisia and its right to exercise responsibility over foreign affairs, security and defence, and to set up a national army. A transitional period was envisaged during which French forces would gradually be withdrawn from Tunisia, including Bizerta.

Elections for a Constituent Assembly, immediately held on March 25th, resulted in all 98 seats being won by candidates of the National Front, all of whom acknowledged allegiance to the Néo-Destour. The elections were boycotted by the "Youssefist" opposition. The ministry of Tahar ben Ammar resigned and Habib Bourguiba became Prime Minister on April 11th, leading a government in which 16 of the 17 ministers belonged to the Néo-Destour.

In the early years of independence Tunisia's relations with France were bedevilled by the question of the evacuation of French forces. A Tunisian demand for their withdrawal was rejected in July 1956 by a French government preoccupied with a deteriorating situation in Algeria. Bourguiba visited Paris in September in an attempt to promote a mediated settlement in Algeria based on French recognition of Algeria's right to independence but hopes of progress in this direction were shattered by the French kidnapping in October of five leading Algerian nationalists on their way from Morocco to Algeria. Tunisia immediately severed diplomatic relations with France, anti-French riots broke out and there were clashes

between French troops and Tunisian demonstrators resulting in deaths on both sides.

Moves were made early in 1957 to strengthen Tunisia's relations with her neighbours. In January a treaty of good-neighbourliness was signed with Libya and proclaimed to be a step towards establishing a "Greater Arab Maghreb", and in March, at the end of a visit by Bourguiba, a twenty-year treaty of friendship was concluded with Morocco.

The *bey*, Muhammed al-Amin, had for long been the object of criticism from Tunisian nationalist leaders who saw him as having been unwilling to participate actively in the struggle for independence and apt to rely on French support. After independence his remaining powers were whittled away and on July 25th, 1957, the Constituent Assembly decided to abolish the monarchy, proclaim Tunisia a republic and invest Bourguiba with the powers of Head of State.

RELATIONS WITH FRANCE

Although diplomatic relations with France had been resumed in January 1957, differences between the two governments in connection with the Algerian revolt soon worsened. In May France suspended economic aid; Tunisia retaliated by abrogating the customs union with France and concluding trade agreements with Yugoslavia and Switzerland. In the same month French troops in Tunisia attempted to drive back into Algeria several thousand Algerian refugees who had crossed the border. Clashes between French forces and Tunisian national guards followed and Bourguiba called for negotiations for the withdrawal of all French troops to Bizerta. The French government's proposal to withdraw 10,000 out of the 25,000 French troops in Tunisia was cautiously welcomed, but at the same time the French claimed, and in September began to exercise, the right to pursue Algerian rebel bands across the Tunisian frontier. Bourguiba, now President, declared a state of emergency along the border with Algeria on September 9th and relations with France once more neared breaking point.

A further difference arose over the question of arms supplies. A French refusal in May 1957 to supply military equipment to Tunisia led President Bourguiba to look elsewhere. French attempts to prevent Tunisia from obtaining arms from any country other than France proved unsuccessful and in November the United States and Britain announced, to French protests, that they would proceed with deliveries.

During October and November 1957 discussions between President Bourguiba, the King of Morocco and Algerian rebel leaders resulted in an offer by Tunisia and Morocco of their good offices in an attempt to achieve a settlement which would combine sovereignty for Algeria with the safeguarding of French interests. This was accepted by the rebel leaders but rejected by the French government.

The most serious Franco-Tunisian incident of the Algerian war occurred in February 1958 when French aircraft from Algeria attacked the Tunisian border village of Sakhiat Sidi Youssef, the scene of several clashes the previous month, killing 79 people, injuring

130 and destroying many buildings. The Tunisian government's reaction was to break off diplomatic relations with France, to forbid all French troop movements in Tunisia, to demand the immediate evacuation of all French bases, including Bizerta, and to take the matter before the UN Security Council. French troops were blockaded in their barracks and the extra territorial status of Bizerta, from which French warships were banned, was abolished. In addition some 600 French civilians were expelled from the frontier area and five of the seven French consulates closed.

British and United States mediation was accepted and on April 15th it was agreed that all French troops would be evacuated in accordance with a jointly-agreed timetable and Tunisian sovereignty over Bizerta recognized, at the same time the French consulates would be reopened and the cases of the expelled French civilians examined. When further clashes between Tunisian and French forces occurred in May, a state of emergency covering the whole country was proclaimed and Tunisia again took the matter to the Security Council and also requested further arms supplies from the United States and Britain.

A new phase in Franco-Tunisian relations began with the accession to power of General de Gaulle in June 1958. An agreement was concluded on June 17th under which French troops stationed outside Bizerta were to be withdrawn during the next four months, while negotiations for a provisional agreement on Bizerta were to follow. Restrictions on French troops were removed and diplomatic relations resumed. By October the only French troops remaining in Tunisia were in Bizerta.

Further elimination of French interests had meanwhile commenced. In June the French-owned transport services and in August the electricity services of Tunis were nationalized. On November 29th President Bourguiba announced proposals for purchasing by 1960 all agricultural land in Tunisia owned by French citizens, for distribution to landless Tunisians.

POLITICAL CONSOLIDATION

With the improvement of relations with France the Tunisian government felt free to consolidate its internal position, by reforming the party structure of the Néo-Destour and by taking court proceedings against members of the former regime and "Youssefist" opponents. Prince Chadi, the eldest son of the ex bey, and the former Prime Ministers, Tahar ben Ammar and Salaheddine Baccouche, were among those tried in the latter part of 1958 on charges which included the misuse of public funds and collaboration with the French authorities, sentences imposed ranged from heavy fines to imprisonment and loss of civic rights. Salah ben Youssef (*in absentia*) and 54 of his supporters were charged with plotting the death of President Bourguiba, smuggling arms from Libya, and aiming to overthrow the government, ben Youssef and several others were sentenced to death and most of the remainder received long prison sentences.

This trial reflected a widening breach between Tunisia and the United Arab Republic, from where ben Youssef had been conducting his activities. In October 1958 Tunisia had joined the Arab League, only to withdraw from a meeting of its Council ten days later after accusing the U.A.R. of attempts at domination. Diplomatic relations with the U.A.R. were severed the same month on the grounds of Egyptian complicity in the "Youssefist" attempt to assassinate President Bourguiba, and on the eve of ben Youssef's trial the President announced the capture of Egyptian officers who had secretly entered Tunisia to assist subversive elements to overthrow his government.

A further step in the establishment of a presidential system of government was taken with the promulgation on June 1st, 1959, of a new constitution for Tunisia, which provided for the election of the President for five years and permitted his re-election for three consecutive terms. The President was empowered to lay down the general policy of the state, choose the members of the government, hold supreme command of the armed forces and make all appointments to civil and military posts. The constitution also provided for the election of a National Assembly for five years and required the approval of the Assembly for the declaration of war, the conclusion of peace and the ratification of treaties. In elections which followed on November 8th President Bourguiba was unopposed and all 90 seats in the Assembly went to the Néo Destour, their only opponents being the Communists.

THE BIZERTA CRISIS

During 1959 and 1960 Tunisian relations with France gradually improved. A trade and tariff agreement was signed on September 5th, 1959, and further agreements on technical co-operation and the transfer of French state property in Tunisia to the Tunisian government were concluded. In October 1959 President Bourguiba announced his support for President de Gaulle's offer of self-determination for Algeria, and Tunisia was subsequently able to act as intermediary between France and the Algerian rebels in moves towards a negotiated settlement. A meeting in Paris in February 1961 between Presidents Bourguiba and de Gaulle, at the latter's invitation, was regarded as a significant step forward in relations between the two countries.

At the same time the Tunisian claim for the handing-back of the Bizerta base was maintained and the issue came to a head on July 5th, 1961, when President Bourguiba made a formal demand for its return and repeated the claim, first put forward in 1959 to Saharan territory in Algeria adjacent to the south-western part of Tunisia. Demonstrations then took place against the continued French occupation of Bizerta and on July 17th President Bourguiba referred in the National Assembly to plans to "express our will to restore the Tunisian soil in both north and south".

Fighting between Tunisian and French troops began around the Bizerta base and in the disputed

area of the Sahara on July 19th, 1961, diplomatic relations were again severed, and Tunisia called for a meeting of the UN Security Council. The fighting ended on July 22nd with the French in firm control of the base and town of Bizerta, over 800 Tunisians having been killed. In the south a Tunisian attempt to seize the fort of Garat el-Hamel also failed. A subsequent visit to Bizerta by the UN Secretary-General, Mr. Hammarskjöld, in an attempt to promote a settlement, was unsuccessful. A French statement on July 28th said that France wished to continue to use the base whilst a state of international tension persisted but was prepared to negotiate with Tunisia about its use during this period.

The immediate results of the Bizerta crisis were a rapprochement between Tunisia and other Arab states, a cooling of relations with the West and an improvement of relations with the Communist bloc. Diplomatic links were re-established with the U.A.R., a move facilitated by the unexplained murder of Salah ben Youssef in Frankfurt in August. The Tunisian Foreign Minister visited the U.S.S.R., Poland and Czechoslovakia and a technical assistance agreement with the U.S.S.R. was signed. Following censure of France in the UN General Assembly in August, talks on the interim use of the base were commenced and on September 29th the French agreed to evacuate the town of Bizerta and retire to positions held before July 19th.

The final settlement of the Bizerta dispute occupied the remainder of 1961 and much of 1962, talks being held in both Rome and Paris. The Algerian cease-fire in March 1962 had an immediately beneficial effect on Franco-Tunisian relations and the French base installations at Menzel Bourguiba, near Bizerta, were handed over to Tunisia on June 30th. In March 1963 agreement was reached on the transfer of some 370,000 acres of French-owned agricultural land to the Tunisian government. Other agreements, on trade and finance, were designed to reduce Tunisia's balance of payments deficit with France.

Although Algerian independence had been warmly welcomed by Tunisia the extremist doctrines of the new state conflicted with Tunisian moderation and relations quickly deteriorated. In January 1963 the Tunisian ambassador was recalled from Algiers on the grounds of alleged Algerian complicity in an unsuccessful attempt the previous month on the life of President Bourguiba in which "Youssefists" in Algeria, as well as supporters of the old Destour and army elements, were implicated. Moroccan mediation led to a conference of the Maghreb states in Rabat in February 1963 at which the Tunisians demanded the cessation of "Youssefist" activities in Algeria, and after further negotiations a frontier agreement between Tunisia and Algeria was signed in July. Algerian, and also Egyptian, leaders attended celebrations in December of the final French evacuation of Bizerta which had taken place two months earlier.

EXPROPRIATION

Despite agreement with France in February 1964 on the provision of loans and credits, it was claimed that the March 1963 agreement on the transfer of

French-owned land had placed too great a strain on Tunisian financial resources and had also resulted in over-exploitation of the land held by settlers, who had been given up to five years before relinquishing it. On May 11th the Tunisian National Assembly enacted legislation authorizing the expropriation of all foreign-owned lands; this affected the proprietors of some 750,000 acres. The French immediately suspended, then cancelled, all financial aid.

This nationalization of foreign-owned land was also seen as a step towards the development of socialism in the agrarian sector of the economy. The Néo-Destour's commitment to "Tunisian socialism" was emphasized in the change of the party's name to the *Partie Socialiste Destourien* (PSD) at the time of the presidential and general elections in November 1964, in which President Bourguiba was again elected unopposed and the PSD, the only party to present candidates, filled all 90 seats in the National Assembly. Subsequent cabinet changes included the appointment of the President's son, Habib Bourguiba, Jr., as Foreign Minister.

From 1964 onwards internal political conditions became more settled and the attention of the government was turned to the tasks of economic development. The hold of the PSD on the country was strengthened and President Bourguiba's dominating position was unchallenged. In 1966 the setting-up was announced of a Council of the Republic, consisting of members of the government and of the political bureau of the PSD, to ensure continuing stability, one of its functions being to nominate an interim President in the event of the President's death.

FOREIGN POLICIES

Externally, Tunisia's relations with the world beyond the Arab states and Africa since 1964 have tended to be influenced by the need for foreign aid, most of which has been received from Western countries (particularly from the United States but also from Federal Germany) where the moderation of Tunisian policies has inspired confidence. Towards the Communist world Tunisian gestures have been cautious. Some economic assistance has been obtained from the Soviet Union without Tunisia having shifted her non-aligned stance, and although a visit by Chou En-lai in January 1964 was followed by the establishment of diplomatic relations between Tunisia and the Chinese People's Republic, President Bourguiba nevertheless publicly criticized Chinese policies, including the encouragement of revolution in Africa. On African issues Tunisia has taken a moderate line and inside the Organization of African Unity has exercised a responsible influence. In 1965, in the course of a tour of French-speaking African states, President Bourguiba suggested the formation of a francophone African "Commonwealth"; the idea had a mixed reception, however, and interest soon waned.

Relations with the rest of the Arab world have been President Bourguiba's main foreign preoccupation and here his initiatives have resulted in bitter controversy. In April 1965 he openly criticized Arab League policy on Palestine and advocated a more

flexible approach with direct negotiations with Israel on the UN partition plan of 1948. This provoked severe attacks from the U.A.R. and other Arab states (excepting Morocco, Libya and Saudi Arabia), and after violent demonstrations in Cairo and Tunis both countries withdrew their ambassadors. Tunisia's refusal at the end of April to follow the example of other Arab League states in breaking off relations with Federal Germany, which had exchanged ambassadors with Israel, increased the rift. A conference of Arab heads of state at Casablanca in May at which Tunisia was not represented, categorically rejected President Bourguiba's proposal that Israel should be asked to cede territory to the Palestine refugees in return for recognition by the Arab states, and reaffirmed their determination to bring about the complete overthrow of Israel. In an open letter to those attending, President Bourguiba accused President Nasser of attempting to use the Arab League as an instrument of U.A.R. national policy and of interfering in the affairs of every Arab state. Tunisia was not prepared to take part in the debates of the Arab League in the light of this situation. In October 1966, after accusations by President Bourguiba that the U.A.R. was waging a campaign of insults against Tunisia, the severance of diplomatic relations with the U.A.R. was announced. In January 1967 Tunisia joined Saudi Arabia in protesting to the UN Secretary General at the use of poison gas by Egyptian aircraft in a bombing attack in the Yemen, where the U.A.R. was virtually in control of the republican regime in the civil war with the royalists, Tunisian recognition of the republican regime was revoked the following month.

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS

The six-day war between Israel and the Arab states in June 1967 brought immediate reconciliation in the Arab world despite long standing differences. Tunisian troops were dispatched to the front but the Israeli success was so swift and the cease-fire came so soon that they were recalled before they had reached the scene of the fighting. Diplomatic relations between Tunisia and the U.A.R. were resumed and Tunisia was represented at the Arab summit meeting in Khartoum in September, which agreed not to recognize nor to negotiate with Israel. Untrue allegations of United States and British intervention on the side of Israel, made by Egypt and Jordan at the time of the Arab-Israeli hostilities resulted in serious rioting in Tunis where the British Embassy was sacked. Strict measures were taken by the Tunisian authorities to deal with the rioters and a student leader was subsequently sentenced to twenty years' imprisonment. After further disorders in March 1968 when his appeal was heard, 134 students and lecturers were arrested. They were tried in September on charges of plotting against the security of the state and attempting to overthrow the government. Most of them were given prison sentences, but President Bourguiba later threw out hints of possible clemency.

The reconciliation between Tunisia and other Arab countries was short lived. In May 1968, following an

attack on President Bourguiba by the Syrian Prime Minister, who charged him with having betrayed the Arab struggle in Palestine, the Syrian chargé d'affaires and his staff in Tunis were accused of inciting Tunisian citizens to undertake subversive activities and ordered to leave the country. The Arab League, at a meeting in Cairo on 1st September refused to hear a statement from the Tunisian delegate criticising the Arab attitude over Israel, and particularly that of the U.A.R. On 26th September the Tunisian Government announced its intention of boycotting future meetings of the League. The statement reproached the U.A.R. with having sought to dictate to the Arab states and with having followed policies which had led to successive defeats at the hands of the Israelis and excessive dependence on communist countries, Tunisia could not subscribe to the continuation of such policies which would lead only to greater disasters, but nevertheless affirmed its support for the Palestinian guerrillas whom it would provide with material and moral aid. The Tunisian Government would continue to co-operate bilaterally with all Arab states desiring good relations, including Egypt.

Earlier, there had been an improvement in Tunisia's relations with Algeria and an agreement had been signed in April 1968 on the demarcation of their common frontier. There was a subsequent deterioration however, following Algerian criticism of statements made by President Bourguiba during a visit to Canada and the United States in May (on the Arab/Israel question and on the growth of Soviet naval forces in the Mediterranean) and because the Tunisian Government granted asylum in June to the former Algerian Chief of Staff, Colonel Zbiri, who stood accused of leading an unsuccessful coup d'état against President Boumedienne in December 1967 (and who subsequently left for Europe). President Bourguiba did not attend the annual meeting of the Organisation of African Unity which was held in Algiers in September. A visit to Tunis by the Algerian Foreign Minister in March 1969 however, which was followed by a visit to Algiers by Habib Bourguiba, Jr., in April, brought about an improved climate for negotiation on economic matters, especially those arising from the nationalization by each country of properties owned by nationals of the others and on the boundary question.

THE FALL OF AHMED BEN SALAH

In September 1969 a cabinet reshuffle was announced. Its principal feature was the demotion of Ahmed Ben Salah, Minister of Finance and Planning for almost ten years and as such the unchallenged controller of the economy, still only 43. He had been generally regarded as the most brilliant member of the cabinet and a possible successor to the ageing President. He remained Minister of Education until November, but was then stripped of all office. Subsequently arrested, he was tried and found guilty on a variety of charges in May 1970 and was finally sentenced to ten years' hard labour.

Ben Salah was the leading force behind the ruthless drive towards co-operative farming that has been the

major feature of Tunisian life in recent years. The programme had aroused massive opposition throughout the areas affected; evidence at the trial also indicated that the existing farms had operated very inefficiently and lost large sums of money, which Ben Salah, as Minister of Finance, had reimbursed from the Treasury. No new co-operatives are being formed, and some land has been returned to the peasants. The unprecedented floods in the autumn of 1969 exacerbated the problems of Tunisia's rural economy.

President Bourguiba was re-elected without opposition in November 1969, but since then has spent much time in France, the U.S.A. and Switzerland receiving medical treatment. In his absence the main point of interest has been the struggle to succeed him. Until November 1970 Bahi Ladgham, the Prime Minister, seemed to be in the strongest position. He was chairman of the Supreme Follow-Up Committee, set up to supervise the implementation of the Cairo agreement between King Hussein and the Palestine liberation organizations. This committee had de-

veloped from the initiatives towards mediation started by President Bourguiba's suggestion in September 1970 for a conference of Arab heads of state to discuss the Jordanian situation. However, Ladgham's success on the committee and the wide publicity he received throughout the Arab world, on top of his running of Tunisia for six months in Bourguiba's absence, apparently lost him favour with the President, who appointed Hedi Nouira interim Prime Minister in October, while Ladgham was in Jordan, and official Premier in November.

Throughout 1970 and 1971 relations with the more radical Arab states and with radical powers outside the area improved. Normal relations were resumed with the U.A.R. and Syria, and Tunisia is to take up again membership of the Arab League. Relations with China, who closed her embassy in Tunis in 1967, are soon to be restored to normality, while North Vietnam has indicated a desire to open up diplomatic relations with the Tunisian Government.

K.G.M.

ECONOMIC SURVEY

Tunisia covers an area of 165,450 square kilometres. At the last census in 1966 the population was 4,457,862, and by mid-1969 it was estimated at 4,950,000. The Muslim population grows at a rate of some 2.1 per cent annually, while the rate for the total population is slightly less. Most of the towns, and also the greater part of the rural population are concentrated in the coastal areas. In the centre and the south, the land is infertile semi-desert, the population scattered, the standard of living very low, and the rate of growth of the population even higher than in the north.

The capital and main commercial centre is Tunis (population, including suburbs, about 790,000) which, together with the adjacent La Joulette is also the chief port. There are about 100,000 Europeans in Tunis, mainly French and Italians, although the number of Europeans in the country has decreased rapidly since independence. Other towns of importance are Sfax (66,000), Sousse (56,000), Bizerta (54,000) and Khairouan (40,000). Sfax is the chief town of southern Tunisia, the second port and the centre for the export of phosphates and olive oil. There is a special petroleum port at La Skhovia. Approximately 46 per cent of the active population are employed on the land and it has been estimated that this proportion will fall to 44.7 per cent by 1972, since farming is becoming increasingly mechanized and thus requires less labour while the industrial and service sectors, especially tourism, are developing rapidly. Services employed 12.9 per cent of the active population in 1968, the manufacturing industries 12 per cent and the petrol and extractive industries 16.7 per cent.

Tunisia is not lacking in natural resources; however, until very recently, they have been poorly exploited

and in any case, they are not sufficient or well-balanced. Development is only taking place slowly yet, the population is expanding fast. Agricultural production is the mainstay of the economy, though new avenues are now being explored. Agriculture, however, is subject to fluctuations, which have repercussions on standards of living and foreign trade. Although exports of minerals help to correct the imbalance of foreign trade, the equilibrium of the economy is precarious. The specialization of certain regions in a particular crop, necessary for both productivity and in the interests of adaptation to soil and climate, increases the imbalance even further. Three years of drought as well as very severe floods in September 1969, have caused grave economic damage. Not only were crops and livestock lost but communications were broken. Agriculture uses casual labour, leaving this body of unskilled labourers without employment for a large part of the year.

Mineral resources are large and there is plenty of room for development. Phosphates are the most important mineral, followed by iron ore. The 1969 floods cut the Gafsa-Sfax railway, making phosphate exports impossible for several months and also the iron mines at Djerissa inaccessible. Generally speaking, with the exception of the Djerissa iron mines where the high metal content of the ore and ease of working have favoured exploitation, mining concerns in the past have often been under-equipped and frequently only exploited intermittently. There are substantial undeveloped deposits of iron, lead and zinc. A major hope for the future is oil which was first found in commercial quantities in 1964. Production began in 1966. A natural gas field was discovered at Abder Rahmane in Cap Bon with reserves of 200 million cubic metres, which are sufficient to supply Tunis for 20 years.

Industrial production is responsible for only a small part of national income. Industrial development in the past was probably partly hampered by Tunisia's close dependence on the French market. Government policy on economic development was originally closely bound up with the idea of political independence. Before 1956, Tunisia had a colonial economy—it was heavily dependent on the economy of France. On independence, the aim became a balanced national economy and hence the periodic divergencies of policy with the French government in subsequent years. The embodiment of the government's economic policies is to be found in the series of development plans (1962-64, 1965-68, and 1969-72). Encouragement is given to both public and private sectors though the private sector has to work within the framework of the plan. The country still has a considerable trade deficit (48 million dinars in 1969) yet foreign grants and loans, mainly from the USA, the Federal Republic of Germany, Canada and international agencies have ensured that the total balance of payments is in surplus. The servicing of foreign loans in recent years has required about 25 per cent of the gross receipts from exports and services. Though, autonomous development is the ultimate aim Tunisia at present welcomes foreign aid from any source. Without it the successful implementation of the plan would be impossible.

The Tunisian economy is at a decisive stage in its development. Having suffered several set-backs over the last few years, not the least of which was the disastrous flooding in October 1969, there now seems to be a more determined effort to formulate an economic policy which will stimulate growth and reduce the trade deficit. Although the economy is basically aid dependent, there are signs that some attention is being directed towards new industries and recent oil strikes and better diplomatic relations with the Arab world have given rise to guarded optimism. Specific measures have already been announced in an attempt to give some direction in the agricultural sector which employs approximately three quarters of the labour force.

AGRICULTURE

About two thirds of the total area of Tunisia is suitable for farming. For agricultural purposes the country is comprised of five different districts—the north with its mountains, having large fertile valleys, the north-east including the Cap Bon, where the soil is especially suitable for the cultivation of oranges, lemons and citrus fruit, the Sabel where the olives grow, the centre with its high tablelands and pastures, and the south with oases and gardens where dates are prolific. Harvests vary considerably in size, depending on the rainfall—irrigation is practically unknown. The main cereal crops are wheat, barley, maize, oats and sorghum, fruit is also important—grapes, olives, oranges and figs are grown for export as well as for the local market.

In good years there is a surplus of cereal for export but in recent years wheat and flour have been imported as a result of bad harvests. In 1968 agricultural

output rose generally, in 1969, after a mixed season, the floods caused the sector severe set backs and years of work were undone. However, in future years crops should show some improvement since the greater part of the land flooded usually suffers from drought.

Under the plans from 1962 onwards agricultural production is estimated to rise by 5.5 per cent annually, thus raising the standard of living of the rural population, and under the current 1969-72 plan \$246 million of the proposed \$1,200 million total investment is allocated to agricultural projects. It is hoped that the country will become self-sufficient in foodstuffs and that the expansion in the agricultural sector of the economy will stimulate the development of other sectors, notably industry. Considerable progress has been made towards the diversification of crops, mechanization, more irrigation and an increase in the use of fertilizers. The basis of the government's agrarian reform programme lies in the formation of 'agricultural units'. These units, each consisting of 500 hectares, will be operated as co-operatives, in order to consolidate small peasant holdings to exploit land expropriated from French farmers or to be acquired eventually from the present owners of large or medium sized farms. A number of these units have already been set up. It is usual for each unit of land to be divided up between various crops—hard wheat, soft wheat, olives and almonds as well as livestock and a fallow part. Water and electricity are introduced and other communal facilities provided. By 1968 1,100 co-operatives had been established, there has since been a pause for consolidation, as both 'bottlenecks' and rural opposition were becoming widespread. In 1969 it was revealed that the system of co-operatives was often inefficient and unsatisfactory and that they were heavily in debt. This discovery was the prime cause for the downfall and disgrace of Ahmed Ben Salah, the Minister of Planning for nine years. Subsequently, farmers were given the chance to opt out of co-operatives. Measures now being taken to improve the situation include increased aid to smaller farms, reduced prices for seeds and fertilizers and easier credit facilities from banks. Aid has also been extended to the fishing industry. Despite the immense problems in agriculture, production has on the whole, continued to rise.

In March 1963, an agreement was signed between the French and Tunisian governments on French land expropriated by the Tunisian state. Under the agreement, Tunisia was to purchase 150,000 hectares of land in 1963 and 50,000 hectares in 1964 and the French government was to pay substantial compensation to the former owners. Those settlers still in occupation of land were promised full ownership rights for five years. The security of these settlers came to a sudden end when in May 1964, the Tunisian parliament abruptly and unexpectedly passed a bill nationalizing all farm land owned by foreigners. This affected some 400,000 hectares, of which 270,000 hectares were French-owned about 45,000 Italian, and 15,000 Maltese. Justified by the government on economic grounds, the general nationalization of foreign-owned land violated the 1963 agreement with France. The Tunisians defended

themselves by pointing out that the French overrode agreements concerning the import of Tunisian vegetables and fruit. Compensation has since been paid or is being negotiated.

The following are Tunisia's main agricultural crops:

Wheat. Grown in a belt across the northern part of the country, wheat is the most important cereal crop. In 1963, wheat production reached a record 570,000 tons, but it dropped again by 1965 to 520,000 tons. Harvests in 1966 (459,000 tons) and 1967 (340,000 tons) were, however, poor owing to the drought, but there was an improvement in 1968 (385,000 tons) and 1969 (390,000 tons). In good years, wheat is exported but in bad years like these, imports of wheat become necessary. The government guarantees the price to the grower and, amongst other incentives, pays the transport costs of merchants. Wheat is now sold at world market prices, which are lower than the prices which used to be obtained in the French market.

Barley. The area under barley in 1961 was 428,000 hectares. Production fluctuates according to the rainfall, and in recent years has been only about half the record levels (around 200,000 tons) reached earlier. In 1967 production reached 90,000 tons and rose to 130,000 tons in 1968.

Grapes. Grapes are grown around Tunis and Bizerta. Wine production in the period 1962-65 was about 1,800,000 hectolitres, falling to 1.3 million hectolitres in 1966 and 950,000 hectolitres in 1969. Wine used to represent the second most important export but with the discovery of oil, has dropped to third place. Most of Tunisia's wine used to be sold to France at a price above the world price. Wine was not sold to France between September 1964 and 1965 but sales have since been resumed.

Olives. The size of olive harvests varies considerably, partly due to the two-year flowering cycle of the tree. However, in 1963 output was 89,000 tons and 95,000 tons in 1964, two good years. Subsequent harvests have never been as large. In 1968 the crop amounted to 55,000 tons and in 1969 to only 25,000 tons. Olive oil is an important export earner—in 1969 its export yielded 10 million dinars.

Citrus. Citrus fruit is grown on the north-eastern coast. In 1967 citrus production reached 100,000 tons, dropped to 66,000 tons in 1968, but recovered to 80,000 tons in 1969; a large part of the citrus crop is exported, mostly to France.

Dates. In 1966 and 1967 42,000 tons of dates were grown, but only 39,000 tons in 1968. Exports in 1968 were valued at 600,000 dinars.

Esparto Grass. Production in 1965 was 111,000 tons, of which roughly half was exported. This fell in 1966, and fell further in 1967, to only 66,000 tons, but rose again to 108,000 tons in 1968.

Other Crops. Experimental planting of cotton and sugar beet has been tried. Sugar beet is used by the new sugar refinery near Beja, which has a capacity of 1,850 tons per day. Other crops being tried include bananas, strawberries and pistachio nuts.

Livestock. Livestock in 1965 included 3,767,000 sheep, 592,000 cattle, 86,000 horses, 54,000 mules and 190,000 camels.

Fishing. Fishing employs 13,807 men and over 4,000 boats. The fishing industry is being expanded—the catch rose to 23,000 tons in 1962, nearly double the 1956 figure, but the subsequent rate of expansion has varied. The 1968 catch was 32,562 tons. In October 1962 territorial waters were extended from 3 to 6 miles and fishing limits to 12 miles off shore.

MINERALS

Tunisia has several rich mineral deposits and is one of the world's largest producers of phosphates. Although their quality is not as good as the Moroccan equivalent, phosphates are, nevertheless, one of the country's most important exports. Iron ore is mined in Tunisia; also lead, zinc, potash and salt. Oil was discovered close to the Algerian border in May 1964 and gas has also been found. Some 13,000 persons are employed in the mining industry. The current plan recognizes the present importance of the mining industry to the economy. It encourages the processing of minerals in Tunisia—at present exported in their raw state; this applies particularly to phosphates. The plan also proposes the exploitation of the iron ore deposits at Djebel Ank and further exploration for minerals. Production of phosphates and iron ore is expected to rise, while lead and zinc ores may fall. Considerable expansion in mining production has taken place since 1962, though in 1967 the index for mining production fell to 136 from 152 in 1968 (1963=100). The *Office National des Mines* is responsible for exploration for fresh mineral deposits, for the reactivation of deposits which have ceased production, for the carrying out of an elaborate modernization programme in mining methods and in the improvement of productivity. A further task is to promote exploration for oil.

Phosphates. Calcium phosphates are mined mainly from six large deposits in central Tunisia. Tunisia is the fourth largest producer in the world. Production rose above 3 million tons for the first time in 1965 and reached 3.2 million tons in 1966. Production fell to 2.8 million tons in 1967 due to world market conditions but rose to 3.7 million tons in 1968. The output of phosphates was badly affected in 1969 by the unprecedented floods, but recovered in 1970 to total 3 million tons. It is planned to raise output to 5 million tons by 1972. Exports in 1969 were valued at 17.38 million dinars and destined mainly to France, Italy, West Germany and India. It is used by the fertilizer industry to produce hyperphosphate, superphosphate and triple superphosphate. Phosphate mining is now concentrated in the hands of a single concern, the Sfax-Gafsa Co., which operates under the overall financial control of the government. The company has announced a wide range of plans of modernization of output and new refining projects, as well as changes in location of mining activities. New mechanical processes are to be introduced in order to speed up the growth of productivity. The

Sfax Gafsa Co. is in the process of opening two new mines one at M'rata to replace the Moularies mine and one at Ste Barba to succeed the Kalaa Jerda mine. The M'rata mine is expected to allow easy working with an annual output of some 1 million tons—double that of the Moularies. The Ste Barba scheme currently under study is expected to cost around 1 million dinars in investment expenditure.

The long term plan now laid down by the company includes development of a new deposit at Schub also in Southern Tunisia. Reserves there are now reported to be over 44 million tons. Preliminary work on this new deposit began in December 1970 and capital investment of 14 million dinars is expected creating 1 200 new jobs.

Iron Ore. Tunisia has numerous deposits of rich non phosphorous iron ore. The two main deposits are at Djerissa and Douana. Production rose from 918 000 tons in 1967 to 1 000 000 tons in 1968 but fell back to 930 000 tons in 1969. Exports were 1 74 million dinars in 1969 mostly to markets in Italy, the United Kingdom and Greece. Other deposits may be exploited after the conclusion of studies currently being under taken.

Lead. Lead ore is extracted in the northern coastal region. Production figures show a steady decline from 36 000 tons in 1958 to 20 812 tons in 1964. In 1965 production rose to 24 444 tons largely due to expanded production at Djebel Hallouf. Production was 28 000 tons in 1967 and 25 000 tons in 1968. In 1969 output rose by 58 per cent to total 38 140 tons. Exports of lead ore and products were valued at 472 000 dinars in 1966.

Zinc. Zinc ore is mined in the north western corner of Tunisia. Production has fluctuated over the past few years and is still at a very low level. From 6 000 tons in 1958 production rose to over 10 000 tons in 1966. In 1968 production fell to 7 165 tons but in 1969 production more than doubled to total 16 692 tons. Most zinc exports used to be taken by France but the French share is now falling.

Salt. Production by Cotusal (*Cie Generale des Salines de Tunisie*) amounts to between 300 000 and 320 000 tons annually. About 90 per cent is exported principally to Japan.

Mercury. Production in 1961 was 1 058 kilograms. A new deposit was discovered in 1963 in the Djebel Arja region. In 1965 production reached 6 000 kilograms of which 5 175 were exported. By 1968 production had reached 11 000 kilograms.

Petroleum. Intensive exploration for petroleum has been carried out since the discovery of oil in neighbouring Algeria. In May 1964 the subsidiary of the Italian State Hydrocarbons Agency (E.N.I.) found oil at El Borma in the south near the Algerian border. Recoverable reserves are estimated at between 35 and 45 million tons. The field went into production in mid 1966. Production reached 630 000 tons in the first six months. In 1967 it rose to 2.2 million tons and to over 3 million tons in 1968 and 3.4 million tons in 1969 (including production from the Douleb field). The Tunisian government has taken a 50 per cent share

in the operating company now that oil has been found. The crude oil is taken from El Borma via a newly constructed spur pipeline which links up with the existing pipeline from the oilfields at Zarzaitine and Edjelel in Algeria to the terminal at La Skhirra on the Gulf of Gabès. Thence the crude oil is exported or taken by tanker to the refinery at Bizerta (capacity one million tons per year). A second refinery is under study at Sfax though as yet local demand is only 700 000 tons annually.

The *Société de Recherches et d'Exploitations des Pétroles en Tunisie* (SEREPT) in which French interests both public and private have a large share together with Aquitaine Tunisie (a wholly owned subsidiary of the French company SNPA) found a new oilfield at Douleb near Kasserine some 115 kilo metres from La Skhirra. A new 6 inch pipeline has been built to the port of La Skhirra. Production began in May 1968 and totalled 220 000 tons in that year. A small field named Tamesmda on the Algerian border south west of Douleb was joined to the Douleb-La Skhirra pipeline in 1969 and will produce some 30 000 tons per year in order to supply a paper pulp plant at nearby Kasserine. Some companies are showing a keen interest in exploration in Tunisia though recent discoveries have been only small. Aquitaine with 4 000 square kilometres is the principal exploration permit holder and Sitep with 37 000 square kilometres the second. The French company *Cie Française des Pétroles* was awarded in 1968 a permit covering 15 000 square kilometres on and offshore in the Gulf of Gabès. SEREPT also operates a small gas field in the Cap Bon area which supplies Tunis. Production at Cap Bon amounts to nearly 10 million cubic metres annually. The same company in conjunction with the *Société Nationale des Pétroles d'Aquitaine* found gas at Douleb south west of Tunis in 1966. A second gas field has been discovered at Bir Ali ben Khalifa near Sfax by a group of U.S. companies. The production rate from one well is estimated at 2.7 million cubic metres annually.

Prospects for the oil industry appear good. A strike has been made near the Algerian border at Shuwaish and production has started on a new field at Tom Smda with an estimated output of 28 000 tons a year. Although most oil is worked by joint Tunisian and French or Italian companies a number of other concerns have recently expressed interest in obtaining exploration permits both for on shore and off shore prospecting.

INDUSTRY

Industry is still only on a small scale and consists of the processing of local raw materials: minerals, wool (two new factories in the Sousse region are under construction) and leather and foods—the last named being the most important. There are 20 major flour mills with a total milling capacity of 380 000 tons. Vegetable oil processing is also important and a canning industry is being developed—already over 20 canning factories process fish of all kinds, mostly

destined for export. At Beja is a sugar refinery capable of refining 1,850 tons per day, sufficient to cover the country's needs in the near future, though some sugar beet has to be imported. Other factories pasteurise milk and make butter, cheese and yoghurt. Other industries include, amongst other construction materials plants, two cement factories. Production in 1968 was 491,000 tons, which more than covered local requirements (200–300,000 tons per annum) thus permitting some exports. In addition, factories manufacture glass, metal furniture, batteries, paint and varnish, leather and shoes, clothing, various textiles, biscuits, chocolates, etc. There is also a motor vehicle assembly plant and three small metal foundries. The industrial sector, however, is expanding fast. In 1963 a 1 million ton oil refinery came on stream at Bizerta which covers all local needs in petroleum products except aviation spirit. Built at a cost of 100 million francs, it is owned by Société Tuniso-Italienne de Raffinage (STIR), a joint government/ENI (Italian state hydrocarbons agency) company. A cellulose factory and a paper paste plant at Kasserine entered into production in the same year; the plant will use locally grown esparto grass as raw material.

Industrial projects include a \$30 million nitrogenous fertilizer plant at Gabès, a new superphosphates plant at Sfax, a glassworks at Mégrine, a tractor and agricultural equipment assembly plant, an electrical equipment plant and a centre for manufacture of high-precision tools. A steel complex at Menzel-Bourguiba with an initial capacity of 120,000 tons of rod, bar wire and small sections began operations in 1965. It is supplied with iron ore from Tamera and Djerissa. Many of these projects came under the development plans (1962–72). New projects are being undertaken in the south, which has suffered from severe unemployment. A chemical complex is under construction near Gabès. Also under construction are a phosphoric acid plant (capacity 100,000 tons annually), a new thermal power plant, a rail link between Gafsa and new port facilities at Gabès to carry phosphates. A sulphuric acid plant, using local gypsum is planned.

Power. Production of electricity in 1968 was 546 million kWh., most of which was produced by thermal means; hydro-electric power is of lesser importance, having been first produced in 1956. Power production from this source varies considerably, depending on the availability of water. Altogether there are eighteen power stations.

Atomic Energy. Plans have been drawn up for building a nuclear reactor costing 15 million dinars at Gabès. It is expected to produce 20,000 cubic metres of desalinized water and 50 megawatts of electricity per day.

In 1971 the World Bank granted Tunisia a loan of 5.2 million dinars to lay a gas pipe from Al-Burmah to the proposed power station at Gabes. The Bank will grant 3.9 million dinars at an interest rate of 7 per cent while the Kuwaiti Fund for Arab Economic Development will provide the remainder.

FINANCE AND TRADE

Banking. The "Banque Centrale de Tunisie" is the sole bank of issue of the dinar; it performs all the normal central banking functions. Transfers of foreign exchange to all countries have been subject to control since 1959. Fourteen commercial banks operate in Tunisia and a number of financial institutions, some of which specialize in providing finance for investment purposes, the most notable being the Société Nationale d'Investissement. The dinar was devalued in September 1964 by 20 per cent from 0.42 dinars to the U.S. dollar to 0.52 dinars to the dollar. Devaluation was made necessary by the termination of French financial aid after the nationalization of French owned farms. Tunisia did not devalue with the Franc zone in August 1969.

Budget. The current budget usually shows a surplus which is devoted to capital expenditure. Direct taxation accounts for 20 per cent of total revenue and indirect taxes over 50 per cent. Other sources of government revenue are profits of state monopolies, which represent a substantial part of the total, and receipts from state property and forests. Under the 1969 budget expenditure is estimated at 204 million dinars, compared with 185 million dinars in 1968, an increase of 10 per cent. Of this total 70 per cent (140 million dinars) represents ordinary expenditure and the remainder is transferred to the investment budget. Oil is a growing source of government income; in 1966 it contributed 6.7 million dinars to government revenue and in 1969 it rose to 23 million dinars. In 1970 the ordinary budget was balanced at 147 million dinars.

Development. Development expenditure by the public sector for the first plan in 1962–64 was fixed at 140 million dinars, out of a total of 270 million. The 1966 capital budget amounted to 45 million dinars, largely financed by foreign aid but also from ordinary budget surplus (22 per cent) and deficit financing (11 per cent). Expenditure was concentrated on agriculture, infrastructure projects, education, industry and tourism. In the past, a major part of public development has been financed by foreign sources. France used to be the main contributor but her place had been taken by the U.S.A. during the period 1957 to 1963, when the French refused aid to Tunisia because it supported Algeria against the French. In 1964 France again withdrew her aid when the state took over all foreign-owned land. Aid is now being sought from other friendly-disposed countries to replace the French contribution. The United States is contributing \$180 million to Tunisian development. In 1964 alone loans were granted by the U.S.S.R. (\$27.5 million), Italy, Poland and Czechoslovakia (\$19.6 million each), the German Federal Republic (\$7.5 million), IBRD (\$5 million) and others, amounting to \$180 million. The French government is making a loan of £2.8 million and French banks credits of £4.1 million for the phosphoric acid plant. A further French loan is to be utilized for industrial expansion in the south. The World Bank and the Swedish government are loaning \$20 million for the expansion of water supplies in the south.

Development expenditure is made within the context of the 1962-72 development plans which envisage a 6 per cent annual rise in gross domestic product. It is hoped that income per head per year will rise to a minimum of 45 dinars. The general aims of the plans are to modernize the traditional sector to reduce chronic underemployment and to improve social services. The first plan covered the years 1962-64 when the main emphasis was on the infrastructure and social services. Following the creation of a sound basis for development attention was paid in the second plan (four years 1965-68) to immediately profitable undertakings and to exports. Industrialization and the modernization of agriculture were the principal features of the second stage. As development under the first stage proved to be too heavy a financial burden, a less ambitious pace of development was envisaged for the years up to 1968. In these years investment was estimated to grow by 4.3 per cent per year, compared with an 11.7 per cent rate of annual growth between 1960 and 1964. It is hoped that exports will grow by 6 per cent annually and imports by only 3.7 per cent as a means to lessen the trade deficit which was one of the earlier problems. Difficulties which still confront the planners are the rapid growth in the population and the need for \$100 million per year in foreign aid. Bizerta will be the main industrial zone with its port, oil refinery and steel complex at Menzel Bourguiba and other lesser enterprises. The government hopes to establish a new industrial complex in the south where underemployment is severe. A new port, a fertilizer plant and a power station are planned. The Gabès port development is particularly significant. This will represent Tunisia's most important port complex and will in fact comprise three adjacent ports and an industrial estate. These three ports will be specially built to handle general merchandise, petroleum and other minerals respectively. Completion is expected to take three years and its cost and that of several secondary projects will be covered by a \$100 million development credit from Italy. The location is ideal for the export of petroleum and phosphates from the southern region and of the agricultural produce of the central region. The third four year plan (1969-72) aims at a 6 per cent annual growth rate compared with the 3.5-4 per cent rate achieved during the years 1962-68. Total investment is put at \$1,200 million of which \$246 million is destined for agricultural projects. The overall emphasis is on reducing unemployment, increasing productivity and improving the balance of payments.

Foreign Trade. Tunisia's foreign trade normally shows a deficit of up to 50 million dinars. Exports show a rise in most years but are still heavily dependent on the success of the harvest and world market conditions for mineral exports. Exports of crude oil which began in 1966 are now making a substantial contribution to export earnings. Exports totalled 87 million dinars in 1969 compared with 82.8 million dinars in 1968 while imports amounted to 134.6 million dinars in 1969 compared with 114 million dinars in 1968.

Olive oil used to be the principal export in the past but phosphates took the lead in 1965 and in turn were

replaced by crude oil in 1969. Exports of crude oil amounted to 21.2 million dinars in 1969 while phosphate exports were valued at 17.4 million dinars. Iron and lead are other important mineral exports. Olive oil exports reached a record value of 13,505 million dinars in 1965 but in 1969 only amounted to 10 million dinars. Wine was normally a big export earner in the past but in recent years has made an increasingly smaller contribution. Other exports include wheat, citrus and other fruit, though after a bad harvest such as in 1966 no wheat was exported. Crude petroleum was exported for the first time in 1966, amounting to 4.18 million dinars. In 1967 petroleum exports rose to 10.5 million dinars, thus becoming the second largest export.

Imports consist mainly of machinery, metal goods and transport equipment. In years of bad harvests in Tunisia, large quantities of foodstuffs have to be imported—in 1967 wheat alone amounted to over 12 million dinars. Textiles represented a sizeable import item in the past but have now declined with the increase in home production.

As in the case of Morocco and Algeria, a large proportion of Tunisia's trade used to be with France. In 1964 France supplied 44 per cent of Tunisia's imports and took 51 per cent of her exports. In earlier years the percentages were even higher and in 1959 France accounted for 66 per cent of total imports. However, following the deterioration of relations with France after the nationalization of land owned by foreigners, trade with France dropped—exports to France fell drastically from 357 million francs in 1963 to 171 million francs in 1965 (31 per cent of total exports) while imports from France only dropped from 506 million francs in 1963 to 467 million francs in 1965 (39 per cent of total imports). The enormous drop in exports to France was caused partly by the closing of the French market to Tunisian wine. France refused in 1964 to renew the 1959 trade convention by which France and Tunisia granted each other special privileges in prices and customs duties. Tunisian hard wheat, wine, citrus fruit and olive oil then had to face competition on the French market with no advantage. However, in 1966 the French government announced that it would again grant duty free import quotas for shellfish, citrus fruit, other fruit and vegetables, phosphates and olive oil. Relations further improved when agreement was reached on tariff preferences in both countries and it was announced in July that the proceeds of the sale of a million hectolitres of Tunisian wine to France would be credited to a fund for the compensation of French farmers expropriated by the Tunisian government in 1964. France remains Tunisia's principal supplier, followed by the U.S.A., Italy and West Germany. France also continues as the biggest customer for Tunisian exports, followed by West Germany and Italy. In 1969 the EEC accounted for 55 per cent of Tunisian exports compared with a corresponding 12 per cent by Eastern European countries and 11 per cent by EFTA.

Tourism. This has grown rapidly in Tunisia in recent years and became the nation's largest foreign currency earner in 1968. The 1966 figure of 218,000

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tourists was only slightly exceeded in 1967 as the Palestine war tended to discourage European visitors to Arab countries; nevertheless the number of "tourist nights" rose by 25 per cent, lifting earnings from 13 million dinars to about 16 million in 1967. In 1968 the number of tourists rose to 330,284, and again in 1969 to 360,000 tourists, earning Tunisia 20 million dinars. The 1969 figure was achieved despite a minor typhoid outbreak and the serious floods at the end of the season. Foreign investment in the tourist industry is also growing steadily.

External Aid. The principal sources of economic aid obtained by Tunisia continued to be Western countries and international institutions, with over 50 per cent of all aid coming from the U.S.—total U.S. aid between 1957 and 1967 amounted to \$528 million. A loan of \$15 million from U.S. A.I.D. funds was agreed in April 1966 for purchases in the United States. In May the International Finance Corporation (IFC) approved a loan of \$5 million for the Tunisian Société Nationale d'Investissement for financing industrial development. Between 1962 and 1967 West German loans for agriculture, irrigation projects and port expansion amounted to over £20 million. In September the International Development Association (IDA) approved credit of \$13 million for educational development, and in December the International Monetary Fund (IMF) agreed to a Tunisian request for a further stand-by credit of \$9.6 million. It was announced in February 1967 that the World Bank and the IDA would jointly provide \$18 million to assist the financing of a co-operative farming project. The IBRD is lending \$10 million to the Société Nationale d'Investissement for new projects in the private sector. In November 1968 a further loan of \$8.5 million from the World Bank was announced for the modernization of Tunisia's ports. In 1967 the Kuwait Fund for Arab Economic Development extended a loan of 13 million dollars to Tunisia for the second stage of the La Goulette II power project. Soviet aid has been given on a limited scale. Following the improvement in relations with France, French aid was stepped up after 1967 and in particular loans of 93 million francs

were promised for the industrial complex at Gabès, while total French aid was nearer double this figure.

Possibly because Tunisia did not follow the Arab countries in breaking off diplomatic relations with West Germany in 1965, relations between the two countries have continued to improve since then. A number of loans have been received from West Germany, the most recent being one of DM 40 million granted in 1970.

After long negotiations, agreement was reached between the European Economic Community and Tunisia under which Tunisia was granted partial association. Full association, which would include aid provisions and the free movement of labour, was thus postponed. Under the partial association agreement, to run for 5 years, the EEC countries will remove all custom duties and quotas on virtually all industrial exports from Tunisia (at present some 55 per cent of Tunisian exports to the EEC). However, there remains a quote of 100,000 tons of petroleum products exported to the EEC without tariff. Custom duties on olive oil and fish are reduced and preference given to hard wheat and various processed agricultural products. Limited preference will be given to citrus fruit. In return Tunisia will give tariff reductions, equivalent to 70 per cent of the preference, previously given to French goods, on 40 per cent of its imports from the EEC. In 1967 Tunisia exported 52 per cent of its total exports to EEC countries, while 48 per cent of imports came from the EEC. In the meantime progress towards economic co-operation between the Maghreb countries is slow, though a permanent Maghreb Consultative Committee and an Industrial Studies Centre have been established. One of the aims is to co-ordinate the four countries' development plans. Co-operation with Libya in the petrochemical industry is expected, following a 1968 agreement under which Tunisia will concentrate on production of superphosphates and phosphoric acid while Libya will devote its efforts to the production of ammonia and its derivatives; joint production of sulphuric acid is envisaged.

J.I.E.M.

STATISTICAL SURVEY

AREA AND POPULATION

AREA (sq km)	POPULATION	(1966 census)
	Total	Tunis (capital)
164 150	4 533 351	789 787

	1967	1968	1969
Births	187 329	188 317	194 822
Deaths	52 000	49 320	55 298
Marriages	28 193	33 101	33 764

Chief Towns: Sfax 100,000, Sousse 70 000, Bizerta 70,000, Kairouan 40,000, Menzel Bourguiba 30,000.

AGRICULTURE
PRINCIPAL CROPS
(000 metric tons)

CROP	1966	1967	1968	1969
Soft Wheat	49	50	73	80
Hard Wheat	300	290	310	220
Barley	80	70	130	80
Esparto Grass	107	66	108	74
Citrus Fruits	82	100	66	97
Dates	42	42	39	59
Sugar Beet	50	39	27	26

LIVESTOCK
(1965-'000)

CATTLE	PIGS	SHEEP	HORSES	MULES	GOATS	CAMELS
592	5	3 767	86	54	527	190

Fishing: Total catch including Shellfish (1966) 24 964 tons (1967) 33 120 tons (1968) 27 972 tons (1969) 29 668 tons

TUNISIA—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

MINING

		1965	1966	1967	1968	1969
Iron Ore . . .	('000 metric tons)	1,117	1,724	1,003	1,016	945
Lead Ore . . .	{ " " " }	25	25	28	24	38
Calcium Phosphate	{ " " " }	n.a.	3,216	2,810	3,361	2,599
Zinc . . .	(metric tons)	n.a.	5,137	5,635	7,165	16,692

Petroleum: Production from the El Borma field totalled 631,000 tons in 1966, 2,234,000 tons in 1967, and approximately 3,300,000 tons in 1968 and 1969.

INDUSTRY

		1966	1967	1968	1969
Superphosphates . .	('000 metric tons)	271	323	376	333
Cement . . .	{ " " " }	455	444	491	582
Lead . . .	{ " " " }	14	13.2	14	24
Electric Power . . .	(million kWh.)	444	488	546	624
Natural Gas . . .	('000 cubic metres)	n.a.	9,220	9,443	9,298
Town Gas . . .	{ " " " }	18.2	19.7	19.5	19.9
Beer . . .	('000 hectolitres)	207	228	237	169
Cigarettes . . .	(millions)	2,734	2,986	2,975	3,258
Wine . . .	('000 hl.)	1,265	825	912	843
Olive Oil . . .	('000 metric tons)	52	19	51	55

Also Sugar Refining, Flour Milling, Fish Canning and many small industries.

FINANCE

1 Dinar = 1,000 millimes

1.26 Dinars = £1 sterling; 0.52 Dinars = U.S. \$1.

100 Dinars = £79.36 sterling = U.S. \$190.48.

BUDGET

Budget Estimates—1967: Balanced at 108 million dinars.

1968: Balanced at 124 million dinars.

1969: Balanced at 132 million dinars.

DEVELOPMENT PLANS 1962-72

Aim at a 6 per cent annual rise in productivity.

FIRST PLAN 1962-64

Proposed expenditure in the Public Sector, 140 million dinars, in the Private Sector: 130 million dinars.

SECOND PLAN 1965-68

Aims at 6.5 per cent annual rise in productivity. National savings will supply 280 million dinars of the planned investments. 150 million dinars will be invested in industrialisation.

THIRD PLAN 1969-72

Proposed investment: \$1,200 million, of which \$246 is allocated to agriculture.

TUNISIA—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

NATIONAL ACCOUNTS (million dinars at 1966 prices)

	1967	1968	1969*
Agriculture	63 8	76 7	80 3
Food and Agricultural Industries	24 6	27 6	28 9
Petroleum	15 1	20 4	24 3
Mining	8 9	12 4	8 8
Public Utilities	8 8	9 4	na
Other Industry	38 0	39 2	54 5
Building and Public Works	40 5	36 2	40 4
Transport and Telecommunications	41 5	42 8	41 7
Rent	19 0	20 0	20 0
Commerce	61 5	64 0	67 1
Tourism	9 1	11 1	12 5
Other Services including Government	103 9	110 5	117 9
GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT AT FACTOR COST	434 7	471 3	496 4
Indirect Taxes	75 0	77 0	86 9
GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT AT MARKET PRICES	509 7	548 3	583 3
Imports of Goods and Services less Exports	37 1	32 1	50 0
TOTAL RESOURCES	566 8	580 4	633 3
Private Consumption	346 6	359 9	366 0
Government Consumption	96 9	105 8	113 2
Gross Fixed Capital Formation	123 2	112 2	132 7

* Provisional

BALANCE OF PAYMENTS (million US \$)

	1965	1966	1967	1968
<i>Goods and Services</i>				
Merchandise	-131	-113	-114	-60
Transport and Travel	-18	-4	-3	8
Investment income	-8	-11	-18	-22
Other services	-23	-2	-9	1
Total	-180	-130	-144	-75
<i>Transfer Payments</i>				
Private	1	2	7	10
Government	25	16	22	30
CURRENT BALANCE	-154	-112	-115	-35
<i>Capital and Monetary Gold</i>				
<i>Non Monetary Sector</i>				
Private institutions	75	59	31	10
Central institutions	77	40	76	39
Total	152	99	107	49
<i>Monetary Sector</i>				
Private institutions	-2	4	—	3
Central institutions	1	11	8	-16
Total	1	15	8	-13
CAPITAL BALANCE	153	114	115	36
Net Errors and Omissions	1	-2	—	-1

EXTERNAL TRADE (ooo dinars)

	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969
Imports	129 000	131 224	137 087	114 504	139 766
Exports	62 900	73 690	78 360	82 831	86 960

TUNISIA—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

PRINCIPAL COMMODITIES

('000 dinars)

IMPORTS	1967	1968	1969
Private Cars	867	1,345	1,433
Other Motor Vehicles, incl. Tractors	1,759	2,954	2,947
Petroleum Products	3,070	1,123	1,165
Wheat	12,335	6,682	13,704
Sugar	3,144	2,879	3,520
Dairy Products	2,144	2,524	3,177
Vegetable Oils, excl. Olive Oil	6,345	3,275	4,718
Paper	2,760	2,753	3,441
Tea	2,997	1,446	1,788
Timber and Products	4,100	2,427	2,550
Textiles, Thread, etc.	9,633	6,856	13,601
Clothing	3,052	3,387	n.a.

EXPORTS	1967	1968	1969
Olive Oil	7,958	11,866	9,964
Wine	5,294	3,575	3,475
Calcium Phosphates	12,468	12,225	9,233
Superphosphates	11,094	10,025	8,161
Wheat	39	—	39
Iron Ore	2,411	2,037	1,745
Lead and Products	1,413	1,604	2,226
Alfalfa	519	371	300
Preserved Vegetables	1,419	1,206	820
Sponges	397	369	399
Citrus Fruit	3,304	1,633	3,629
Almonds	1,087	1,664	656
Dates	594	600	990
Paper Pulp	1,830	1,695	1,856
Crude Petroleum	10,506	14,112	21,158
Refined Petroleum	1,065	2,200	1,165

PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES

('000 dinars)

IMPORTS	1966	1967	1968	1969
Algeria	915	461	261	756
France	45,149	43,518	38,033	46,196
German Federal Republic	7,740	10,493	9,979	10,512
Italy	10,698	8,507	11,144	12,489
Netherlands	3,245	2,642	1,736	2,522
United Kingdom	3,868	2,360	4,098	4,105
U.S.S.R.	5,108	4,422	1,951	2,577
U.S.A.	21,524	34,783	23,352	28,208
Yugoslavia	2,761	2,479	2,417	2,538
India	2,360	2,765	1,258	1,558
Czechoslovakia	1,597	1,285	910	1,389
Poland	1,377	2,406	3,022	2,698
Brazil	2,390	2,639	2,434	952

TUNISIA—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES—continued]

EXPORTS	1966	1967	1968	1969
Algeria	1,357	657	1,660	2,236
France	25,493	21,982	19,167	23,173
German Federal Republic	5,100	7,519	9,074	12,088
Italy	9,498	10,478	8,857	11,745
Sweden	n a	294	711	1,158
United Kingdom	3,237	2,535	3,010	2,736
U S S R.	2,585	2,575	2,558	2,525
U S A	1,003	2,187	1,437	822
People's Republic of China	420	285	407	—
Yugoslavia	2,664	2,672	1,928	2,693
India	1,545	361	340	27
Libya	3,622	4,689	6,454	6,362
Czechoslovakia	1,025	1,178	2,119	499
Poland	1,694	1,923	4,211	2,360

TRANSPORT ROADS

VEHICLES LICENSED	1967	1968	1969
Private Cars	56,702	60,596	62,256
Buses	1,482	33,954	34,861
Trucks	30,864		
Commercial Vehicles	10,008	10,131	9,799
Motor Cycles			

SHIPPING

	1966	1967	1968	1969
Vessels Entered* ('000 net reg tons)	6,391	12,102	12,379	13,547
Passengers (number)	n a	101,200	163,700	229,100
Goods Loaded ('000 metric tons)	5,384	4,766	5,247	4,653
Goods Unloaded (" " ")	2,694	3,020	2,931	3,417

* Including vessels leaving

CIVIL AVIATION

	1967	1968	1969
Passenger ('000)	468.7	612.6	695.5
Freight (metric tons)	3,535	3,881	4,294
Mail (metric tons)	568	616	757

TUNISIA—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

TOURISM PRINCIPAL NATIONALITIES OF VISITORS (^{'000})

	1966	1967	1968	1969
Federal Germany	38.9	45.2	71.7	66.5
France	52.9	54.9	66.6	93.5
United Kingdom	21.4	26.0	48.2	60.8
Italy	23.5	26.6	34.9	50.3
Libya	14.7	22.3	31.7	31.0
Sweden	4.9	8.5	22.6	23.9
Switzerland	19.9	18.8	22.6	27.1
Algeria	28.4	12.1	14.4	7.5
U.S.A.	9.2	9.5	11.8	16.9
Morocco	5.3	5.8	9.7	11.6
TOTAL (incl. others)	249.4	263.4	384.3	455.3

Tourists: Total number in 1970 was 410,800.

Tourist Accommodation: 6,800 beds in officially classified hotels (total capacity in 1969: 31,681 beds including hostels and holiday villages).

Tourist Spending: (1966) 13m. dinars, (1967) 16m. dinars, (1968) 22m. dinars.

EDUCATION

TYPE	NUMBER OF INSTITUTIONS	NUMBER OF PUPILS		NUMBER OF TEACHERS	
		1968-69	1969-70	1968-69	1969-70
Primary	2,131	859,927	912,646	16,194	18,000
Secondary	88	135,947	163,353	3,818	} 6,931
Secondary Technical	80	n.a.	n.a.	2,141	
Teacher Training	5	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	} 539
University of Tunis	1	7,668	9,413	304	
Students Abroad	—	2,816	n.a.	—	—

The ratio of boys to girls is approx. 2 : 1 in primary schools, 3 : 1 in secondary schools and 4 : 1 at the University.

THE CONSTITUTION

TUNISIA which had been a French Protectorate since 1881 was given full internal autonomy in September 1955 and finally recognized as a fully independent sovereign State by the Protocol of Paris of March 20th, 1956 by which France abrogated the former treaties and conventions

NATIONAL ASSEMBLY

The Constitution was proclaimed by the Constituent Assembly on June 1st 1959. Tunisia is a free independent and sovereign republic. Legislative power is exercised by the National Assembly which is elected (at the same time as the President) every five years by direct universal suffrage. Every citizen who has had Tunisian nationality for at least five years and who has attained twenty years of age has the vote. The National Assembly shall hold two sessions every year, each session lasting not more than three months. Additional meetings may be held at the demand of the President or of a majority of the deputies.

Note: A *Republican Council*, consisting of leading members of the Government and of the Destour Socialist Party, was established in March 1966 to advise the President and to designate an interim President in the event of a vacancy in the Presidency.

HEAD OF STATE

The President of the Republic is both Head of State and Head of the Executive. He must be not less than forty years of age and is not permitted to serve more than three terms consecutively. The President of the Republic is also the Commander in Chief of the army and makes both civil and military appointments.

COUNCIL OF STATE

Comprises two judicial bodies: (1) an administrative body dealing with legal disputes between individuals and State or public bodies, (2) an audit office to verify the accounts of the State and submit reports.

ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COUNCIL

Deals with economic and social planning and studies projects submitted by the National Assembly. Members are grouped in seven categories representing various sections of the community.

THE GOVERNMENT

HEAD OF STATE

President of the Republic: HABIB BOURGUIBA (*re-elected for a third five-year term on November 2nd 1969*)

THE CABINET

(*August 1971*)

Prime Minister: HADI NOUIRA
Minister of the Economy: TIJANI SHALLI
Minister of Foreign Affairs: MOHAMMED MASHOUDI
Minister of Justice: MOHAMMED FITOURI
Minister of the Interior: AHMED MESTIRI
Minister of Defence: HASSEN BEN AHMAR
Minister of Finance: ABDERRAZAK RASSAA
Minister of Agriculture: ABDALLAH FARHAT
Minister of Education: CHEDLY AYARI
Minister of Cultural Affairs and Information: HABIB BOULARES

Minister of Health: DRISS GUIGA
Minister for Planning: MANSOUR MOALLA
Minister of Youth and Sport: TAHAR BELKHOJA
Secretary-General of the Government: BAKKAR TOUZANI
Secretary of State for Social Affairs: SADOR BEN JEMAA
Secretary of State for the Economy: MAKRI ZAYDI
Secretary of State for Education: FARAJ JABBAR
Secretary of State for Posts, Telegraphs and Telecommunications: HABIB EIN SHAIEH
Secretaries of State for Agriculture: MOHAMMED GHEDIRA and MUSTAFA ZAARUNI

DIPLOMATIC REPRESENTATION

REPRESENTATIVES OF TUNISIA ABROAD

(A) Ambassador, (CA) Chargé d'Affaires, (Perm. Rep.) Permanent Representative

Algeria: HABIB CHATTI, Algiers (A)
Austria: (*see* Switzerland)
Belgium: NAJIB ABU ZIRI, Brussels (A) (also Perm. Rep. to EEC)
Bulgaria: (*see* Yugoslavia)
Cameroon: MOHAMMED RIDHA BACH BAOUAB
Canada: ABDELAZIZ HAMZAOUTI, Ottawa (A)
Chad: (*see* Congo (Kinshasa))
Congo, Democratic Republic: ABDELHAMID AMMAR, Kinshasa (A) (also accredited to Chad)
Czechoslovakia: ABDUL JALIL M. HIRI, Prague (A)
Denmark: (*see* Sweden)
Dahomey: (*see* Ivory Coast)
Ethiopia: TAWFIQ SMIDA, Addis Ababa (A)
France: BAJI QAID SIBSI, Paris (A)
German Federal Republic: MAHMOUD MESTIRI, Bad Godesberg (A)
Greece: AHMED NOURREDINE, Athens (A)
Guinea: (*see* Senegal)
Hungary: (*see* Yugoslavia)

TUNISIA—(DIPLOMATIC REPRESENTATION)

Iran: (see Turkey).
Italy: HASSIB BEN AMMAR, Rome (A).
Ivory Coast: (vacant), Abidjan (A) (also accred. to Dahomey, Niger and Togo).
Jordan: CHEDLI ZOUKAR, Amman (CA).
Kuwait: MAHMOUD CHARCOUR, Kuwait (A).
Lebanon: SLAHEDDIN ABDALLA, Beirut (A).
Libya: AMOR FEZZANI, Tripoli (A).
Mauritania: (see Senegal).
Mexico: (see U.S.A.).
Morocco: TAYIB SLIM, Rabat (A).
Netherlands: BRAHIM TURKI, The Hague (A).
Niger: (see Ivory Coast).
Norway: (see Sweden).
Poland: (see U.S.S.R.).
Romania: (see Yugoslavia).
Saudi Arabia: MOUSSA ROUISSI, Jeddah (A).
Senegal: ALI HEDDA, Dakar (A) (also accred. to Guinea, Cameroon, Mali, Mauritania, Liberia, Sierra Leone and Gambia).

Spain: MONGI KOOLI, Madrid (A).
Sweden: MAHMOUD MAAMOURI, Stockholm (A) (also accred. to Denmark, Finland and Norway).
Switzerland: ABDUL MALIK BERGAWI, Berne (A) (also accred. to Austria).
Syria: (to be announced);
Togo: (see Ivory Coast).
Turkey: SLIM BENGHAZI, Ankara (A) (also accred. to Iran).
United Arab Republic: MUHAMMAD BIN FADHL, Cairo (A).
United Kingdom: ISMAIL KHÉLIL, London (A).
U.S.A.: SLAHEDDINE EL GOULLI, Washington (A) (also accred. to Mexico).
U.S.S.R.: MUHAMMAD ESSAFI, Moscow (A) (also accred. to Poland).
Yugoslavia: ABDUL MAJID SHAKIR, Belgrade (A) (also accred. to Bulgaria, Hungary and Romania).

United Nations: RACHID DRISS, New York (Perm. Rep.) (also accred. to Canada).

EMBASSIES ACCREDITED TO TUNISIA

(Tunis unless otherwise indicated)

Algeria: 18 rue Parmentier; *Ambassador:* TIJANI HADDAM.
Argentina: Rabat, Morocco.
Austria: 17 ave. de France.
Belgium: 47 rue du 1er Juin; *Ambassador:* FELIX STANDAERT.
Brazil: ave. de Lesseps, Belvédère; *Ambassador:* ADOLPHO JUSTO BEZERRA DE MENEZES.
Bulgaria: 137 ave. de la Liberté; *Ambassador:* DIBMO KARBINOV.
Cameroon: 3 ave. de Lesseps, Belvédère.
Canada: Notre Dame de Tunis, Cité al Mahdi; *Ambassador:* M. FORTIER.
Chile: 10 blvd. Beausite.
Congo, Democratic Republic: 5 rue du Niger; *Chargé d'Affaires:* M. BAVASSA.
Czechoslovakia: 98 rue Courbet; *Ambassador:* JEAN LEDL.
Finland: 23 rue Baudelaire, El Omrane; *Ambassador:* OLAVI SAIKU.
France: pl. de l'Indépendance; *Ambassador:* GEORGES GAUCHER.
German Federal Republic: 18 rue Félicien Challaye; *Ambassador:* GERHARD MOLTMANN.
Ghana: 103 ave de la Liberté.
Greece: 78 ave. Mohamed V.
Guinea: Algiers, Algeria.
Hungary: Algiers, Algeria.
India: 13 rue Dr. Burnet.
Indonesia: 27 rue Broca.
Iran: rue Dr. Burnet, Belvédère; *Ambassador:* MORTEZA GHADIMI.
Iraq: 125 ave. de la Liberté.
Italy: 102 ave. de la Liberté; *Ambassador:* LUCIANO FAVRETTI.

Ivory Coast: 1 pl. Pasteur; *Ambassador:* LOUIS KOUASSI KOUADIO.
Japan: 16 rue Jugurtha.
Jordan: 24 ave. de France; *Ambassador:* MEDHET JOMAA.
Kuwait: rue Jacques Cartier, Belvédère; *Ambassador:* SAUD ABDUL HAMIDHI.
Lebanon: 18 ave. Charles Nicolle; *Ambassador:* ALBERT NASSIF.
Libya: 74 ave. Mohamed V; *Ambassador:* SALEM BEN LAMIN.
Mali: Paris.
Mauritania: 85 rue Courbet; *Ambassador:* EL HADJ OUMAR.
Mexico: Rome, Italy.
Morocco: 39 rue du 1er Juin; *Ambassador:* THAMI OUAZZANI.
Netherlands: 2 rue d'Artois
Norway: Rabat, Morocco.
Pakistan: 80 ave. de Lesseps; *Ambassador:* ERFAN AHMED.
Peru: *Ambassador:* ADHEMAR MONTAGNE.
Poland: 78 ave. de Lesseps.
Romania: (address not available); *Ambassador:* PETRE BĂLĂCEANU.
Saudi Arabia: 16 rue de l'Autriche; *Ambassador:* ABDELRAHMAN EL BASSAM.
Senegal: 122 ave. de la Liberté; *Ambassador:* ASSANE DIOUF.
Spain: 14 ave. des Etats-Unis d'Amérique; *Ambassador:* ALFONSO DE LA SERNA.
Sudan: Cairo, U.A.R.
Sweden: 17 ave. de France; *Ambassador:* LARS HEDSTROM.
Switzerland: 17 ave. de France.

TUNISIA—(DIPLOMATIC REPRESENTATION, NATIONAL ASSEMBLY, POLITICAL PARTIES, ETC)

Syria (to be announced)

Turkey 47 ave Mohamed V *Ambassador* ADNAN BULAK

USSR 31 rue du 1er Juin *Ambassador* S AFANASSIEV

United Arab Republic 1 rue Dr Calmette *Ambassador* MAHMOUD TOUHAMI

Tunis also has diplomatic relations with Afghanistan Chad Denmark Korea Kenya Monaco Nigeria Panama Somalia Syria Uganda Upper Volta and Venezuela

United Kingdom 5 pl dela Victoire *Ambassador* A R K MACKENZIE

USA 186 ave de Paris *Ambassador* J CALHOUN

Viet Nam Republic 26 rue du Dr Burnet Belvédère

Yugoslavia 4 rue Magenta

NATIONAL ASSEMBLY

President SADOK MOKADDEM

First Vice President FERDJANI BELHADJ AMMAR

ELECTION NOVEMBER 1969

All 101 seats were won by the Destour Socialist Party. There was no opposition candidates but some seats were contested by more than one member of the governing party.

POLITICAL PARTIES

Destour Socialist Party 10 rue de Rome Tunis f 1934 by Habib Bourguiba as a splinter party from the old Destour ('Constitution') Party moderate left wing republican party which achieved Tunisian independence Pres HABIB BOURGUIBA Dr MOHAMMED BEN AMARA.

JUDICIAL SYSTEM

Cour de Cassation Tunis has three civil and one criminal sections

There are three Courts of Appeal at Tunis Sousse and Sfax and thirteen courts of First Instance each having three chambers except the Court of First Instance of Tunis which has eight chambers.

Cantonal Justices have been set up in 48 areas

RELIGION

The Constitution of 1956 recognises Islam as the State religion with the introduction of certain reforms such as the abolition of polygamy. Minority religions are Jews (20 000) Roman Catholics (20 000) Greek Orthodox and a number of French and English Protestants

TUNIS

Grand Mufti of Tunisia Sheikh MOHAMMED HEDI BEL-CADHI

Roman Catholic Archbishop of Tunis Mgr MICHEL CALLENS

THE PRESS

DAILIES

TUNIS

L'Action 10 rue de Rome organ of the Destour Socialist Party French Chief Editor MONCEP JAAYAR circ 15 000

al Amal (Action) 10 rue de Rome f 1934 organ of the Destour Socialist Party Arabic Chief Editor SLAHED-DINE BEN HAMIDA circ 20 000

Dar Assabah Société Tunisienne de Presse 37 rue de Marseille f 1951 circ 30 000

Journal Officiel Tunisien 42 rue du 18 Janvier 1952 the official gazette f 1860 French and Arab editions published twice weekly by the Imprimerie Officielle (The State Press)

La Presse de Tunisie 6 rue Ali Bach Hamba f 1946 French Dr ABDELHAKIM BELKHIRIA Chief Editor NOUREDDINE TABKA circ 30 000

PERIODICALS

TUNIS

ach Chaab Trade union publication Arabic fortnightly

ach Chabab 10 rue de Rome publ of the Union of Tunisian youth Arabic language monthly

Bulletin Annuel Service des statistiques du Secrétariat d'Etat au plan et aux finances Tunis

Bulletin de la Chambre de Commerce de Tunis 1 avenue Habib Thameur Palais Consulaire monthly

Bulletin Bimestriel Conjoncture and Bulletin Trimestriel Banque centrale de Tunisie 7 place de la Monnaie Tunis economic and financial surveys

il Corriere di Tunisi 4 rue de Russie Italian weekly

Etudiant Tunisien BP 286 13 rue Essadika f 1953 French

al Fikr (Thought) BP 356 13 rue Dar Djed f 1955 cultural review Arabic monthly Dir MOHAMED MOZAR Chief Editor BECHIR BEN SLAMA

tbla 12 rue Djemaa el Haoua f 1937 social and cultural review on Maghreb and Muslim Arab affairs French and Arabic twice yearly Dir A DEMERSEMAN

al Idhwa wa Taivaza (Radio and Television) 71 ave de la Liberté broadcasting magazine Arabic language fortnightly Editor ABDELMAJID ENNAIFAR circ 15 000

al Jaich National Defence publication Arabic language

al Maraa (The Woman) 56 boulevard Farhat Hached f 1961 issued by the National Union of Tunisian Women Arabic political economic and social affairs monthly circ. 10 000

Le Sport 9 ave de la Liberté French language weekly circ 20 000

TUNISIA—(THE PRESS, PUBLISHERS, RADIO AND TELEVISION, FINANCE)

Tunisie Actualités: Centre de Documentation Nationale, 2 rue d'Alger, Tunis; f. 1966; quarterly; French; official journal.

La Tunisie Economique: 32 rue Charles-de-Gaulle; French; monthly; published by the Union Tunisienne de l'Industrie, du Commerce et de l'Artisanat; circ. 2,000.

SPAX

Bulletin Economique de la Chambre de Commerce du Sud: 15 rue Habib Thameur; f. 1949; monthly.

SOUSSE

Bulletin de la Chambre de Commerce du Centre: bi-monthly in French and Arabic.

NEWS AGENCY

Tunis Afrique Presse (TAP): Tunis; Dir. HAMED ZGHAL; operates a news exchange service with the Libyan Press Agency.

FOREIGN BUREAUX

Agence France Presse: 45 ave. Habib Bourguiba, Tunis; Chief JEAN BOULET.

ANSA: Hotel Tunisia Palace, ave. de Carthage, Tunis; Chief MUHAMMAD TAYACH.

Novosti: APN office, 108 ave. de la Liberté, Tunis; Chief O. BOGUSHEVICH.

DPA, Reuters and Tass also have bureaux in Tunis.

PUBLISHERS

Abela et Cie.: 15 ave. de France, Tunis.

Dar Assabah (Société Tunisienne de Presse, d'Édition et d'Impression): 37 rue de Marseille, Tunis; f. 1951; 48 mems.; publishes daily papers which circulate throughout Tunisia, North Africa and France.

Hedi Abdelghani: ave. de France, Tunis.

Service des statistiques du Secrétariat d'État au plan et à l'économie nationale: Tunis; publishes a variety of annuals, periodicals and papers concerned with the economic policy and development of Tunisia.

Société Anonyme de Papeterie et Imprimerie: 12 rue de Vesoul, Tunis.

Société Nationale d'Édition et de Diffusion: 10 rue de Russie, Tunis.

RADIO AND TELEVISION

RADIO

Radiodiffusion Télévision Tunisienne: 71 ave. de la Liberté, Tunis; government station; broadcasts in French, Arabic, English, German and Italian; Dir.-Gen. MUHAMMAD BIN ISMAIL.

Number of radio receivers (1969): 374,000.

TELEVISION

Television was introduced in northern and central Tunisia in January 1966, and by early 1969 transmission reached all the country except the extreme south. A relay station to link up with European transmissions was built at Ain Draïman in 1967.

Number of television receivers (1969): 50,267.

FINANCE

(cap. = capital, p.u. = paid up, dep. = deposits, m. = million)

BANKING

CENTRAL BANK

Banque Centrale de Tunisie: 7 Place de la Monnaie, Tunis; f. 1958; cap. 1.2m. dinars, dep. 54.8m. dinars; Gov. ALI ZOUAOU; Dir. MOHAMMED BOUSBIA.

Banque de Tunisie: 3 avenue de France, Tunis; f. 1884; cap. 1m. dinars, dep. 23.4m. dinars (Dec. 1970); Hon. PRES. CH. DANGELZER; Pres. and Dir.-Gen. BOUBAKER MABROUK.

Banque Franco-Tunisienne: 13 rue d'Alger, Tunis.

Bank Nationale de Tunisie: 19 ave. de Paris, Tunis; f. 1959; cap. p.u. 1.6m. dinars, dep. (1969) 23.997m. dinars; Pres. Dir.-Gen. MOHAMED GHENIMA; Asst. Dir.-Gen. TAHAR FARAH; 24 brs.; publ. *Report* (annual).

Banque du Peuple: Tunis; f. 1965 by the Union Générale Tunisienne de Travail; cap. 270,000 dinars.

Caisse d'Épargne National: Place Pasteur, Tunis.

Compte Chèques Postaux: rue Es-Sadikia, Tunis.

Société Nationale d'Investissement: 68 ave. Habib Bourguiba, Tunis; f. 1959; development bank, now the main source of long term and equity finance for industrial and tourist enterprises; received \$10m. loan from World Bank in 1967; cap. 14m. dinars.

Société Tunisienne de Banque: 1 avenue Habib Thameur, Tunis; f. 1958; cap. p.u. 3m. dinars (Jan. 1969); Chair. ABDELAZIZ MATHARI.

Union Bancaire pour le Commerce et l'Industrie: 7-9 rue Es-Sadikia, Tunis; f. 1961; cap. p.u. 1.65m. dinars, dep. 14.7m. dinars; incorporates Banque d'Escompte et de Crédit à l'Industrie en Tunisie; Pres. and Dir.-Gen. MOHAMED BADRA; publ. *Report* (annual).

Union Internationale de Banque: 65 ave. Habib Bourguiba, Tunis; f. 1967 as a merging of Tunisian interests by the Société Franco Tunisienne de Banque et de Crédit Lyonnais and other foreign banks.

FOREIGN BANKS

Arab Bank Ltd., Tunis Branch: Amman, Jordan; 21 rue Al-Djazira, Tunis.

British Bank of the Middle East: London; 70 avenue Habib Bourguiba, Tunis.

Crédit Foncier et Commercial de Tunisie: 13 ave. de France, Tunis.

Société Marseillaise de Crédit: Marseilles; 12 avenue de France, Tunis.

A national Stock Exchange was opened during 1967.

INSURANCE

Astrée, Compagnie Franco-Tunisienne d'Assurances Tous Risques et de Réassurances, S.A.: 43-45 ave. Habib Bourguiba, Tunis; f. 1950; Pres. MOHAMMED BADRA; Dir.-Gen. MOHAMMED HACHICH.

Caisse Tunisienne d'Assurances Mutuelles Agricoles: 6 ave. Habib Thameur, Tunis; f. 1912; Pres. MOKTAR BELLAGHA, Dir. SLAHEDDINE FERCHIOU.

Lloyd Tunisien: 7 ave. de Carthage, Tunis; f. 1945; Pres. A. MEHIRI; fire, accident, liability, marine, life.

TUNISIA—(FINANCE TRADE AND INDUSTRY TRANSPORT TOURISM)

Société Tunisienne d'Assurances et de Réassurances
ave. de Paris Tunis f 1958 Pres/Dir Gen ABDEL
HAFFID ZAANOUN all kinds of insurance

FOREIGN COMPANIES

About thirty of the major French and British insurance companies are represented in Tunisia

TRADE AND INDUSTRY

CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE

Tunis

Chambre de Commerce de Tunis Palais Consulaire 1 ave
Habib Thameur Tunis f 1925 25 mems Pres
MAHMOUD ZERZENI publ *Bulletin* (monthly)

Sousse

Chambre de Commerce du Centre rue Chadly Khaznadar
Sousse Pres HADI BOUSLAMA Sec Gen MOHAMED
BEN CHERIFA publ *Bulletin Economique* (bi monthly
in French and Arabic)

Stax

Chambre de Commerce du Sud 15 rue Habib Thameur
f 1895 8 mems publ *Bulletin Economique*

Bizertia

Chambre de Commerce du Nord 12 rue Ibn Khaldoun
Bizerte f 1903 8 mems Pres MOHAMED TERRAS
Sec Gen Mme RACHIDA SPAXI publ *Bulletin Econo-
mique*

ECONOMIC ORGANIZATION

**Union Tunisienne de l'Industrie, du Commerce et de
l'Artisanat (UTICA)** 32 rue Charles-de-Gaulle
Tunis f 1946 by FERDJANI BEN HADJ AMMAR mems
about 50 000 in 13 regional unions and federations
(Industry Commerce Handicrafts) Pres FERDJANI
BEN HADJ AMMAR Sec Gen AZZEDINE BEN ACHOUR
publs *La Tunisie Economique* (monthly) *Economic
Yearbook* (annual)

TRADE UNIONS

Union Générale Tunisienne du Travail (UGTT) 29
place M Hamed Ali Tunis f 1946 by FARHAT HACHED
affiliated to ICFU mems 150 000 in 23 affiliated
unions Sec Gen HABIB ACHOUR

Union Générale des Etudiants de Tunisie (UGET) 11
rue d'Espagne Tunis f 1953 600 mems Sec Gen
MOHAMED BEN AHMED publ *L'Etudiant Tunisien*

Union Nationale des Femmes de Tunisie (UNFT) blvd
Farhat Hached f 1956 37 000 mems Pres Mme
RADHIA HADDAD Sec Gen Mme MONGIA MABROUK

CO-OPERATIVE ORGANIZATIONS

In June 1966 there were 216 production co-operatives
with 13 998 worker members Service co-operatives
totalled 261 groups with a membership of 86 641 The
co-operative movement was rapidly expanded in the
1955-68 period but it has encountered various problems
including much political unpopularity Thus expans on
has been slowed down during a period of consolidat on

TRADE FAIR

International Fair in Tunis Mohammed V St Tunis
May 21st June 6th 197

TRANSPORT

RAILWAYS

Société Nationale des Transports Tunis controls the
electrified line from Tunis to La Marsa (39 km)
operates over 100 local and long distance domestic bus
routes

Société Nationale des Chemins de Fer Tunisiens 67 blvd
Farhat Hached Tunis f 1957 State organization
controlling 1 998 km of railways acquired *Chemin de
Fer Gafsa* (a line specializing in the transport of phos-
phate) in Jan 1967 Pres ABDELHAKIM SLAMA publs
monthly and annual reports

In 1968 the total length of railways was 2 298 km

ROADS

In 1965 there were 15 565 km of roads A 535 km
motorway linking Tunisia and Libya is to be built

SHIPPING

Tunisia has 4 major ports Tunis-La Goulette Bizertia
Sousse and Stax There is a special petroleum port at La
Skhirra. A complex of three amalgamated ports with
separate facilities for general merchandise minerals and oil
is to be built by an Italian firm at Gabès it is due to be
completed in 1972

La Compagnie Tunisienne de Navigation P.O. Box 40 5
avenue Dag Hammarskjöld Tunis brs at Bizertia
La Skhirra Stax and Sousse

Plans for a new Maghreb Navigation Company a joint
venture by the four countries were announced in 1969
Tunisia will undertake its management

CIVIL AVIATION

A new international airport for Tunis was opened at
Skanes Monastir in April 1968 and can now provide
facilities for large jet aircraft Another airport at Djerba is
under construction and work on a third Tunis Carthage
began in September 1969 with the help of a loan from the
USA

Tunis Air (Société Tunisienne de l'Air) 48 ave Habib
Bourguiba Tunis services to Algiers Amsterdam
Marseille Nice Paris Rome Geneva Tripoli
Casablanca Djerba Zürich Brussels and Frankfurt
Dir Gen/Pres MOHAMED KRAIEM

**Société Tunisienne de Réparations Aéronautiques et de
Constructions** Aérodrôme de Tunis Carthage Tunis
f 1952 internal charter flights for oil companies

FOREIGN AIRLINES

Aeroflot Air Algérie Air France Alitalia British United
Interflug K.L.M. Lufthansa Royal Air Maroc Sabena
Swissair Tabso (Bulgaria) TWA UAA and UTA
also serve Tunis

TOURISM

Office National du Tourisme et du Thermalisme ave
Mohammed V Tunis Dir Gen RUDHA AZZABI publ
Tunisie Flash

Direction de l'Information 2 rue d'Alger Tunis Dir
HAMED ZOHAL

Tunisian Hotel and Tourism Association 2 ave de France
Tunis Dir MONT LOUKIL publ *Voyages* 2 000

TUNISIA—(TOURISM, ATOMIC ENERGY, EDUCATION, ETC.)

CULTURAL ORGANIZATIONS

Ministry of Cultural Affairs: Tunis; departments organize all national cultural events; Sec. of State CHEDLI KLIBI.

International Cultural Centre of Tunis: Hammamet; f. 1962; has built an amphitheatre at Hammamet and maintains a summer drama school for actors and students; Dir. NACEUR CHLIOUI.

PRINCIPAL THEATRES

Théâtre Municipal de Tunis: Tunis; has performed twice at the *Théâtre des Nations* festival, Paris; subsidized by the state.

Hammamet Theatre: Hammamet; open air theatre built 1963; organized by International Cultural Centre of Tunis.

CULTURAL FESTIVALS

Carthage Festival: Ministry of Cultural Affairs, Tunis; international festival of arts; held every year at the site of the ancient city and in Tunis; next Festival Sept. 27th-Oct. 4th, 1970.

Maghreb Theatre Festival: Monastir; f. 1964; open to theatrical groups from Algeria, Libya, Morocco and Tunisia.

ATOMIC ENERGY

Commissariat à l'Energie Atomique: Secrétariat d'Etat au Plan et à l'Economie Nationale, Tunis; Commissaire-Général; BÉCHIR TORKI.

Institut de Physique Nucléaire: 1 ave. de France, Tunis; dept. of the University of Tunis; Dir. Prof. BÉCHIR TORKI.

EDUCATION

Tunisia is relatively well equipped from an educational point of view. Approximately 60 per cent of children of school age receive an education, and the proportion rises annually. In 1966-67 there were 770,049 children in primary grades, the great majority in state-run schools, private institutions accounting for only about 10,000 and French schools for another 9,000. At the intermediate level in the same year there were approximately 27,000 students in 66 colleges and professional schools. Of these, private establishments and French schools together accounted for 3,500 students. At the secondary level, a wide range of schools and lycées gave instruction to 71,000 pupils.

Arabic only is used in the first two years of primary school, but in the higher grades French becomes progressively more important and is used almost entirely in higher education. About 7,500 Tunisians receive some higher education in the country, and a further 2,000 go abroad for University courses. The University of Tunis was opened in 1961-62, and incorporates as its Faculty of Theology the ancient Es Zitouna University of Islamic studies. The University has five Faculties and a number of attached Institutes. A permanent *cité universitaire* is under construction on a site near the Belvedere Park in Tunis.

Under the Ministry of Education's Ten-Year Plan, 1959-68, it was intended that educational facilities shall be extended to all children by the completion of the Plan period. This required the provision of 930,000 primary places, 43,000 intermediate, 13,260 secondary and 5,030 higher places. In spite of an initial shortage of teachers and schools the Plan has apparently been very largely fulfilled.

Progress has also been made in other spheres of education: the number of students at the public health schools more than doubled between 1962 and 1965 and agricultural schools recorded over 4,000 pupils in 1965-66, twice as many as three years before. A very successful adult education campaign is also under way and in 1966-67 about 18,000 adults were attending literacy courses. In fact, almost one person in four in Tunisia is attending some sort of school.

LEARNED SOCIETIES AND RESEARCH INSTITUTES

British Council: c/o British Embassy, place de la Victoire, Tunis; library of 5,400 vols.; Rep. T. W. MORRAY, O.B.E.

Centre d'Etudes Humaines et Sociales: Tunis.

Deutsches Kulturinstitut: c/o German Embassy, 17 Ave. de France, Tunis; Dir. Dr. ULRICH MERKEL.

Institut National de Productivité: ave. Maréchal Foch, El Omrane, Tunis; f. 1967; offers advice on productivity and efficiency in conjunction with the National Economic Plan; Pres. Dir.-Gen. ABDELLATIF KHENAKHEM; Asst. Dir.-Gen. MHEDDEB RONISSI.

Istituto Italiano di Cultura: 35 ave. de la Liberté, Tunis; f. 1962; Dir. Prof. RAIMONDO PIZZUTO; library of 4,000 vols.

ARTS

Centre de Documentation Nationale: 2 rue d'Alger Tunis; f. 1966; Dir. MOHAMMED DABBAB; publ. *Documentation Tunisienne*.

Institut National d'Archéologie et d'Arts (formerly Direction des Antiquités et Arts): 4 place du Château, Tunis; library of 7,000 vols.: Prehistory, Punic, Roman, Christian and Islamic history, Architecture, Archaeology Dir. H. SEBAI; publs. *Notes et Documents, Cahiers des Arts et Traditions Populaires*.

The Institut comprises the following four departments:

Centre de la Recherche Archéologique et Historique: Dir. H. SLIM.

Services des Monuments Historiques: Dir. M. FENDRI.

Direction des Musées: Dir. M. YACOB.

Centre des Arts et Traditions Populaires: Dir. M. MASMOUDI.

Institut des Belles Lettres Arabes: 12 rue Djemaa el Haoua, Tunis; f. 1930; cultural centre; library of Tunisian studies (8,500 vols.); Dirs. Dr. A. LOUIS, Dr. M. LELONG; publs. *IBLA* (twice a year), various studies on Tunisian, Arab and Islamic studies.

Association Tunisienne de Documentalistes, Bibliothécaires et Archivistes: B.P. 575, Tunis; f. 1966; publ. *Quarterly Bulletin*.

SCIENCE

Centre d'Etudes Nucléaires: Tunis-Cathage; f. 1966; research in atomic and solar energy; library of 2,000 vols. Dir. Gen. Prof. BÉCHIR TORKI; publs. *Rapport Technique, Bulletin d'Information*.

Centre de Recherches pour l'Utilisation de l'Eau Salée en Irrigation: Route de Soukra, B.P. 10, Ariana; f. 1963; agronomy, irrigation, etc.

Institut Artoing: Tunis; veterinary research.

TUNISI (LEARNED SOCIETIES AND RESEARCH INSTITUTES LIBRARIES MUSEUMS ETC)

Institut des Sciences de l'Éducation 17 Rue Fenelon
Tunis f 1968 conducts research into methods of oral
French and Arabic the training of primary school
teachers teaching techniques Medico psycho-peda-
gogical Centre closed circuit TV Dr C. ELI LITOURI
publs *Revue pédagogique* documents

Institut National de Nutrition 120 Ave de la Liberté
Tunis f 1969 research in population nutrition
nutritional pathology food industry planning of food
production and the establishment of nutritional stan-
dards teaching of nutrition and food technology Dr
Dr Z. KALLAL

Institut National de la Recherche Agronomique de Tunisie
Anana f 1914 as the Service Botanique et Agrono-
mique de Tunisie e library of 9 000 vols. sc ent f c staff
of 40 Dir M. STA M. RAD publs *Annales de l'Institut*
National de la Recherche Agronomique de Tunisie and
miscellaneous reprints *Documents techniques*

Institut National de Recherches Vétérinaires Tunis centre
for veterinary research.

**Institut National Scientifique et Technique d'Océanographie
et de Pêche** Salammbô f 1924 zoological collections
library of 20 000 vols Dir Mme I. KRAMI publ.
Bulletin

Institut Pasteur 13 place Pasteur Tunis f 1906 library of
4 500 vols scientific staff of 10 Dir Dr AMOR CHADLI
publ. *Archives de l'Institut Pasteur de Tunisie* (quarterly)

**Office de la Recherche Scientifique et Technique Outre-Mer-
Mission ORSTOM** ave de la République Tunis Port f
1958 pedology hydrology demography library Dr
J. P. COINTEPAS

Service Géologique 95 ave Mohammed V Tunis f
1945 library of 9 000 vols Dr H. BAZZES

LIBRARIES

Archives du Dar el Bey Dar-el Bey Tunis nineteenth
century MSS in Arabic Turkish French Italian and
English

Archives Nationales Présidence de la République Place
du Gouvernement Tunis

Bibliothèque Nationale de Tunisie o Souk el Attarine
Tunis f 1883 359 000 vols in 12 languages 22 000
Arabic and oriental MSS Conservator REZGUI
MOHAMMED Librarians MAJOUH HASSINE LARGUECHIE
AMOR

Bibliothèque Centrale Tunis 150 000 vols 40 000 n
Arabic n 31 public libraries also 40 ch. ldr en al libraries
4 bookmobiles and 100 local and community libraries
Bibliothèque Publique Sd El Bah Tunis 2 branch
libraries 25 000 vols

There are also public libraries at Béja Bzerta Gabès
Gafsa Jendouba Kairouan L'asne Le f Medenine
Nabeul Sfax and Sousse several of these provide a
"bookmobile service"

MUSEUMS

Musée National du Bardo Le Bardo Tunis f 1888
contains prehistoric collections relics of Punic Greek
and Roman art and ancient and modern Islamic art
largest collection in the world of Roman mosaics
Dr YACOB MOHAMMED publs *Les Merveilles des
Musées de Tunisie* *Guide du Musée Archéologique de
Sfax* *Guide du Musée National du Bardo* and occa-
sional publications

Other Museums under the control of the *Direction des
Musées Nationaux*

Musée Archéologique de Sfax Sfax

Musée d'Art et de Tradition Populaire Sfax

Musée d'Art et de Tradition Populaire Mahdia

Musée d'Art et de Tradition Populaire Jerba

Musée d'Art Islamique du Ribat Monastir

Musée Archéologique de Sousse (Kasbah) Sousse

Musée d'Art Islamique du Ribat Sousse

Musée des Arts Islamiques (Dar Hussein) Place du
Château Tunis

Musée de Village de Moknine

Musée Archéologique Carthage

Musée Antiquarium Utique Punic and Roman

Musée Archéologique d'El Djem Thysdrus

Musée d'Art Islamique Kairouan

Musée d'Enfidaville

Musée Archéologique de Mactar Punic and Roman

Musée National à Carthage f 1964

Other Museums under the control of the *Musée National
à Carthage*

Parc des Thermes d'Antonin à Carthage f 1953

Musée Jardin du Thopet à Salammbô Salammbô
Carthage f 1953

Antiquarium de Carthage Villas Romains Carthage
f 1957

UNIVERSITY

UNIVERSITÉ DE TUNIS

94 BOULEVARD DU 9 AVRIL 1938 TUNIS

Telephone 260-858 260-932 260-950

Founded 1960

Pro-Rector AHMED ABDESSELEM

Number of teachers 304

Number of students 7 828

DEANS

Faculty of Mathematics Physics and Natural Sciences
ADNAN ZMERLI

Faculty of Letters and Human Sciences MOHAMMED TALBI
Faculty of Law and Political and Economic Sciences CHADLI
AYARI

Et Zito na Faculty of Theology and Religious Science
FADHEL BEN ACHOUR

Faculty of Medicine AMOR CHADLI

ATTACHED HIGHER SCHOOLS

Ecole Normale Supérieure to train secondary school
teachers Dir ABDELWAHAN BAKIR

Ecole Normale des Professeurs Adjoints Dir ABDELMAJID
EL AROUJ

Ecole Normale Supérieure d'Agriculture Dr HABIB
ZEGOUNDA

Ecole Supérieure de Droit Dr MOHAMED MALKI

ATTACHED SCHOOLS AND INSTITUTES

Institut des Hautes Etudes Commerciales 27 Rue de
Marseilles Tunis f 1942 20 teachers 100 students
Pres ALI ZOUAOU

TUNISIA—(UNIVERSITY, COLLEGES, BIBLIOGRAPHY)

Institut de Physique Nucléaire: 1 ave. de France, Tunis; f. 1962; staff of 10; library of 1,000 vols.; Dir. Prof. BÉCHIR TORKI.

Institut Nationale de Carcinologie: Bab-Saadoun, Tunis; f. 1969; Dir. Dr. Mouri.

Centre d'Études et de Recherches Economiques et Sociales.

Centre de Recherches sur les Problèmes de la Zone Aride.

Institut Bourguiba des Langues Vivantes: 47 ave. de la Liberté, Tunis; f. 1961; classes for adults in English. Arabic, French, German, Spanish; 4,860 students; Dir. ABDELKADER MEHIRI; library of 20,000 vols.

Institut Supérieur de Gestion des Entreprises: f. 1969; library of 1,400 vols.; Dir. Dr. A. KHEMAKHEM; Sec.-Gen. (Admin.) M. TAOFIK.

Ecole Supérieure de Droit.

Ecole Normale Supérieure.

Centre Didactique et Audio-Visuel.

COLLEGES

Centre de Hautes Études Théâtrales: International Cultural Centre, Hammamet; f. 1965; theatrical techniques, history and sociology of the theatre; Dir. CECIL HOURANI.

Centre d'Études Economiques: Tunis.

Conservatoire National de Musique de Danse: 20 ave. de Paris, Tunis.

Conservatoire Régional de Musique: Sfax, Tunisia.

Ecole Nationale d'Administration: 24 rue Docteur Calmette, Mutuelleville, Tunis; f. 1949; 800 students; library of 20,000 vols.; Dir. ABDESSELEM KNANI; publs. *Servir, Cahiers, Études et Documents, Manuels*.

Ecole des Beaux-Arts de Tunis: Route de l'Armée Nationale, Tunis; f. 1922; architecture (incorporates Ecole Nationale Supérieure d'Architecture) and fine arts; Dir. Madame SAFIA FARHAT; 250 students.

Institut Ali Bach Hamba: 2 rue de Champagne, Tunis; f. 1964; assists in the training of documentalists.

Institut National Agronomique de Tunisie: 43 ave. Charles Nicolle, Tunis; f. 1898; library of 8,000 vols.; Dir. B. JAMOSSI; Librarian MOHAMED BEN MOUSSA; publ. *Bulletin*.

Institut de Recherche Scientifique et Technique: Tunis Carthage; f. 1969.

Khalidounia Centre of Modern Languages: 65 Souk al Attarine, Tunis; re-opened 1959; studies include Russian, Turkish, Arabic and commercial subjects; Dir. AHMED BELKHODJA, B.A.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

ANTHONY, JOHN. About Tunisia (London, 1961).

ARDANT, GAVRIEL. La Tunisie d'Aujourd'hui et Demain (Paris, 1961).

ASHFORD, DOUGLAS E. Morocco-Tunisia: Politics and Planning (Syracuse University Press, 1965).

BASSET, ANDRÉ. Initiation à la Tunisie (Paris, 1950).

BOURGUIBA, HABIB. La Tunisie et la France (Paris, 1954). Hadith al-Jamaa (*Collected Broadcasts*) (Tunis, 1957).

BRUNDSCHVIG, ROBERT. La Tunisie au haut Moyen Age (Cairo, 1948).

CAMBON, HENRI. Histoire de la régence de Tunisie (Paris, 1948).

DE MONTETY, HENRI. Femmes de Tunisie (Paris, 1958).

DESPOIS, JEAN. La Tunisie, ses Régions (Paris, 1959).

DUVIGNAUD, JEAN. Tunisie (Editions Rencontre, Lausanne, 1965).

DUWADI, GHAZI. Economic Development in Tunisia (Praeger, New York, 1967).

GARAS, FELIX. Bourguiba et la Naissance d'une Nation (Paris, 1956).

GERMANN, RAIMUND E. Verwaltung und Einheitspartei in Tunesien (Europa Verlag, Zürich, 1968).

GUEN, MONCEF. La Tunisie indépendante face à son économie (Paris, 1961).

LAITMAN, LEON. Tunisia Today: Crisis in North Africa (New York, 1954).

LING, DWIGHT D. Tunisia, from Protectorate to Republic (Indiana University Press, 1967).

MENSCHING, HORST. Tunesien eine geographische Landeskunde (Darmstadt, 1968).

MICAUD, C. A. Tunisia, the Politics of Moderation (New York, 1964).

MOORE, C. H. Tunisia since Independence (University of California Press, Berkeley, 1965).

PERROUX, F. and BARRE, R., Editors. Développement, croissance, progrès: Maroc-Tunisie (Paris, 1961).

RAYMOND, ANDRÉ. La Tunisie (Series *Que sais-je*, No. 318) (Paris, 1961).

ROMERIL, PAUL E. A. Tunisian nationalism: a bibliographical outline (*Middle East Journal* 1960, pages 206-215).

RUDEBECK, LARS. Party and People: A Study of Political Change in Tunisia (C. Hurst, London, 1969).

RUF, WERNER KLAUS. Der Burgismus und die Aussenpolitik der unabhängigen Tunesien (Freiburg, 1969).

SYLVESTER, ANTHONY. Tunisia (Bodley Head, London, 1969).

TLATLI, SALAH-EDDINE. Tunisie nouvelle (Tunis, 1957).

TUNISIA—SECRÉTARIAT D'ÉTAT À L'INFORMATION. Tunisia Works (La Tunisie au travail) (Tunis, 1960).

TUNISIA—SECRÉTAIRIAT D'ÉTAT AU PLAN ET À L'ECONOMIE NATIONALE. Plan Quadriennal 1965-68 (3 vols.) (Tunis, 1965). Perspectives Décennales de Développement 1962-71 (Tunis, 1962).

UNION TUNISIENNE DE L'INDUSTRIE ET DU COMMERCE. Annuaire économique de la Tunisie 1966/67 (Tunis, 1967).

ZIADEH, NICOLA A. The Origins of Tunisian Nationalism (Beirut, 1962).

Turkey

PHYSICAL AND SOCIAL GEOGRAPHY

Turkey is in a remarkable sense a passage land between Europe and Asia. Nearly one half of her 1,630 miles of land frontier is with European States—Greece, Bulgaria, and Soviet Russia, and the remainder with Iran, Iraq, and Syria. The richest and most densely populated west of Turkey looks towards the Aegean and Mediterranean Seas and is very conscious of its links with Europe whilst in culture racial origins and ways of life there are frequent reminders of Turkey's geographical situation primarily as a part of Asia.

Turkey consists essentially of the large peninsula of Asia Minor, which has strongly defined natural limits sea on three sides (the Black Sea in the north, the Aegean in the west and the Mediterranean on the south) and high mountain ranges on the fourth (eastern) side. The small region of European Turkey, containing the cities of Istanbul (Constantinople) and Edirne (Adrianople) is on the other hand defined by a purely artificial frontier, the exact position of which has varied considerably over the last century, according to the fluctuating fortunes and prestige of Turkey herself. Another small territory, the Hatay, centred on Iskenderun (Alexandretta) and lying as an enclave in Syrian territory, was acquired as a diplomatic bargain in 1939.

PHYSICAL FEATURES

The geological structure of Turkey is extremely complicated and rocks of almost all ages occur, from the most ancient to most recent. Broadly speaking, we may say that Turkey consists of a number of old plateau blocks, against which masses of younger rock series have been squeezed to form fold mountain ranges of varying size. As there were several of these plateau blocks, and not just one, the fold mountains run in many different directions, with considerable irregularity, and hence no simple pattern can be discerned—instead, one mountain range gives place to another abruptly, and we can pass suddenly from highland to plain or plateau.

In general outline Turkey consists of a ring of mountains enclosing a series of inland plateaus with the highest mountains on the east close to the USSR and Iran. Mount Ararat, overlooking the Soviet frontier, is the highest peak in Turkey, reaching 16,915 feet, and there are neighbouring peaks almost as large. In the west the average altitude of the hills is distinctly lower, though the highest peak (Mount Erziyas or Argaeus) is over 13,000 ft. The irregular topography of Turkey has given rise to many lakes, some salt and some fresh and generally more numerous than elsewhere in the Middle East. The largest, Lake Van, covers nearly 4,000 sq. kilometres (1,500 sq. miles).

Two other features may be mentioned. Large areas of the east, and some parts of the centre of Asia Minor have been covered in sheets of lava which are often of such recent occurrence that soil has not yet been formed—consequently wide expanses are sterile and uninhabited. Secondly, in the north and west cracking and disturbance of the rocks has taken place on an enormous scale. The long indented coast of the Aegean Sea, with its numerous oddly shaped islands and estuaries, is due to cracking in two directions which

has split the land into detached blocks of roughly rectangular shape. Often the lower parts have sunk and been drowned by the sea. The Bosphorus and Dardanelles owe their origin to this faulting action, and the whole of the Black Sea coast is due to subsidence along a great series of fissures. Movement and adjustment along these cracks has by no means ceased, so that at the present day earthquakes are frequent in the north and west of Turkey, occasioning at times severe loss of life—most recently in the disaster of March 1970.

Because of the presence of mountain ranges close to the coast, and the great height of the interior plateaus (varying from 2,500 ft. to 7,000 ft.) Turkey has special climatic conditions characterised by great extremes of temperature and rainfall with wide variation from one district to another. In winter conditions are severe in most areas, except for those lying close to sea level. Temperatures of minus 20° to minus 40° F. can occur in the east, and snow lies there for as many as 120 days each year. The west has frost on most nights of December and January, and (again apart from the coastal zone), has an average winter temperature below that of the British Isles. In summer, however, temperatures over most of Turkey exceed 85° or 90° F., with 110° F. in the south east. There can hence be enormous seasonal variation of temperature—sometimes over 100° F., probably the widest in the world.

Rainfall too is remarkably variable. Along the eastern Black Sea coast, towards the Soviet frontier, over 70 inches fall annually (as much as in the wettest parts of the English Lake District, or the Western Isles of Scotland), but elsewhere, amounts are very much smaller. Parts of the central plateau, being shut off by mountains from the influence of sea winds, are arid, with annual totals of under 10 inches and expanses of salt steppe and desert are frequent. Like Iran, Turkey also has a 'dead heart', and the main towns of Anatolia, including Ankara, the capital, are placed away from the centre and close to hills, where rainfall tends to be greater.

It is necessary to emphasise the contrast that exists between the Aegean coastlands, which climatically are by far the most favoured regions of Turkey, and the rest of the country. Round the Aegean, winters are mild and fairly rainy, and the summers hot, but tempered by a persistent northerly wind, the Meltemi or Etesian wind which is of great value in ripening fruit, especially figs and sultana grapes.

ECONOMIC LIFE

The variety of geographical conditions within Turkey has led to uneven development and this unevenness has been intensified by poor communications due to the broken nature of the topography. Roads are relatively few, railways slow and often roundabout, and whole districts—sometimes even considerable towns—are accessible only by bridle track. Many rivers flow in deep gorges near their sources and either meander or are broken by cascades in their lower reaches, so that none are navigable.

Thus we find that the west of Turkey, situated close to the Aegean Sea, is by far the most densely populated and the most intensively developed. Since 1923, however, attempts have been made to develop the Anatolian plateau and the

districts in the extreme east, which, following the expulsion and massacre of the Armenians in 1914-18, for a time supported only a very scanty population. Development in the central plateau has been aided by the exploitation of several small but on the whole valuable mineral deposits, and by irrigation schemes to improve agriculture. A certain degree of industrialisation (mainly undertaken by state-sponsored and owned organisations) has also grown up, based on Turkish-produced raw materials—cotton, wool, mohair, beet-sugar, olive-oil, and tobacco. The eastern districts present a more intractable problem, and development so far has been slower.

Of recent years, the considerable annual increase of population, now of 3%—one of the highest in the world—has led to intensification of settlement and the bringing in of all available land for cultivation. Henceforth a principal problem for Turkey must be to improve yields from agriculture and industry. Because of the strategic importance of the country, there has been a considerable programme of road-building, largely financed by the U.S.A. and C.E.T.O.

RACE AND LANGUAGE

Racially, the bulk of the Turkish people show an intermixture of Mediterranean and Armenoid strains. In the western half of the country Mediterraneans and Armenoids are more or less equally represented; but further east the proportion of Armenoids steadily increases, until towards the Soviet and Iranian borders, they become almost uni-

versal. We can in addition note less important racial elements: there would seem to be small numbers of proto-Nordics in the north and west, and some authorities suggest a racial relationship between Galatia (the modern district of Ankara) and ancient Gaul. The Ottoman Turks were in the main of Turki (western Mongoloid) ancestry, but in the view of some authorities their contribution to the ethnic stocks of Turkey would seem to have been small, since they were really an invading tribal group that became an aristocracy and soon intermarried with other peoples. There are also numbers of Caucasians—particularly Circassians and Georgians—who have contributed to the racial structure of Turkey; and during 1951 a further element was added by the arrival of many thousands of Bulgarian Muslims who had been deported from their own country.

The Turkish language, which is of central Asiatic origin, is spoken over most, but by no means all of the country. This was introduced into Turkey in Seljuq times, and was written in Arabic characters, but as these are not really well adapted to the sound of Turkish, Roman (i.e. European) script has been compulsory since 1928. As well, there are a number of non-Turkish languages. Kurdish has a wide extension in the south-east, along the Syrian and Iraqi frontiers; and Caucasian dialects, quite different from either Turkish or Kurdish, occur in the north-east. Greek and Armenian were once widespread, but following the deportations of the last forty years both forms of speech are now current only in the city of Istanbul, where considerable numbers of Greeks and Armenians still live.

HISTORY

ANCIENT HISTORY

The most ancient written records so far found in Asia Minor date from the beginning of the second millennium B.C. They are in Assyrian, and reveal the existence of Assyrian trading colonies in Cappadocia. These documents, together with a growing amount of archaeological evidence, show an important Copper Age culture in Central Anatolia in the third and early second millennia. Later in the second millennium the greater part of Asia Minor fell under the rule of the Hittites. This people has long been known from references in the Old Testament and other ancient texts, but its full importance was first revealed by the excavations at Boğazköy, the site of the ancient Hittite capital of Hattushash. The Hittite Empire flourished from about 1600 to about 1200 B.C., and reached its apogee in the fourteenth and thirteenth centuries, when it became one of the dominant States of the Middle East. One of the sources of Hittite strength was iron, which was first worked in Anatolia. The production of iron was for long a monopoly of the Hittite kings, but the use of iron implements eventually spread to other parts, and revolutionised agriculture, industry, and war.

After the break-up of the Hittite Empire, Asia Minor was split up among a number of dynasties and peoples—Phrygians, Cimmerians, Lydians, and others—about whom not very much is known. Towards the end of the Hittite period the Greeks began to invade the Aegean coast, and entered on a long struggle with the native states that is reflected in the story of the Trojan war. Greek culture spread in western Anatolia, which was gradually incorporated into the Hellenic world. A series of political changes, of which the most important are the Persian conquest in 546, the conquest of Alexander in 334, and the constitution of the Roman province of Asia in 133 B.C., did not impede the

steady spread of Greek language and culture in the cities.

In A.D. 330, the Emperor Constantine inaugurated the new city of Constantinople, on the site of the old Greek trading settlement of Byzantium. This city at once became the capital of the East Roman and then of the Christian Byzantine Empire. Asia Minor was now the metropolitan province of a great Empire, and grew in wealth, prosperity and importance. Under Byzantine rule Greek Christianity, already firmly established in Roman times, spread over most of the peninsula.

SELJUQS AND OTTOMANS

At the beginning of the eleventh century a new conquest of Anatolia began—that of the Turks. The early history of the Turkish peoples is still obscure. Some references in the ancient biography of Alexander show them to have been established in Central Asia at the time of his conquests, and Turkish tribal confederacies played an important part in the invasions of Europe from late Roman times onwards. The name "Turk" first appears in historical records in the sixth century A.D., when Chinese annals speak of a powerful empire in Central Asia, founded by a steppe people called Tu-Kiu. It is from this state that the oldest surviving Turkish inscriptions have come. From the seventh century onwards the Central Asian Turks came into ever closer contact with the Islamic peoples of the Near East, from whom they adopted the Islamic faith and the Arabic script, and with them much of the complex civilisation of Islam. From the ninth century Turks entered the service of the Caliphate in increasing numbers, and soon came to provide the bulk of its armies, its generals, and eventually its rulers.

From the tenth century whole tribes of Turks began to migrate into Persia and Iraq, and in the eleventh, under the leadership of the family of Seljuq, the Turks were able to set

up a great empire comprising most of the eastern lands of the Caliphate. The Muslim armies on the Byzantine frontier had long been predominantly Turkish and in the course of the eleventh century they began a great movement into Anatolia which resulted in the termination of Byzantine rule in most of the country and its incorporation in the Muslim Seljuq Sultanate. A Seljuq prince, Suleyman ibn Kutlumush was sent to organise the new province and by the end of the twelfth century his successors had built up a strong Turkish monarchy in Anatolia, with its capital in Konya (the ancient Iconium). Under the rule of the Anatolian Seljuqs, which in various forms lasted until the fourteenth century, Anatolia gradually became a Turkish land. Masses of Turkish immigrants from further east entered the country, and a Turkish, Muslim civilisation replaced Greek Christianity.

In the late thirteenth century the Sultanate of Konya fell into decay, and gradually gave way to a number of smaller principalities. One of these, in north western Anatolia, was ruled by a certain Osman, or Othman from whom the name Ottoman is derived. The Ottoman State soon embarked on a great movement of expansion, on the one hand in Anatolia, at the expense of its Turkish neighbours, on the other in the Balkans. Ottoman armies first crossed to Europe in the mid fourteenth century, and by 1400 they were masters of much of the Balkan peninsula as well as of almost all Anatolia. The capital was moved first from Bursa to Edirne and then, in 1453, to Constantinople, the final conquest of which from the last Byzantine Emperor completed the process that had transformed a principality of frontier warriors into a new great empire. Constantinople, called Istanbul by the Turks, remained the capital of the Ottoman Empire until 1922. The wave of conquest was by no means spent. For more than a century Ottoman arms continued to advance into Central Europe, while in 1516-17 Sultan Selim I destroyed the Mamluk Sultanate and incorporated Syria and Egypt into the Empire. During the reign of Sultan Suleyman I (1520-66), called the Magnificent in Europe, the Ottoman Empire was at the height of its power. In three continents the Sultan held unchallenged sway over vast territories. A skilled and highly organised bureaucracy secured for the peoples of the Empire peace, justice and prosperity, literature, scholarship and the arts flourished and the Ottoman armies and fleets seemed to threaten the very existence of Western Christendom.

The decay of the Empire is usually dated from after the death of Suleyman. In the West great changes were taking place. The Renaissance and the Reformation, the rapid development of science and technology, the emergence of strong centralised nation states with constantly improving military techniques, the deflection of the main routes of international trade from the Mediterranean to the open seas, all combined to strengthen Turkey's Western adversaries while leaving her own resources unchanged or even diminished and helped to relegate her into a backwater of cultural and economic stagnation. An imposing military façade for a while masked the internal decay that was rotting the once all powerful Empire, but by the end of the seventeenth century the weakness of the Ottoman State was manifest. Then began the struggle of the Powers for pickings of Turkish territory and for positions of influence in the Empire. During the eighteenth century it was Austria and Russia that made the main territorial advances in the Balkans and in the Black Sea area, while England and France were content with commercial and diplomatic privileges. In a succession of wars one province after another was lost, while internal conditions went from bad to worse. During the nineteenth century England and France began to play a more active role. British policy was generally to support the Turks against their impatient heirs. In 1854

Britain and France went to war at the side of Turkey in order to check Russian aggression, and in 1877-78 British diplomat c intervention was effective to the same end. Meanwhile the ferment of nationalist ideas had spread from the West to the subject peoples of the Empire and one by one the Serbs, Greeks, Romanians and Bulgarians succeeded in throwing off Ottoman rule and attaining independent statehood.

More significant for Turkish history were the first stirrings of a new spirit among the Turks themselves. The first serious attempts at reform were made during the reign of Selim III (1789-1807), and during the nineteenth century a series of reforming sultans and ministers worked on a programme of reform and modernisation which though it fell short of its avowed objectives nevertheless transformed the face of the Ottoman Empire and began a process of change, the effects of which are still visible. In 1878 the reforming movement came to an abrupt end and from that year until 1908 the Empire was subjected to the iron despotism of Abdul Hamid II, who ruthlessly repressed every attempt at liberal thought and reform. In 1908 the secret opposition group known as the Young Turks seized power, and in a wave of revolutionary enthusiasm inaugurated a constitution, parliamentary government, and a whole series of liberal reforms. Unfortunately the Young Turks had little opportunity to follow up their promising start. First internal dissension then foreign wars, combined to turn the Young Turk regime into a military dictatorship. In 1911 the Italians suddenly started a war against Turkey which ended with their gaining Libya and the Dodecanese Islands. In 1912-13 a Balkan alliance succeeded in wresting from the dying Empire most of its remaining possessions on the continent of Europe. Finally, in October 1914, Turkey entered the war on the side of the Central Powers. During the reign of Abdul Hamid German influence had been steadily increasing in Turkey, and the process continued under the Young Turks. It was certainly helped by the growing friendship between the Western Powers and Russia, which threw the Turks into the arms of the only power that seemed ready to support them against Russian designs. German officers reorganised the Turkish Army. German business men and technicians extended their hold on the economic resources of the country, and German engineers and financiers began the construction of the famous Baghdad railway which was to provide direct rail communication between Germany and the Middle East.

The Turkish alliance was of immense military value to the Central Powers. The Turkish armies, still established in Syria and Palestine were able to offer an immediate and serious threat to the Suez Canal and to the British position in Egypt. By their dogged and successful defence of the Dardanelles they prevented effective co operation between Russia and the Western Powers. Their Balkan position assured the supremacy of the Central Powers in that important area. Their position as the greatest independent Muslim State and their prestige among Muslims elsewhere created a series of problems in the British and French Empires.

Despite their weakness and exhaustion after two previous wars, the Turks were able to wage a bitter defensive war against the Allies. At last, after two unsuccessful attempts, one on the Dardanelles and the other in Mesopotamia, a new British attack from Egypt and from India succeeded in expelling the Turks from Palestine, Syria, and most of Iraq. Defeated on all sides, cut off from their allies by the Salomica Expedition, the Turks decided to abandon the struggle, and signed an armistice at Mudros on October 30th, 1918. The outlook for Turkey seemed black. Allied forces controlled Istanbul and the Straits—British forces were in control of the Arab countries and in 1919 French, Italian and British forces occupied strategic positions in

parts of Anatolia itself. In the capital the Young Turk leaders had fled, and a new Government was formed, subservient to the will of the occupying Powers.

For some time the victorious Powers were too busy elsewhere to attend to the affairs of Turkey, and it was not until the San Remo Conference of April 1920 that the first serious attempt was made to settle the Turkish question. Meanwhile the victors were busy quarrelling among themselves. Partly, no doubt, with the idea of forestalling Italian ambitions, the British, French, and American Governments agreed to a Greek proposal for a Greek occupation of Izmir and the surrounding country, and on May 15th, 1919, a Greek Army, under cover of allied warships, landed at Izmir. Second thoughts on the wisdom of this step appeared in the allied camp, and in October 1919 the Inter-Allied Commission in Istanbul condemned it as "unjustifiable" and as "a violation of the terms of the Armistice". The consequences of the invasion for Turkey were momentous. Now it was no longer the non-Turkish subject provinces and the Ottoman superstructure of the Turkish nation that were threatened, but the Turkish homeland itself. Moreover, the Greeks, unlike the Western Allies, showed that they intended to stay, and that they were aiming at nothing less than the incorporation of the territories they occupied into the Greek kingdom. The Turkish reaction to this danger was vigorous and immediate. The Nationalist movement, hitherto limited to a small class of intellectuals, became the mass instrument of Turkish determination to preserve the integrity and independence of the homeland. A new leader appeared to organise their victory.

THE RISE OF ATATURK

Mustafa Kemal, later surnamed Atatürk, was born in Salonica, then an Ottoman city, in 1880. After a promising career as a regular army officer, he achieved his first active command in Libya in 1911, and thereafter fought with distinction in the successive wars in which his country was involved. After his brilliant conduct of the defence of Gallipoli, he fought on various fronts against the Allies, and at the time of the Armistice held a command on the Syrian front. A month later he returned to Istanbul, and at once began to seek ways and means of getting to Anatolia to organise national resistance. At length he was successful, and on May 19th, 1919—four days after the Greek landing in Izmir—he arrived at Samsun, on the Black Sea coast, ostensibly in order to supervise the disbanding of the remaining Turkish forces. Instead he set to work at once on the double task of organising a national movement and raising a national army.

Meanwhile the Allied Powers were at last completing their arrangements for the obsequies of the Sick Man of Europe. After a series of conferences, a treaty was drawn up and signed by the Allied representatives and those of the Sultan's Government at Sèvres, on August 10th, 1920. The Treaty of Sèvres was very harsh—far harsher than that imposed on Germany. The Arab provinces were to be placed under British and French Mandates, to prepare them for eventual independence. In Anatolia, Armenian and Kurdish States were to be set up in the east, the south was to be divided between France and Italy, and a truncated Turkish Sultanate confined to the interior. The Straits were to be demilitarised and placed under Allied administration, with a Turkish Istanbul surrounded by Allied forces. The rest of European Turkey was to be ceded to Greece, while the Izmir district was to be under "Ottoman sovereignty and Greek administration".

This treaty was, however, never implemented. While the Allies were imposing their terms on the Sultan and his government in Istanbul, a new Turkish State was rising in the interior of Anatolia, based on the rejection of the treaty and the principles on which it was founded. On July

23rd, 1919, Mustafa Kemal and his associates convened the first Nationalist Congress in Erzurum, and drew up a national programme. A second Congress was held in September in the same year, and attended by delegates from all over the country. An executive committee, presided over by Mustafa Kemal, was formed, and chose Ankara, then a minor provincial town, as its headquarters. Frequent meetings were held in Ankara, which soon became the effective capital of the Nationalist movement and forces. It was there that they issued the famous National Pact, the declaration that laid down the basic programme of the Kemalist movement, renouncing the Empire and the domination of the non-Turkish provinces, but demanding the total and unconditional independence of all areas inhabited by Turks. This declaration won immediate support, and on January 28th, 1920, was approved even by the legal Ottoman Parliament sitting in Istanbul. The growth of the Nationalist movement in Istanbul alarmed the Allies, and on March 16th British forces entered the Turkish part of the city and arrested and deported many Nationalist leaders. Despite this setback, followed by a new anti-Nationalist campaign on the part of the Sultan and his political and religious advisers, the Kemalists continued to advance. On March 19th, 1920, Mustafa Kemal ordered general elections, and at the end of April a National Assembly of 350 deputies met in Ankara and voted the National Pact. The Sultan and his government were declared deposed, a provisional Constitution promulgated, and a government set up with Mustafa Kemal as President.

There remained the military task of expelling the invaders. The Greco-Turkish war falls into three stages, covering roughly the campaigns of 1920, 1921 and 1922. In the first the Nationalists, hopelessly outmatched in numbers and material, were badly defeated, and the Greeks advanced far into Anatolia. Turkish resistance was, however, strong enough to impress the Allies, who, for the first time, accorded a certain limited recognition to the Nationalist Government and proclaimed their neutrality in the Greco-Turkish war. The second campaign began with Greek successes, but the Turks rallied and defeated the invaders first at İnönü—from which İsmet Pasha, who commanded the Turkish forces there, later took his surname—and then, on August 24th, 1921, in a major battle on the Sakarya River, where the Turkish forces were under the personal command of Mustafa Kemal. This victory considerably strengthened the Nationalists, who were now generally realised to be the effective Government of Turkey. The French and Italians withdrew from the areas of Anatolia assigned to them, and made terms with the new Government. The Soviets, now established on Turkey's eastern frontier, had already done so at the beginning of the year.

A period of waiting and reorganisation followed, during which the morale of the Greek armies was adversely affected by political changes in Greece. In August 1922 the third and final phase of the war of independence began. The Turkish Army drove the Greeks back to the Aegean, and on September 9th reoccupied Izmir. Mustafa Kemal now prepared to cross to Thrace. To do so he had to cross the Straits, still under Allied occupation. The French and Italian contingents withdrew, and, after a menacing pause, the British followed. On October 11th an armistice was signed at Mudanya, whereby the Allied Governments agreed to the restoration of Turkish sovereignty in Eastern Thrace. In November the Sultan's Cabinet resigned, and the Sultan himself went into exile. Turkey once more had only one government, and Istanbul, the ancient seat of Empire, became a provincial city, ruled by a governor appointed from Ankara.

The peace conference opened in November 1922. After many months of argument the treaty was finally signed on July 24th, 1923. It recognised complete and undivided

Turkish sovereignty and the abolition of the last vestiges of foreign privilege. The only reservation related to the demilitarisation of the Straits which were not to be fortified without the consent of the Powers. This consent was given at the Montreux Conference in 1936.

THE TURKISH REPUBLIC

The military task was completed and the demands formulated in the National Pact had been embodied in an international treaty. There remained the greater task of rebuilding the ruins of long years of war and revolution—and of remedying those elements of weakness in the Turkish State and society that had brought Turkey to the verge of extinction. Mustafa Kemal saw the solution of Turkey's problems in a process of Westernisation—in the integration of Turkey on a basis of equality in the modern Western world. To do this it was not sufficient to borrow as other reformers had done the outward forms and trappings of Western civilisation. It was necessary to change the very basis of society in Turkey and to suppress ruthlessly if need be the opposites that were bound to come from the entrenched forces of the old order. Between 1922 and 1938 the year of his death Kemal carried through a series of far reaching reforms in Turkey. These may be considered under various headings.

The first changes were political. After the deposition of Sultan Vahdeddin in November 1922 a brief experiment was made with a purely religious sovereignty and Abdul Mejid was proclaimed as Caliph but not Sultan. The experiment was not successful. Abdul Mejid followed his predecessor into exile and on October 29th 1923 Turkey was declared a Republic, with Kemal as President. The regime of Kemal Atatürk was effectively a dictatorship—though without the violence and oppression normally associated with that word in Europe. A single party—the Republican People's Party—formed the main instrument for the enforcement of Government policy. The Constitution of April 20th 1924 provided for an elected Parliament which was the repository of sovereign power. Executive power was to be exercised by the President and a Cabinet chosen by him.

The next object of attack was the religious hierarchy already weakened by the removal of the Sultan Caliph. In a series of edicts the Ministry of Religious Affairs was abolished, the religious orders disbanded, religious property sequestered, religious instruction forbidden. With the religious leaders in retreat the attack on the old social order began. Certainly the most striking reforms were the abolition of the fez and the Arabic alphabet and their replacement by the hat and the Latin alphabet. But these were probably less important in the long run than the abrogation of the old legal system and the introduction of new civil and criminal codes of law adapted from Europe. In 1928 Islam itself was disestablished and the Constitution amended to make Turkey a secular State.

Not the least of the problems that faced Mustafa Kemal was the economic one. Turkey is naturally a very rich country but her resources were for the most part undeveloped and what development there was had been in foreign hands. To restore the devastation of war, replace the departed foreign investors and raise the low standard of living of the country much capital was needed. Rather than risk the independence of Turkey by inviting foreign capital in a time of weakness Kemal adopted the principle of *Etatism* and made it one of the cardinal doctrines of his regime. From 1923 to 1933 the State made its main effort in railway construction, nearly doubling the length of line in that period. At the same time a start was made in establishing other industries. The major effort of industrialisation began in 1934 with the adoption of the first five-year plan—completed in 1939. While often wasteful and inefficient

State-sponsored industry was probably the only form of development possible at the time without recourse to foreign aid. The progress achieved stood Turkey in good stead in the critical years that were to follow.

The foreign policy of the Republic was for long one of strict non-involvement in foreign disputes and the maintenance of friendly relations with as many Powers as possible. In 1935-36 however Turkey co-operated loyally in sanctions against Italy and thereafter the growing threat of German and more especially Italian aggression led to closer links with the West. In 1938 steps were taken to strengthen economic links between Turkey and Britain. A British credit of £16 million was granted to Turkey and a number of contracts given to British firms by Turkey.

The death of Kemal Atatürk in November 1938 was a great shock to Turkey. Perhaps the best testimony to the solidity of his achievement is that his régime was able to survive that shock and the stresses and strains of the war that followed shortly after.

He was succeeded as President by Ismet İnönü who announced his intention of maintaining and carrying on the work of his predecessor. The new President was soon called upon to guide his country through a very different time. As early as May 12th 1939 a joint Anglo-Turkish declaration was issued stating that the British and Turkish Governments in the event of an act of aggression leading to war in the Mediterranean area would co-operate effectively and lend each other all the aid and assistance in their power. This prepared the way for the formal Anglo-French Turkish Treaty of Alliance signed October 19th 1939. It had been hoped that this Treaty would be complemented by a parallel treaty with the U.S.S.R. but the equivocal attitude of the Soviet Government followed by the Stalin Hitler Agreement of August 1939 made this impossible and the Turks proceeded with the Western alliance in the face of clearly expressed Soviet disapproval. They protected themselves however by Protocol II of the Treaty stipulating that nothing in the Treaty should bind them to any action likely to involve them in war with the U.S.S.R.

TURKEY DURING THE SECOND WORLD WAR

The fall of France, the hostile attitude of the Soviet Government and the extension of German power over most of Europe led the Turkish Government to the conclusion that nothing would be gained by provoking an almost certain German conquest. While continuing to recognize the Alliance therefore they invoked Protocol II as a reason for remaining neutral and in June 1941 when German expansion in the Balkans had brought the German armies within 100 miles of Istanbul the Turks further protected themselves by signing a friendship and trade agreement with Germany in which however they stipulated that Turkey would maintain her treaty obligations to Britain.

The German attack on the U.S.S.R. and the consequent entry of that country into the Grand Alliance brought an important change to the situation and the Western Powers increased their pressure on Turkey to enter the war. On December 3rd 1941 President Roosevelt extended lend-lease aid to Turkey. In February 1943 Mr Churchill visited Turkey and met Turkish statesmen at Adana. In December 1943 President İnönü went to Cairo to meet the British and American leaders. The main consideration holding Turkey back from active participation in the war was mistrust of Russia and the widespread feeling that Nazi conquest and Soviet liberation were equally to be feared. Turkish statesmen foresaw the fate of the East European countries occupied by the Red Army and evinced no

desire to share it. While stopping short of actual belligerency, however, the Turks, especially after 1942, entered into closer economic and military relations with the West and aided the Allied cause in a number of ways. In August 1944 they broke off diplomatic relations with Germany, and on February 23rd, 1945, declared war on Germany in order to comply with the formalities of entry to the United Nations Conference in San Francisco.

The war years subjected Turkey to severe economic strains. These, and the dangers of armed neutrality in a world at war, resulted in the imposition of martial law, of closer police surveillance, and of a generally more authoritarian form of government. An unfortunate impression was made by the discrimination practised against foreigners and non-Muslim citizens in the assessment and collection of the Capital Levy imposed in 1942 to meet the growing financial strain. This measure, which occasioned much criticism both in Turkey and abroad, was quietly abandoned in 1943. And then, between 1945 and 1950, came a further series of changes, no less remarkable than the great reforms of Atatürk. When the Charter of the United Nations came up for ratification in the Turkish Parliament in 1945, a group of members, led by Celâl Bayar, Adnan Menderes, Fuad Köprülü and Refik Koraltan, tabled a motion suggesting a series of reforms in the law and the Constitution which would effectively ensure inside Turkey those liberties to which the Turkish Government was giving its theoretical approval in the Charter. The motion was rejected by the Government, and its sponsors forced to leave the party. In November 1945, however, under pressure of a by now active and informed public opinion, President İnönü announced the end of the single-party system, and in January 1946 the opposition leaders registered the new Democratic Party. Numerous other parties followed, including the National Party (formed July 1948 and re-constituted as the Republic National Party in 1954).

TURKEY UNDER THE DEMOCRATIC PARTY

In July 1946 new elections gave the Democrat opposition 70 out of 416 seats, and there can be little doubt that completely free elections would have given them many more. During the years that followed, the breach in the dictatorship grew ever wider, and a series of changes in both law and practice ensured the growth of democratic liberties. Freedom of the Press and of association were extended, martial law ended, and, on February 15th, 1950, a new electoral law was approved, guaranteeing free and fair elections. In May 1950 a new general election was held, in which the Democrats won an overwhelming victory. Celâl Bayar became President, and a new Cabinet was formed, with Adnan Menderes as Prime Minister and Fuad Köprülü as Foreign Minister. The new régime adopted a more liberal economic policy, involving the partial abandonment of *Étatisme* and the encouragement of private enterprise, both Turkish and foreign. For a while, the stability and progress of the republic seemed to be threatened by the growing activities of groups of religious fanatics, whose programme appeared to require little less than the abrogation of all the reforms achieved by the Turkish revolution. After the attempt on the life of the liberal journalist Ahmet Emin Yalman in November 1952, the government took more vigorous action against what were called the "forces of clericalism and reaction". Many arrests were made, and in the summer of 1953 the National Party, accused of complicity in reactionary plots, was for a time outlawed and legislation was passed prohibiting the exploitation of religion for political purposes. The relations between the two main parties, after a temporary improvement in the face of the common danger of reaction, deteriorated again in the course of 1953-54, though not to such an extent as to imperil national unity. On May 2nd,

1954, in Turkey's third general election since the war, the Democrats won a resounding victory. Over 80 per cent of the electorate voted, and close on 65 per cent of the votes cast went to the Democratic Party. Owing to the cumulative effect of the electoral system, this gave them 504 out of a total of 541 seats in the new Assembly, as against 407 out of 487 in the previous Assembly. Of the remainder, 28 seats went to the Republican People's Party, 5 to the re-constituted Republican National Party, and 2 to Independents.

Encouraged by this overwhelming reaffirmation of popular support, the Government proceeded to adopt a number of measures which were criticised by the opposition as undemocratic. These included new civil service laws giving the Government greatly increased powers of dismissal and compulsory retirement, and an electoral reform restricted coalition candidatures. These laws, following on the new Press law of March 7th, 1954, embittered relations between Government and opposition. A number of prosecutions of opposition journalists followed, and in September the well-known journalist Hüseyin Cahit Yalçın was fined and condemned to imprisonment. This case aroused widespread indignation both at home and abroad, and despite official insistence that Yalçın had been tried and condemned by due process of law, he was amnestied by the President. Charges against some other opposition journalists were also dropped. Some Republican People's Party leaders, notably Nihat Erim, responded to this more conciliatory attitude of the Government, and on April 17th there was a meeting and an exchange of views between the Prime Minister and the Republican leader İsmet İnönü. Others, however, found the concessions of the Government inadequate, and by the summer, relations between Government and opposition had again been strained by new Press prosecutions. The opposition parties, however, remained active. On June 10th, 1955 the Republican Party organ *Ulus*, which had ceased publication in December 1953, reappeared under the editorship of Hüseyin Cahit Yalçın, and in the same month the National Party held a party congress in Ankara. Both opposition parties decided to boycott the provincial council and municipal elections (September and November 1955 respectively), in which therefore the Democrats were opposed only by the very small Peasant Party and by Independents. These were able to score some successes.

In view of the smallness and weakness of the opposition parties, and the immense parliamentary majority of the Democratic Party, it was inevitable that sooner or later splits would appear within it. In October 1955 a serious crisis culminated in the dismissal or resignation from the party of nineteen deputies. These were later joined by some others and formed a new party, the Freedom Party.

Meanwhile, in September 1955, anti-Greek outbreaks occurred in Istanbul and Izmir. Turco-Greek relations had been growing steadily worse because of the Cyprus question, and the riots appeared to have been touched off by a report, later proved false, that Atatürk's house in Salonica had been blown up by a bomb. The riots, which affected other non-Turkish and non-Muslim elements besides the Greeks, did immense damage to property, though injury to persons was very limited. Martial law was at once proclaimed in Istanbul, Izmir and Ankara, several senior officers and officials relieved of their duties, and several cabinet changes made. A new Cabinet, the fourth since the Democrat victory in 1950, was presented to the assembly on December 9th.

These events, and the growing economic difficulties of the country, brought new political tensions, and in the summer of 1956 new amendments to the Press law (June 7th), the law for the protection of the national economy

TURKEY—(HISTORY)

(June 6th) and the law of public assembly (June 27th) again aroused bitter opposition criticism

Conflict between the Government and Opposition was sharpened by the decision taken to advance the date of the general elections by more than eight months to October 27th 1957. The three Opposition parties—Republicans, Freedom and National Parties—first intended to present a united front but the electoral law was changed to make this impossible. They were therefore obliged to present separate lists in each constituency and so although the combined votes won by Opposition candidates were slightly more than 50 per cent of the total, the Democrats again emerged triumphant though with a diminished majority. In an enlarged Assembly of 610 seats the Democrats held 424, the Republicans 178 and the National and Freedom Parties 4 each.

Mr Menderes announced the new Cabinet—his fifth—on November 26th. It contained two new Ministers: Press and Tourism, and Reconstruction and Town Planning. One of the most significant changes was the appointment of Mr Fatin Zorlu as Foreign Minister in place of Mr Ethem Menderes. In September 1958 the resignation of two Ministers led to an extensive reshuffle of the Cabinet.

In the new Assembly the themes of debate continued to centre on the economic condition of the country and what the Opposition considered inroads on liberty. A Bill was passed in December 1957 amending the rules of the Assembly and laying down a new scale of penalties for their infraction. At the same time a proposal to channel all newspaper advertisements through a single organisation was interpreted as another device for ensuring Government control over the Press. The editors of the political weekly *Akis*, the managing editor and a writer on the staff of *Ulus* and the managing editor of *Zafer* (a Government paper) were among journalists who suffered imprisonment.

At the end of 1959 the law claimed a victim well known abroad—Mr Ahmet Yalman, the 71 year old editor of *Vakit*. His offence—shared with other editors—was to have reprinted an article strongly critical of the Government which had appeared in an American newspaper. Mr Yalman was in Pakistan when sentence was passed on him and on his return duly went to jail whence he and other journalists emerged after the *coup d'état* of May 1960. There is no doubt that its running fight with the Press contributed much to the downfall of the Menderes régime. The new régime while not immediately sweeping away the old bans encouraged newspaper owners and editors to draw up a 'code of self-control' which was worked out with the assistance of the International Press Institute.

FOREIGN AFFAIRS 1945-60

In foreign affairs both the People's Party and the Democratic Governments followed a firm policy of unserved identification with the West in the cold war. Since May 1947 the United States has extended economic and military aid to Turkey on an increasing scale and in 1950 a first indication of both the seriousness and the effectiveness of Turkish policy was given with the despatch of Turkish troops to Korea where they fought with distinction. In August 1949 Turkey became a member of the Council of Europe and early in 1952 acceded to full membership of the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation in which she began to play an increasingly important part. Thereafter other arrangements were made by which Turkey accepted a role in both Balkan and Middle Eastern defence. On February 28th 1953 a treaty of friendship and collaboration was signed in Ankara with Greece and Yugoslavia

which prepared the way for a subsequent alliance and on April 2nd 1954 a mutual aid pact was signed in Karachi between Turkey and Pakistan with the blessing of the United States.

Despite her economic problems and her failure to secure the 300 million U.S. dollar loan which she had requested from the United States Turkey resisted the temptation to follow the example of some other states and play the great powers off against one another. In spite of efforts from both north and south to detach her Turkey remained faithful to the northern tier alliance and on November 21st 22nd 1955 the Turkish Prime Minister attended the inaugural meeting of the council of the Baghdad Pact in which Turkey thereafter played a major role.

During the Sinai-Suez crisis of November 1956 the representatives of the Turkish Government meeting with those of the other three Muslim members of the Baghdad Pact (Iraq, Iran and Pakistan) welcomed the withdrawal of the Anglo-French forces from Egypt. In December the Turkish Foreign Minister declared that the Pact had done much to limit and circumscribe the threat to peace in the Middle East. The President of the United States announced in January 1957 a new programme of economic and military assistance for those countries of the area which were willing to accept it. At a further meeting held in Ankara the Muslim states belonging to the Baghdad Pact expressed their approval of this Eisenhower Doctrine. The United States in March 1957 made known its decision to join the military committee of the Baghdad Pact. Mr Richards, special adviser to the President of the United States, carried out a tour of the Middle East in March/April 1957 in order to explain the new doctrine and to distribute the funds assigned to its fulfilment. At the close of his visit to Ankara in March a joint communiqué was issued to the effect that Turkey would co-operate with the United States against all subversive activities in the Middle East and that financial aid would be forthcoming from Washington for the economic projects previously discussed between the members of the Baghdad Pact. On October 18th 1958 an agreement was signed by the Turkish and Iranian governments for the construction of a 1,000 mile pipeline from the Iranian oilfields to the Turkish Mediterranean seaboard.

At the time of the Jordan crisis in April 1957 there was a period of tension when Turkish troops were held in readiness for action near the frontier with Syria. The outbreak of civil war in Lebanon in May 1958 and still more the *coup d'état* in Iraq of July 14th gave Turkey fresh cause for anxiety. The events in Iraq took place on the eve of a meeting in Istanbul of Muslim members of the Baghdad Pact but had the immediate consequence of withdrawing Iraq in practice if not in name from membership of the Pact. The staff of the Pact Council secretariat and military planning organization were subsequently transferred to Ankara. Iraq withdrew formally from the Pact on March 24th 1959. The Pact had however, been strengthened a few weeks before by new defence agreements between Turkey, Iran, Pakistan and the United States of America signed on March 5th.

Fidelity to NATO and CENTO remained the basis of Turkey's foreign policy through the next two years. By the beginning of 1960 Turkey, following the examples of some of her allies, decided that such a policy need not be incompatible with less frigid relations towards Russia, and in April a visit to Moscow by Mr Menderes was announced for July. Before it could take place the Menderes régime was overthrown but his successors continued a more flexible policy. Soon after the revolution a cordial letter from Mr Khrushchev to Gen. Gürsel received a cordial reply in which however Turkey's need for active allies was once more emphasised.

THE CYPRUS QUESTION

Early in 1957 Great Britain had decided to release Archbishop Makarios from detention in the Seychelles islands. The leaders of the Turkish community in Cyprus visited Ankara in April. Their view was that, ultimately, partition alone would provide an adequate solution for the Cyprus problem. The Archbishop had meanwhile rejected all participation of the Cypriot Turks in future negotiations regarding the island. The Turkish Government itself remained firm in its determination not to allow Cyprus to be handed over unreservedly to the Greeks.

British efforts for a solution of the Cyprus problem increased as conditions inside the island deteriorated. The meeting of the Baghdad Pact Council at Ankara in January 1958, which was attended by the U.S. Secretary of State and the British Foreign Minister, was made the occasion for informal talks. The new Governor of Cyprus, Sir Hugh Foot, arrived to take part in these, but while they were in progress there was serious rioting by Turkish Cypriots in Nicosia and Limassol.

In June 1958 the British Government published a new plan for Cyprus, involving the association of the Greek and Turkish communities directly with the government of the island. Initial Turkish reaction was cold, but in the end it was accepted that the plan was workable, and not incompatible with the eventual solution of partition, which the Turkish Government then favoured. Subsequent efforts by the British Prime Minister, Mr. Macmillan, who paid flying visits to Ankara and Athens in August, and by the Secretary-General of NATO, M. Spaak, were devoted to trying to bring Turkey and Greece together with Great Britain and other interested but "neutral" states in a round-table conference on Cyprus.

The winter of 1958-59 saw a period of intense diplomatic activity and exchanges between Athens and Ankara, as a result of which there began in Zürich on February 5th, 1959, bilateral negotiations between the Prime Ministers and Foreign Ministers of Greece and Turkey. Both countries emphasised that the Zürich conference was called on joint Greco-Turkish initiative. On February 11th, the two Prime Ministers initialled an agreement on the basic structure of a new independent Republic of Cyprus, with a Greek Cypriot President and a Turkish Cypriot Vice-President. There were to be ten Ministers in the Cabinet, three of them Turkish, and a House of Representatives, 30 per cent of whom should be Turkish. The possibility of the union of Cyprus with any other state, or of the partition of it into two independent states, was expressly excluded. On February 11th the two Foreign Ministers came to London from Zürich for preliminary discussions with the British Foreign Secretary, and it was then decided to invite Archbishop Makarios and Dr. Fazıl Küçük, the leader of the Turkish Cypriots, to a conference in London. On February 18th a conference of Prime Ministers, Foreign Ministers and the two Cypriot leaders opened at Lancaster House, London, and it ended on February 19th with the acceptance by all parties of the new Constitution for Cyprus.

The aeroplane bringing Mr. Adnan Menderes, the Turkish Premier, to London crashed on February 17th, and as a result of the injuries he received, Mr. Menderes was unable to attend the conference at Lancaster House, although he initialled the final agreements in a London hospital where he was convalescing. Fifteen persons, all of Turkish nationality, lost their lives in the air disaster, including the Minister of Press and Broadcasting, Mr. Server Somuncuoğlu, and Mr. Kemal Zeytinoğlu, a Member of Parliament and a former Minister of Public Works.

Prolonged negotiations to implement the London and

Zürich agreement were finally completed in Cyprus on July 1st, 1960. Elections were to be held at the end of the month, and Cyprus became an independent republic on August 16th. Turks filled fifteen out of the fifty seats in the House of Representatives, and a detachment of Turkish troops was stationed in the island.

THE 1960 REVOLUTION

Economic difficulties continued to be one of the main preoccupations of the Turkish Government. The development plans envisaged since 1950 had been carried forward with financial aid from the United States and from such bodies as the International Bank; farm mechanisation, roads, communication facilities, port development and grain-storage projects were among the chief items of the programme. These policies had been accompanied by inflationary pressures, an unfavourable trade balance, decreased imports, a shortage of foreign exchange and, since the agricultural population was in receipt of subsidies from the Government, a higher demand for consumer goods which aggravated the prevalent inflation. Social and economic unease tended to reveal itself in a drift of people from the villages to the towns, the population of centres like Ankara, Istanbul, Izmir, Bursa and Adana being considerably increased during recent years.

The influences which led to the revolution had been long at work. Hostility between the Democrats in power and the People's Party in opposition grew steadily more marked, and was sharpened towards the end of 1959 by suspicions that the Democrats were planning to hold fresh elections in the near future ahead of time. It was feared that these would, if necessary, be rigged to keep the Democrats in power indefinitely.

In May, 1959, political tension between the two main parties had already broken into violence during a political tour of Anatolia conducted by the opposition leader İsmet İnönü. The Government banned all political meetings. Blows were struck in the Grand National Assembly, and the Opposition walked out.

Much the same pattern of events ushered in the final breakdown a year later. At the beginning of April, 1960, İsmet İnönü undertook another political tour of Anatolia. At one point troops were called on to block his progress. Three of the officers involved in this incident took the strong step of resigning. The Opposition tried, but failed, to force a debate in the Assembly. On their side the Democrats set up a commission of enquiry, composed entirely of their own supporters, to investigate "the destructive and illegal activities of the P.R.P." Again the Grand National Assembly was the scene of violence, and all political activity was suspended for three months.

At this point the students took a hand. The universities had for some time been a focus of anti-government feeling, and in consequence had, like the newspapers, found their liberties attacked. On April 28th students in Istanbul demonstrated against the Menderes Government. Troops were called on to fire; five of the demonstrators were killed and 40 injured. Martial law and a curfew were called in Istanbul and Ankara. There were more demonstrations in Istanbul on May 2nd, in Ankara on May 5th and in Izmir on May 15th. On May 21st cadets from the Ankara War College joined students in a protest march.

As administrator of martial law the Turkish Army found itself, contrary to its traditions, involved in politics. A group of officers decided that their intervention must be complete if Turkey was to return to Kemalist principles. In the early hours of May 27th they struck. President Bayar, Mr. Menderes, most Democratic Deputies and a number of officials and senior officers were arrested. The Government was replaced by a Committee of National

Union headed by General Gürsel, a much respected senior officer who had fought with Atatürk at Gallipoli.

The coup was immediately successful and almost bloodless though Dr. Gedik, former Minister of the Interior, committed suicide after his arrest. The accusation against the Menderes regime was that it had broken the constitution and was moving towards dictatorship. The officers insisted that they were temporary custodians of authority and would hand over to the duly constituted civilians. A temporary constitution was quickly agreed, pending the drafting of a final new one. During this interval legislative power was vested in the Committee of National Unity, and executive power in a Council of Ministers composed of civilians as well as soldiers. On August 25th however, ten of the eighteen Ministers were dismissed, leaving only three civilians in the Government. General Gürsel was President of Republic, Prime Minister and Minister of Defence. The courts were declared independent. Commissions were set up to inquire into the alleged misdeeds of the Menderes regime.

Although the new regime did not fail to meet political opposition, particularly among the peasants and around Izmir, a stronghold of Mr. Menderes, the main problems facing it were economic. The former regime was shown to be heavily in debt in every field. Austerity measures, including restrictions on credit, had to be put into operation and an economic planning board was set up to work out a long term investment plan with the aid of foreign experts.

THE COMMITTEE OF NATIONAL UNITY

The Committee of National Unity, which originally consisted of 37 members, was reduced to 23 on November 13th 1960. The 14 officers dismissed represented a group led by Colonel Turkey, who had been pressing for the army to retain its post-revolutionary powers and to introduce radical social reforms. They were officially described as "dangerous elements planning to seize power" and were sent out of harm's way to diplomatic posts abroad.

This purge completed preparations for a return to political democracy continued. A new Assembly, to act as a temporary parliament, was convened at the beginning of January 1961. It consisted of the National Unity Committee of 23, acting jointly with a House of Representatives of 271 members, both elected and nominated. In this the People's Party predominated. At the same time party politics were again legalised and a number of new parties emerged. Some of them proved short lived, but one, the Justice Party founded by General Ragıp Gümüşpala, who had been Commander of the Third Army at the time of the coup d'état, was destined to become formidable by attracting the support of many former adherents of the Democratic Party, now declared illegal.

A special committee of the Assembly was charged with framing a new constitution. It produced a draft of 156 articles, which were debated clause by clause, often with heat in the Assembly sitting in plenary session. The constitution, as finally ratified on May 26th, 1961, had some significant changes from the 1924 version. It provided for a court to determine the constitutionality of laws for a two-chambered legislative, and it included a reference to "social justice" as one of the aims of the State.

THE YASSIADA TRIALS

These constitutional developments took place against the background of the trial of the accused members of the Menderes regime. The trial was held on the little island of Yassiada in the Bosphorus, where the accused had been confined after arrest. It began on October 14th, 1960 and continued until August 14th 1961, thus becoming one of

the largest and longest political trials in history. By the end of the court presided over by Judge Selim Basol, had held 203 sittings and heard 1,068 witnesses. Some of the early charges seemed trivial and ill prepared. By May, however, the main charges, alleging violation of the constitution, had been reached. Impressive witnesses were heard on both sides and some of the accused defended themselves with spirit.

In the final session of the court 633 accused appeared in the dock of whom nearly 100 had earlier been liberated but not formally acquitted. The prosecutor asked for 228 death sentences including eight for Mr. Menderes and four for Mr. Bayar. Then followed a month's adjournment, and during this interval an attempt was made to close the national ranks. On September 5th leaders of the five principal parties signed a joint declaration undertaking to avoid destructive speeches and to preserve national unity during the electoral campaign. After a five-day round-table conference, presided over by General Gürsel, they further agreed to reject the "Democrat mentality" and to eschew the coming Yassıada sentences as a subject for public discussion. On September 6th leading newspaper editors followed suit. The sentence of the court was pronounced on September 15th. There were fifteen death sentences twelve of which, including that on Mr. Bayar, were commuted to life imprisonment. Adnan Menderes, Fatin Zorlu, the former Foreign Minister, and Hasan Polatkan, the former Minister of Finance, were duly hanged.

The trial inevitably absorbed the attention of the country, and there were many reminders that sympathy for the former régime and its leaders was far from dead. In March General Gürsel, who had suffered a slight stroke at the end of November, warned the Opposition parties that they were "playing with fire". There were rumours of a plot to rescue Mr. Menderes from prison, and on May 9th-10th 123 people were arrested and charged with "armed resistance to the régime". The most serious setback for the authorities however, appeared in the results of the referendum on the new constitution. This was approved by 6,348,191 votes against 3,934,370, and the large minority was taken as an indication of continuing loyalty to the Democrats. However, the authorities made no attempt to disguise the significance of the vote, which was completely free nor did they allow it to deflect them from their declared aim of handing back power to the civilians after an election to be held before the end of October.

It was to electioneering that the country, still stirred by the execution of Mr. Menderes and his colleagues turned in the autumn. The campaign, perhaps because of Yassıada was ruled out as a subject for discussion, proved unexpectedly quiet. On October 15th 1961, the elections gave the People's Party 173 seats and the Justice Party 138 seats in the National Assembly, and 36 and 70 respectively in the Senate.

These figures were a blow to the hopes of the People's Party that they would achieve an overall working majority. A coalition became necessary. The elective results were also further evidence of latent support for the Democrats.

THE NEW GOVERNMENT

On October 25th, 1961, Parliament opened and the transfer of power from military to civilians was made. The revolutionaries had kept their word and a new epoch began. The next day General Gürsel, the only candidate, was elected President. But forming a government proved a much harder process. On November 10th Mr. İsmet İnönü, leader of the People's Party, was asked to form a govern-

ment, and after much hesitation and strong pressure from the Army, the Justice Party agreed to join forces with its rival. A Cabinet was formed with Mr. İnönü as Prime Minister, Mr. Akıf İyidoğan, of the Justice Party, as Deputy Prime Minister, and ten more Ministers from each of the two coalition parties. Mr. Selim Sarper, who had held the same office since the *coup d'état*, remained Foreign Minister (but resigned in March 1962).

Restlessness in the country and within the Army was not, however, at an end. On February 22nd, 1962, there was an abortive revolt by a group of officers inside the Ankara Garrison. This appeared to be the act of some of those who feared that, with the Justice Party sharing power, the revolution was in danger of surrendering to those it had set out to overthrow. The Government remained, as Mr. İnönü said, exposed to a double fire—from those who thought the Army did too much (i.e. that civil liberties were still circumscribed) and those who thought it did too little (i.e. that it did not crush all signs of counter-revolution). The resignation of Mr. İnönü at the end of May weakened the extremists in the Justice Party, who had wanted to grant an amnesty to former supporters of Mr. Menderes. They were now face to face with the Army, the original movers of the 1960 revolution, and many of them felt it wise to moderate their demands.

By the end of June Mr. İnönü had formed a new coalition government composed of twelve Ministers from the Republican People's Party, six from the New Turkey Party, four from the Republican Peasants' Nation Party, and one Independent Minister.

The new government's programme expressed attachment to the principles of Western democracy and to the NATO alliance. It covered almost every sphere of the national life, including education, taxation, employment, and the problems of a rapidly rising birth-rate and an adverse balance of trade.

The somewhat uneasy political balance persisted against a background of rumours of further army intervention, and at times it seemed that only Mr. İnönü's skill and prestige kept Turkey on her chosen parliamentary course. As it was, the second half of 1962 saw scuffles break out on more than one occasion in the Assembly and Senate. The most controversial legislation concerned an amnesty for those convicted at Yassıada. A Bill was passed in October which cut sentences by four years. This automatically released those serving sentences by four years or less. Those with sentences of up to six and a half years were also given their freedom. On October 18th, 280 prisoners were set free. They were allowed to practise their professions but not to take part in public life. This act of clemency did not prevent the Opposition from pressing for a complete amnesty for all still detained, including Celal Bayar.

The Republican People's Party, like the country as a whole, found itself divided between those who favoured caution and those who insisted that the pace of reform should be faster. At its congress in October three leading members of the party, including its former secretary-general, Mr. Kasım Gülek, were expelled for a year. There were in addition some signs of a growing but largely uninformed interest in socialism. A Socialist Cultural Association, composed of politicians, intellectuals and journalists, was formed in December. But an article on socialism in *Cumhuriyet* brought its author arrest—a sign that the identification of socialism with communism was still prevalent.

1962 saw the publication of Turkey's long-awaited first Five-Year Plan (see below, *Economic Survey*). Before the Plan was published there had been considerable controversy over how the amount should be raised (about £2,400 million sterling). Four leading members of the

planning organization, who favoured more drastic taxation of landowners and agriculturalists, including the director, Mr. Osman Torun, resigned in September. In January 1963 Mr. Attila Sönmez, director of economic planning, likewise resigned, on the grounds that serious inflation would result if the Plan were carried out as the Government intended. A working group set up in July by OECD in Paris was one answer to the problem of outside contributions to the Plan. This reached agreement in June 1963 and formal signature followed on September 12th. The agreement provided for the association of Turkey with the Common Market in two phases. The first, preparatory, phase was to last from five to nine years, and during it the Turkish economy would be prepared for a customs union by aid, amounting to \$175 million, from the Six. Certain staple Turkish exports would, during the period, have privileged entry to Common Market countries. The second, transitional, phase would last twelve years. During it Turkish tariffs would be gradually reduced, leading ultimately to a full customs union. In April 1964 Turkey received a loan from Britain of £3 million.

POLITICAL UNREST

The political climate during 1963 remained unsettled. In February the leading radical of the original Committee of National Unity, Colonel Türkeş, who had been in unofficial exile abroad, returned with plans to set up a new political organization. More immediately threatening to the régime were the disturbances which marked the temporary release of the former President, Celal Bayar, from the prison in Kayseri where he had been since his sentence. A convoy of hundreds of cars escorted the 80-year-old politician to Ankara, where he was welcomed on March 24th by large and enthusiastic crowds. The reception appeared as a direct challenge to the revolution and was countered by violent protests, in which students and members of the armed forces participated, denouncing Mr. Bayar and his supposed supporters in the Justice Party. The Ankara offices of the party and its newspaper were attacked. After five days of liberty Mr. Bayar was taken back into custody, first in hospital and then again to his old prison at Kayseri. He was released again in November, 1964, by which time only a handful of those sentenced with him were left in gaol.

In the early hours of May 21st, 1963, Ankara was the scene of yet another abortive *coup d'état*. The instigator was Colonel Aydemir, who had been responsible for the attempted revolt in February 1962. On this occasion his resort to arms, in which some of the cadets at the Military Academy were involved, was quickly suppressed. One hundred and three men were subsequently put on trial for their part in the insurrection and four of them, including Colonel Aydemir, were sentenced to death. Colonel Aydemir was executed in July, 1964. One result of the attempted *coup* was the imposition of martial law in Ankara, Istanbul and Izmir. Originally proclaimed for one month, martial law was repeatedly prolonged.

Although the Bayar incident and Aydemir *coup* produced divisions inside the ranks of the Justice Party, it showed considerable successes at the local elections in November, the first to be held since 1954. These successes were mainly at the expense of the New Turkey Party and the Republican Peasants' Nation Party, Mr. İnönü's two junior partners in the coalition. They resigned from the government, and after General Gümüşpala, the leader of the Justice Party, had tried and failed to form a Ministry the President called again on Mr. İnönü, who on December 23rd formed a minority government drawn from members of his own Republican Party and some independents. It received a vote of confidence in the Assembly.

The first months of 1964 were overshadowed by an attempt on the life of Mr İnönü in February, and by the situation in Cyprus where the fate of the Turkish minority created strong feeling in the mainland. Mr İnönü's critics claimed that he had 'missed the bus' by failing to intervene on the island with force when the trouble started. There were several subsequent occasions when a Turkish descent on the island appeared imminent but it never materialised and in the middle of June Mr İnönü accepted President Johnson's invitation to Washington.

RAPPROCHEMENT WITH U.S.S.R.

Thus and other diplomatic efforts towards a solution, failed and public opinion grew more irritated, not only with Greece, but also with Turkey's western allies, in particular America and Britain, who were accused of being lukewarm in their support for Turkey's case. In August this irritation caused a violent explosion in İmır, when rioters wrecked the American and British pavilions at the trade fair. Mr İnönü though moving with characteristic caution, gave a warning that the alliance with the west the basis of Turkey's foreign policy since the war, was in danger. To reinforce his warning came several steps designed to improve relations with the U.S.S.R. When the Cyprus problem first flared up again it had appeared that the Soviet Government took the side of Greece and the Soviet trade pavilion had also been a target for the İmır hooligans. But feelers were out in both Moscow and Ankara and at the end of October 1964 Mr Erkin visited the U.S.S.R.—the first Turkish Foreign Minister to make this journey for twenty five years. Before leaving he invoked the memory of the early days of friendship between Atatürk and Lenin, and the same precedent was made much of by his hosts, who tactfully did not try to press Turkey into premature neutralism, as they had done in the past. On Cyprus, the U.S.S.R. appeared to have moved closer to the Turkish point of view, the communiqué which ended Mr Erkin's talks speaking favourably of a solution "by peaceful means on the basis of respect for the territorial integrity of Cyprus and for the legal rights of the two national communities".

Mr Erkin's journey was followed up in January, 1965, by the visit to Ankara of a Soviet parliamentary delegation—the first to come for 30 years—led by Mr Nikolai Podgorny, a member of the Praesidium. This visit too was a success, though some deputies made an angry protest when he was invited to address the National Assembly. A trade pact between the two countries followed in March. In May, Mr Gromyko, the Soviet Foreign Minister, paid a five-day visit to Turkey, and in August, Mr Ürgüplü, the Prime Minister, paid a return visit to the U.S.S.R. Both occasions were the first of their kind for a generation, and produced a good deal of cordiality. The Soviet Government promised to supply Turkey with credits worth £71 million for a steel works, an oil refinery, and other industrial enterprises. But over Cyprus it was less forthcoming. Friendly references to the banned Turkish Communist Party at the Communist Party Congress in Moscow in March 1966 revived old suspicions of Soviet motives.

FALL OF MR. İNÖNÜ

For all this, Cyprus continued to give the Opposition ammunition with which to harass the İnönü government. At the Senate elections in June, 1964, the Justice Party won 31 out of the 51 seats contested, thus increasing its already large majority in this House. Its success was clouded by the death of the Party's leader, General Gümüşpala. In November Mr Süleyman Demirel, aged 40, a trained engineer and a former Director General of the state water organization was elected leader in his

place though he was without a seat in Parliament. Mr İnönü survived more than one narrow vote of confidence, but was finally brought down on February 13th, 1965 by an adverse vote (225 to 197) in the Assembly on the Budget—the first time that the life of a Turkish government had been ended in this way. There was some speculation whether the Army would allow the Opposition to form a government: the previous November General Sunay, Chief of Staff of the Armed Forces, had warned Justice Party Deputies against criticizing the army. After a short delay, however, a coalition government was formed, made up from the four parties which had been in Opposition—the Justice Party, the New Turkish Party, the Republican Peasants' Party, and the National Party. An independent senator, Mr Saat Ürgüplü, who had spent much of his previous career in diplomacy, headed the team as Prime Minister. Mr Hasan İskik, recently appointed as Ambassador to Moscow, was brought in as Foreign Minister, thereby indicating that the new government intended to continue pursuing better understanding with Russia. There was a sharp exchange with Greece in April, when most of the remaining Greek citizens in Turkey were expelled in retaliation for restrictions imposed on the Turkish community in Nicosia.

Turkey suffered a bitter blow when, in December, the General Assembly of the United Nations passed a resolution urging all states to refrain from intervention in Cyprus. This was seen as directly aimed at Turkey's aid for the Turkish minority there. The Government in Ankara denounced the resolution as being "against right, law, and international agreements". However, in the early months of 1966 the position improved somewhat. Direct contacts between Ankara and Athens led to renewed hopes of a negotiated settlement. Unfortunately nothing had been achieved by the early summer of 1967, when the military coup in Athens led to Turkish fears that Greece was entering a new phase of instability and nationalism.

1965 was election year. The general election of October 11th confirmed the growing popularity of the Justice Party. Winning 240 seats in an Assembly of 450, it achieved a majority over all its rivals. The People's Party was reduced to 134 seats, followed by the extreme right-wing National Party with 31, the New Turkish Party with 19, the Turkish Workers' Party with 15, and the Republican National Peasants' Party with 11 seats. The emergence of an organized party of the left was perhaps even more remarkable than the triumph of the Justice Party, heirs of the Menderes tradition. Contrary to some expectations, the armed forces accepted both these unwelcome manifestations without open protest. On its side the Justice Party confirmed its adherence to the principles of the 1960 revolution.

DEMİREL CABINET

Mr Süleyman Demirel formed his cabinet from members of his own party. Mr Faruk Sükan became Minister of the Interior, and Mr İhsan Çaglayangül Minister for Foreign Affairs. Introducing his government to the Assembly, Mr Demirel declared that its most important task would be to withstand communism "by the realization of social justice and measures of social security". Emphasis was to be put on industrialization. "We have to catch up three centuries in three decades", he said.

In spite of its working majority the Demirel Government proved hardly more successful than its predecessors in getting things done. The Justice Party blamed its poor record of legislation on the obstructionist tactics of the Opposition. There had been filibusters, and several ugly scenes of violence on the floor of the Assembly. However, elections in June 1966 for a third of the seats in the Senate showed that the Justice Party was not losing popularity.

It gained an increased share of the votes and 35 seats, compared with 13 for the People's Party, and one each for four other parties, including the Turkish Workers' Party, which thus became represented in the Senate for the first time.

To some extent this success was attributable to the innate conservatism of the Turkish peasantry, who may have been alarmed by Mr. İnönü's statement that the People's Party was left of centre. This position was not approved by all the party—some thought it went too far, others not far enough. A convention of the party in October showed a victory for the left-wingers. Mr. Bulent Ecevit, 41 years old and a former Minister of Labour, was elected general secretary of the party, with the declared intention of turning it into a party of democratic socialism. Six months later 48 senators and congressmen, led by Mr. Turhan Feyzioğlu, a former Minister, resigned from the party on the grounds that it was falling into a "dangerous leftist adventure". This was denied by Mr. Ecevit and Mr. İnönü, who supported him. They claimed that, on the contrary, their progressive policies took the wind out of other left-wing parties' sails, and so was the best barrier against communism.

In May 1967 a majority of dissidents came together to form the new Reliance Party, which proclaimed its opposition to socialism and its belief in the "spiritual values of the Turkish nation." In June Mr. Ecevit forced a fresh election of the People's Party executive, and by securing the elimination of two left-wing representatives on it he was able to emphasise that his party remained left of centre rather than left wing.

The National Party also found itself in trouble when 8 of its 31 deputies resigned. But the real threat to all parties other than the governing Justice Party was the new electoral law. This, which was finally passed in March 1968 against the protests of a united opposition, did away with the so-called "national remainder system"—a change which threatened the electoral chances of all the smaller parties but was thought to be particularly aimed at the Turkish Workers' Party, which was accused by the Government of using communist tactics. Earlier a battle had been fought over the party's stormy petrel, Çetin Altan. In July 1967 a vote was taken to lift his parliamentary immunity so that he could stand trial on a charge of distributing communist propaganda. This decision was quashed by the constitutional court in August.

At the beginning of February, 1966, President Gürsel, whose health had been deteriorating, was flown to America for medical treatment. There he suffered further strokes, and it was decided that he was no longer competent to fulfill the duties of his office. On March 28th, Senator Cevdet Sunay, the former Chief of Staff, was elected fifth President of the Turkish Republic to replace him. The former President died on September 14th, 1966.

FOREIGN POLICY 1966-1969

Turkey's relations with her allies in 1966 deteriorated. There were various demonstrations against the Americans, culminating in March 1966 in a riot in Adana, during which American buildings were attacked and American cars overturned. This was touched off by rumours that American servicemen, of whom there were large numbers near the town, had made improper advances to Turkish women. But in effect it was the consequence of a long campaign in the press against America's military presence, which reflected a general increase in xenophobia.

Parallel with these manifestations against Turkey's formerly most stalwart ally went an effort by the Demirel Government to make its whole foreign policy more flexible. This flexibility was symbolized by many official visits, given

and received. In May 1967 Mr. Çağlayangil, the Foreign Minister, went to Romania and Bulgaria, and Mr. Rapacki, the Polish Foreign Minister, visited Turkey. In the following spring the Foreign Minister of Egypt, Mahmoud Riad, the Premier of Bulgaria, Mr. Zhivkov, the President of the Yugoslav Executive Council, Mr. Spiljar, and King Hassan of Morocco pressed hard on each other's heels on the road to Ankara. One outcome of the exchanges with Arab leaders was that at the time of the June war with Israel the Turkish Government expressed its sympathy with the Arab cause. But perhaps the state visit which attracted most attention was that of President Sunay to Britain, where he was the guest of Queen Elizabeth—the first Turkish head of state to be so welcomed since Sultan Abdul Aziz exactly 100 years before.

As usual the touchstone of Turkey's foreign relations continued to be Cyprus. In 1967 this perennial problem oscillated between near settlement and near war. The military regime brought to power in Athens by the coup of April 1967 seemed ready to negotiate, and in September a meeting between the two Prime Ministers was held at Alexandroupoulos on the Greco-Turkish frontier in Thrace. A communiqué issued on September 10th, however, at the end of the two-day meeting, made it clear that no agreement had been reached. It spoke only of continuing "the exploration of the possibilities of a rapprochement through the appropriate channels".

Later in the year the situation suddenly deteriorated as a result of attacks by Greek Cypriots on the Turkish enclaves on the island on November 15th. Two days later the National Assembly voted by 432 votes to 1 to authorize the Government to send troops to foreign countries—in other words, to fight in Cyprus. There were daily Turkish flights over the island and the prospects of war seemed real. As a result of strong intervention by American and UN go-betweens the worst was avoided. On December 3rd the Greeks undertook to withdraw their troops from the island and the Turks to take the necessary measures to ease tension. By February 1968 the situation had been so far restored that direct efforts to agree on a negotiated settlement for Cyprus were once again under way.

The principal event affecting foreign policy in 1968 was the state visit paid by General de Gaulle in October. The visit aroused considerable popular interest, and was widely seen as an attempt to restore the French language and culture to its former pre-eminence amongst European influences in Turkey. Since the Second World War it has largely been replaced by Anglo-American influences, and English is now the main foreign language taught in Turkey. A new defence agreement with the U.S. was signed in March 1969, which increased and clarified Turkish control over the American bases.

HOME AFFAIRS 1968-70

The basic factors underlying the Turkish political scene came to the surface during recent years. First amongst these factors is the conservatism of a large majority of the Turkish people, principally the peasants; this majority never accepted the necessity of the 1960 revolution, still mourns the execution of Adnan Menderes, and has transferred its support to the ruling Justice Party. Atatürk's reforms were to a considerable extent imposed upon Turkey by his Republican People's Party and the Army; the party is now the principal opposition group in Parliament but has little chance of regaining power by democratic methods, given the traditionalist outlook of the rural electorate. The R.P.P. leadership follows a moderate reformist policy but has recently been overtaken as a radical force by numerous left-wing elements, some within its ranks, some in the Turkish Workers Party and some independent. These elements command substantial support

in the main cities, especially amongst students and youth in general, and have been campaigning for socialism and other far reaching domestic reforms, withdrawal from NATO, and the abolition of the American bases in Turkey. In recent years the main visible result of this campaign has been a series of anti-American riots led by extremists. These have now been countered by right wing extremist groups with passionate Muslim and nationalist convictions.

The Turkish democracy, already threatened by this polarization of political feeling, faced a fresh crisis in May 1969. The Justice Party had introduced a Bill to restore political rights to the leaders of its predecessor, the Democratic Party, and the Bill had passed its initial parliamentary stages by large majorities which included most of the R P P members. Yet the Bill was withdrawn after the armed forces had made their opposition to it very clear, thus the implied threat of a military coup d'état was generally thought to have been responsible for the withdrawal and the natural conclusions about the limits of democratic authority in Turkey were widely drawn. Nevertheless there was some suspicion that political manoeuvring with an eye on the elections due in October was at least partly responsible for the crisis.

FALL OF DEMIREL GOVERNMENT

The 1969 elections duly granted Mr Demirel's Justice Party another term in office, however, in February 1970 the government resigned after 41 right wing Justice Party members had joined the opposition to vote against the budget. A general election was called for June, but cancelled after the National Assembly gave a vote of confidence to a slightly changed Demirel ministry. Sixteen of the 41 rebels were expelled from the Justice Party for a year, which left the government without an absolute majority and thus in a weak position to deal with the unrest that subsequently developed due mainly to rising taxation and prices. This unrest led to labour and more significantly, student agitation which brought about the imposition of

martial law in Istanbul and Izmir during June. Growing dissatisfaction with the government caused the situation to grow steadily worse towards the end of the year, by which time clashes between left wing and right wing students or between students and police were regular occurrences, and several people had been killed. Measures aimed at restricting political activity and preventing "violence and anarchy" were introduced into the National Assembly but none dealt successfully with the growing crisis, which was further aggravated by Kurdish separatists and by the establishment of an extreme left wing underground urban guerrilla movement known as the Turkish People's Liberation Army. In December further resignations from the Justice Party brought Mr Demirel's majority to one resigning members later forming their own Democratic Party in opposition.

The disturbances continued into 1971, and in March military leaders presented the Demirel government with an ultimatum stating that it had "driven the country to anarchy, fratricidal strife and social and economic unrest", and demanding the formation of a "strong and credible government", otherwise the armed forces would take over the administration of the state. Mr Demirel resigned and new government, with fifteen ministers from outside the National Assembly, was formed under Professor Nihat Erim, promising the restoration of public order and extensive reforms of education, finance, laws, agriculture and land. However, student violence and urban guerrilla activities increased during April with kidnappings, bank raids and clashes between students and police, and martial law was proclaimed in eleven of the country's 67 provinces for one month (extended by two months in May and July). It failed to prevent further kidnappings and the murder of the Israeli Consul both by the People's Liberation Army. However, the disturbances gradually subsided, and in June the government announced certain constitutional amendments aimed at a long term settlement of the situation.

ECH.

ECONOMIC SURVEY

Turkey is about 900 miles long and some 300 miles wide, covering an area of 780,576 sq kilometres. The 1965 census recorded a population of 31,400,000, an increase of 2.5 per cent annually since 1960. In mid 1969 the population was estimated at 34,395,000. Two thirds of the population live in rural areas. Of the seventeen cities with a population of more than 50,000, the largest and best known are the former capital of Istanbul (2.7 million), the port of Izmir (1.4 million) on the Aegean Sea, and the capital Ankara (over 2 million).

The country possesses great natural advantages: the land yields good grain and a wide variety of fruit and other products, it is rich in minerals; and it has a number of natural ports. The climate is varied and, on the whole, favourable, but communications are hindered by the mountain ranges that ring the Anatolian plateau to the north, east and south.

In the Europe of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries Turkish manufactures, such as textiles, were in great demand, but the Ottoman Empire failed to keep pace with the industrial development of the West. As production costs were lowered through machine production, Turkish handwork was swept off the market, even in Turkey, and the country returned to agriculture.

When the republic was founded in 1923, industrial development was undertaken, and textiles, cement and paper were among the first industries to be established. Between 1923 and 1941 the number of industrial establishments increased from 118 to 1,052. During this period the government's policy was one of "etatisme", aimed chiefly at the development of heavy industry. Its main instruments were two state "holding" companies, the Etbank and the Sümerbank, and much was achieved through them. In the post war years there was a marked decline in economic impetus, it was not until after the victory of the Democratic Party in 1950 that the situation began to be transformed.

Under the Menderes regime, free enterprise was encouraged and there was a considerable private investment in industrial undertakings. Some government monopolies were returned to private hands, and state economic undertakings went into partnership with new enterprises formed with both domestic and foreign private capital. At the same time, there was large-scale official investment in public works schemes, notably in expanding electric power production and communications, with the result that the pace of development was greatly increased. The proportion of national income diverted to investment averaged 12 to 15 per cent between 1950 and 1959.

The Government made great efforts to speed up development and put through a vast industrialisation programme. But the consequences of such rapid development with its high level of investment, were serious. Difficulties first made themselves felt in the autumn of 1952, and a severe economic crisis had arisen by the end of 1955. Capital development outran resources, and large imports of heavy industrial goods and machinery, not offset by a corresponding expansion in exports, produced a series of foreign trade deficits, with a consequent acute shortage of foreign exchange, in spite of considerable financial assistance from the United States. At home this led to strong inflationary pressure and high prices. The situation was aggravated by a succession of indifferent harvests and by low export prices for chromium and copper. Another contribution to Turkey's difficulties was the high prices paid to farmers, resulting in wheat and other agricultural produce being offered at higher than world prices. To this must be added the fact that Turkey has met heavy defence commitments, nearly 40 per cent of recent budgetary expenditure having been devoted to this purpose.

In an endeavour to combat inflation and reduce pressure on the country's slender reserves, the Government introduced a number of restrictive measures in 1955 and 1956. These included tight controls over liquidity, credit and foreign trade and strict profit margins. However, inflation continued and the trade position deteriorated still further so that in 1958 further controls were introduced. The 1958 stabilisation programme was aimed at correcting the external imbalance by restricting imports and fighting inflation. The most important measures were credit restrictions, the reduction of non-essential investment and the effective devaluation of the Turkish lira. However, the Government's heart was not in its policies and they were not fully applied or completely effective. The Revolutionary Government showed more determination, imposed even more stringent controls and in August 1960 devalued the Turkish lira. The exchange rate remained at £T 25.27 to the £ sterling until the devaluation of sterling in November 1967, which brought the rate to £T 21.6 to the £ sterling. A tourist rate of £T 28.8 to the £ sterling (£T 12 to U.S. \$1) was later introduced; both rates were superseded by a new rate of £T 36 to the £ sterling (£T 15 to the U.S. \$1) which was announced in August 1970.

The stabilization programme was continued after 1961 with some success; restrictive measures were gradually being relaxed, though some imports were still limited. Investment policy was then co-ordinated in the Five-Year Plan (1962-67), which called for an annual investment of 18 per cent of gross national product (against an average of under 16 per cent in recent years) to a final total investment of £T 59,646 million. It aimed at an annual increase in the Turkish national income of some 7 per cent a year. A second Five-Year Plan (1968-72) followed, again aiming at a 7 per cent annual rise in the gross national product: total investment in it was set at £T 111,500 million, in annual instalments which will rise to £T 29,000 million by the last year of the Plan.

By 1970, it was apparent, however, that the continuing high and largely-unconsolidated investment had given rise to severe problems in the Turkish economy—one indication of which was the above-mentioned devaluation of the Turkish lira. Adding to the difficulties was a modest agricultural harvest with crop yield in many critical areas at or below the 1969 level. In order to remedy this situation, the government introduced a number of internal measures designed to increase exports earnings, particularly in the agricultural sector, to control the expansion of credit and to maintain an orderly supply and demand situation.

AGRICULTURE

Turkey is still predominantly an agricultural country; two-thirds of her people depend on the land for their living. By 1967 the area sown had expanded to 26 million hectares at the expense of pasturage (and livestock yields) which dropped from 37 million hectares in 1951 to 26.1 million hectares in 1967. The cultivated area has, however, stagnated since 1963. Most of the farms are small and the average size of a family farm is about nineteen acres. Agricultural resources are varied and rich in quality, and in normal years the country is practically self-sufficient in foodstuffs (except wheat), while tobacco, cotton, and dried fruits are among the principal exports.

During the 1950s large U.S. credits contributed to agricultural development. Agricultural production increased, but as a result of a larger acreage yields, and productivity remained steady. Guaranteed prices for wheat, sugar-beet and tobacco encouraged the cultivation of low-yield crops. The main object of the first Five-Year Plan was to modernize farming methods and to raise yields, to extend the area under irrigation, to provide essential equipment and fertilizers and, above all, to teach modern farming techniques. The second Five-Year Plan emphasizes the extension of these programmes, particularly as regards irrigation and mechanization.

Nine-tenths of the cultivated areas are devoted to cereals, the most important of which, wheat, makes up about half the total grain production. The principal wheat-growing area is the central Anatolian plateau, but the uncertain climate causes wide fluctuations in production. Barley, rye and oats are other important crops grown on the central plateau. Maize is grown along the Black Sea coastal regions, and leguminous crops in the Izmir hinterland. Rice, normally sufficient for domestic needs, is grown in various parts of the country. Since 1966, the wheat crop has fluctuated between 9.5 and 1.5 million tons a year, the higher figure being reached as a result of the record harvest in 1969 which was not challenged by that won in 1970.

Cotton has only recently been taken seriously by Turkey, but its cultivation, mainly in the Izmir region and in the district round Adana, in southern Turkey, has been successful and great hopes are placed in it. Production has risen from under 200,000 tons in 1960 to 435,000 tons in 1968, with the result that cotton has become Turkey's single most profitable agricultural export. In 1970, cotton earned \$173 million, when nearly 350,000 tons were exported.

Turkey produces a particularly fine type of tobacco. The three principal producing regions are the Aegean district, the Black Sea coast, and the Marmara-Thrace region. The bulk of the crop is produced in the Aegean region, where the tobacco is notable for its light golden colour and mild taste. The finest tobacco is grown on the Black Sea coast, around Samsun. Traditionally Turkey's chief export, tobacco accounts for nearly one-quarter of Turkey's foreign trade earnings, although this proportion has been decreasing in recent years. Exports in 1970 were worth \$78.6 million, most of which came from buyers in the United States and East European countries. The size of the crop fluctuates considerably: in 1967 it reached a record level of 183,000 tons, but by 1969 production had fallen off to only 127,000 tons. Provisional figures for 1970 show a slight recovery to about 150,000 tons.

The coastal area of the Aegean, with mild winters and hot, dry summers produce the grape, fig and the olive. The outstanding product, however, is the sultana type of raisin, which is grown also in California and elsewhere. Turkey normally ranks second in the world as a sultana producer, but in good years such as 1961 and 1962, and

1968 (when the crop exceeded 100 000 tons) becomes the largest producer in the world. In 1970 some 70 000 tons of sultanas were exported with a total value of \$21 million.

The Black Sea area notably around the Giresun and Trabzon produces the greatest quantity of hazel nuts (filberts) of any region in the world in 1970—which was again a modest harvest—a total of 64 000 tons of hazel nuts were produced for export with a value of \$87 million. Substantial amounts of walnuts and almonds are also grown.

Tea is grown at the eastern end of the Black Sea around Rize and in other areas. Production from state tea plantations was more than 51 000 tons in 1970 of which nearly 18 000 tons went for domestic consumption.

Turkey is also an important producer of oilseeds: the principal varieties grown being sunflower, cotton, sesame and linseed. Output has expanded considerably reaching nearly one million tons in 1969.

Opium is grown in the provinces of Afyon, Izmir, Amasya and Malatya and Turkey is one of the seven countries with the right to export opium under the UN Commission on Narcotic Drugs. Much opium is, however, exported illegally particularly to the US and Iran partly as a result of pressure from these two countries. The Turkish Government has initiated a campaign to abolish opium growing by 1975. A large number of medicinal plants grow wild but only a limited number including hognose are cultivated. Experiments in coffee-growing are being conducted in southern Turkey.

Sheep and cattle are raised on the grazing lands of the Anatolian plateau. Stock raising forms an important branch of the economy. The sheep population of about 34 000 000 is mainly of the Karaman type and is used primarily as a source of meat and milk. The bulk of the clip comprises coarse wool suitable only for carpets, blankets and poorer grades of clothing fabric but efforts have been made in recent years to encourage breeding for wool and there are some 200 000 Merino sheep in the Bursa region.

The Angora goat produces the fine soft wool known as mohair. Turkey is the second largest producer of mohair in the world: production averages 9 000 tons per annum.

Livestock production accounts for around 30 per cent of agricultural output and roughly 10 per cent of GNP. Increased production is aimed at under the Plans to cater for expected growth in home demand and also in export markets.

MINERALS

Turkey has a diversity of rich mineral resources and these are an important item in the country's foreign trade. Between 1964 and 1968 mining production rose by some 33 per cent. An investment of £14 million is planned during the second plan with the biggest increases in production expected from copper, ore, petroleum and iron ore.

Turkey's mineral resources have not been measured accurately but investigations are being carried out in all parts of the country by the Mineral Research and Exploration Institute of Turkey (MTA). The MTA recently discovered fresh iron ore deposits and an important concentration of uranium.

The mines are mainly controlled by private enterprise except for coal and iron ore. The more important State mining institutions are controlled by the Etibank, which works through its subsidiaries: Ereğli Coal Mines, East Chromium Mines, Turkish Copper, Keban Lead Mines and Keçiözü Sulphur Mines. The Maden Kredi Bankası (Mining Credits Bank) was set up in 1958 to extend credit

to the industry and a Mining Investment Bank was set up in 1962 to provide funds to increase production and productivity. The Turkish Mining Bank Corporation was set up in 1969 with Treasury support to provide long and medium term credit for private mining development.

Bituminous coal is found at and around Zonguldak on the Black Sea coast. The seams are steeply inclined, much folded and strongly faulted. The coal is generally mined by the longwall system or a variation of it. These mines constitute the Etibank's largest operation and the coal field is the largest in this part of the world including the Balkans. Most of the seams are of good coking quality, the coke being used in the steel mills at nearby Karabük. Production has risen from around 6 000 000 tons in 1962 to nearly 8 000 000 tons in 1970.

Lignite is found in many parts of central and western Anatolia. Seams located in western Turkey are operated by the West Lignite Mines whose marketable production now exceeds 2 000 000 tons. Their reserves are estimated at some 1 500 million tons. Total lignite production in 1970 was nearly 9 million tons compared with a production of 8.5 million tons in 1969. The main mines in addition to those operated by West Lignite Mines are at Soma, Degirmisaz and Tunçbilek.

Practically all of Turkish iron ore comes from the Divriği mine situated between Sivas and Erzurum in the north east of the country. The mine was founded in 1939 and transferred to the administration of the Turkish Iron and Steel Corporation in 1955. The average grade of ore is from 60 to 66 per cent reserves have been put at 28 million tons. Yearly output is regulated according to the demands of the Karabük Iron and Steel Works some 600 miles distant to which some 2 million tons of refined ore was transported in 1970.

Turkey is one of the world's largest producers of chrome. The mineral was first discovered in 1848 near Bursa in the area around Marmara. Chrome deposits have since been discovered in more than 120 different locations. The richest deposits are in Guleman south eastern Turkey in the vicinity of Iskenderun in the area around Eskişehir, north-west Anatolia and between Etye and Antalya on the Mediterranean coast. The Guleman mines producing 25 per cent of the country's total are operated by East Chromium Mines under Etibank. Other mines are owned and worked by private enterprise. Little chromium is used domestically and the mineral is the greatest foreign exchange earner among mining exports. Production rose to a record figure of 689 000 tons in 1966 but this output was not approached again until 1969 when production was 662 270 tons. In 1970 chrome ore production decreased even so some 500 000 tons with a market value of nearly \$13 million was exported.

Copper has been mined in Turkey since ancient times. Present day production conducted entirely by Etibank comes from the Ergani Mines situated at Maden in Elazığ and the Morgul Copper Mine at Borçka in Çoruh province. The latter mine is smaller but is equipped with more modern plant. A third copper complex is planned for Samsun on the Black Sea coast: it will include a 400 000 ton refinery in which the Industrial Development Bank of Turkey and a number of other commercial banks will have the controlling interest. Present annual production of blister and refined copper is steady at about 70 000 tons most of which is exported to West Germany, the United Kingdom and the United States. Known reserves of copper ore (refined) is thought to be some 700 000 tons on which basis an annual production rate of some 50 000 tons is forecast by the mid 1970s.

Eskişehir in north west Anatolia is the world's centre of meerschaum mining. Meerschaum, a soft white mineral

which hardens on exposure to the sun and looks like ivory, has long been used by Turkish craftsmen for pipes and cigarette-holders, to which may now be added various items of costume jewellery.

Manganese, magnesite, lead, sulphur, salt, asbestos, antimony, zinc and mercury are important mineral resources. Of these, manganese ranks first in importance. Deposits, worked by private enterprise, are found in many parts of the country, but principally near Eskişehir and in the Ereğli district. Lead is mined at Keban, west of Elazığ, test production having started in 1953; production fluctuates considerably and in 1968 reached nearly 10,000 tons of ore concentrate. Production of sulphur from the Keçiborlu mine in Isparta province was over 25,000 tons in 1970. Antimony is mined in small quantities near Balıkesir and Niğde.

The exploration of the Uludağ (Bursa) wolfram deposits, begun in 1951, was completed in 1954. The presence was calculated of 10,000 tons of tungsten ore, carrying an average grade of 0.43 per cent WO_3 . These reserves are among the richest in the world. Etibank and the German firm of Krupp have entered into an agreement for the joint exploitation of the deposits.

Turkey's bauxite deposits are about to be developed for the first time. An aluminium complex is being built at Kayseri with Soviet help. The plant will produce 200,000 tons annually of alumina and 60,000 tons of aluminium. Studies are being undertaken concerning the possible exploitation of lead, zinc and pyrites deposits.

Petroleum. Oil was first struck in Turkey in 1950 and all subsequent strikes have been in the same area in the south-east of the country. Production rose from 2,401,000 tons in 1966 to 3,600,000 in 1969; it now meets about half of total Turkish requirements. Four companies produce oil: (1) the Turkish Petroleum Corporation (TPAO), a 51 per cent state-sponsored Turkish company, at Garzan and Ramandağ, with recently discovered deposits at Mağrip, Batıraman and Kurtalan and the smaller fields at Kurtalan and Çelikli; (2) Mobil at Bulgurdağ, Silivanka and Selmo; (3) Shell at Kayaköy, Kurkan, Beykan and Sahaban; and (4) Ersan, a small private Turkish company, at Kahta. Recent discoveries are reported by the Turkish Government to have raised the country's reserves to some 500 million tons.

The largest oil refinery in Turkey, at Mersin, came on stream in June 1962. Built at a cost of \$50 million, it was capable of processing 3,200,000 tons of crude oil a year, now raised to 4,700,000 tons. It is operated by the Anatolian Refinery Company (ATAŞ), a Turkish-registered company owned by Mobil, Shell and BP. Fifteen per cent of the crude oil processed comes from the Mobil field at Bulgurdağ and the Shell field at Karaköy; the remainder is imported from Iraq and Libya. The one million ton refinery at İzmit owned by Caltex and the Turkish Petroleum Corporation came on stream in 1961. The capacity of this refinery has been raised to 2.2 million tons per annum and is now being expanded to 5.5 million tons per annum. The TPAO operates a 660,000 tons per annum refinery at Batman, near Diyarbakır, connected by pipeline to both Garzan and Ramandağ. Its capacity is being expanded to 800,000 tons per annum. A Soviet loan is being made for a fourth refinery, which is being built at İzmir with a 3 million ton per annum capacity and is due for completion in 1971. At present, two further refineries are planned, at Thrace, and at a site on the Black Sea.

A 310-mile 18-inch diameter pipeline has been built for TPAO and came into operation in January 1967. It runs from the oilfields around Batman to Dörtöyl on the Gulf of Iskenderun. Capacity is 70,000 bbl./day but throughput is only expected to reach about 50,000 bbl./day. Other companies use the pipeline on a tariff basis.

INDUSTRY

Since 1950 there has been a change in the republic's policy of relying on state enterprise to build up industry, and private enterprise has been enrolled in the expansion of industrial undertakings and the creation of new ones. As a result, the private sector now accounts for about 70 per cent of Turkey's industry: its rate of capital investments, in spite of government domination of the heavy industry sector, has been maintained at about 46 per cent. No attempt, however, has been made to denationalize the large state concerns; instead the government is being encouraged to reorganize them in order to increase productivity. An important aspect of this process is decentralization, in order to better define the administrative roles of the government-owned Sümer and İti Banks and the Machine and Chemical Industries Association.

The iron and steel works at Karabük, north-west Anatolia, formerly owned and controlled by the Sümerbank, are run by an independent enterprise, the Turkish Iron and Steel Corporation (Türkiye Demir ve Çelik İşletmeleri), which has taken over the whole of the iron and steel industry. Capacity is 325,000 tons, which could be raised eventually to 600,000 tons.

The first stage of a second iron and steel complex at Ereğli in west Anatolia was completed in 1965, with an initial annual capacity of 500,000 tons, to be raised eventually to 1,500,000 tons. Built at a cost of \$280 million with the help of large U.S. loans, it produces hot and cold rolled sheets, steel strip and tinplate, and employs 2,600 men. It is expected to cover Turkey's needs and allow some exports. An Istanbul company plans to set up a third, but smaller plant at Edremit on the Sea of Marmara, in conjunction with an Italian company. A U.S. credit of \$22.3 million will help finance extensions to the Ereğli steelworks. A 1 million ton per annum steelworks at İskenderun is to be built with the aid of Soviet credits.

Adana and Kayseri are the chief centres of cotton textile manufacturing, the Sümerbank's factory at Kayseri being the largest textile plant in the Middle East. Cotton is an important export, but increasingly larger quantities are being consumed by the rapidly growing textile industry and the remaining hand looms.

At present, Turkey produces approximately 80 per cent of her requirements of woollen cloth. The industry is located chiefly in Istanbul and İzmir.

The Bursa region is famous for its silk industry and there are linen factories at Ereğli and Malatya.

There are over two dozen cement factories in Turkey: more are under construction or planned. Their combined production in 1970 was 6,373,215 tons, considerably more than double production in 1961 but still barely enough for domestic consumption.

Among food industries, the state-controlled sugar-beet industry is the most important. The first refinery began operations in 1926; three more were built by 1950 and more than a dozen since. Beet sugar production in 1970 totalled 668,827 tons, less than in 1968 but adequate for domestic demand and with a small surplus for export.

Turkey has three paper mills, one wood- and two straw- and rag-pulp mills. Three new plants have recently been completed. Production of paper was 109,000 tons in 1967. There are two fertilizer plants, at İskenderun and Kutahya. A fertilizer plant is being built to use by-products from the Mersin oil refinery as well as plants at Samsun and Elazığ. Other manufacturing industries include ceramics, glassware, lorry and tractor manufacturing, leather goods,

pharmaceutical, rubber and plastic products. In 1962 a ferro-chrome factory opened, two tyre factories began operations in 1963. Fiat and Renault are building car factories. The first stage of a state-owned petro-chemical complex at İzmit produces ethylene, polythene, PVC, chlorine and caustic soda. Expansion is planned into the manufacture of other products. In addition there are the state monopolies which have exclusive right to the manufacture of tobacco, wines, spirits, liqueurs, salt and tea.

Power. There has been an extensive development of electrical energy, electrical production doubled between 1950 and 1955 and is now nearly 9,000 million kWh. a year. Hydroelectric power has already shared in this expansion. In 1950 it represented 4 per cent of total power output and in 1963 nearly 60 per cent, but this proportion had fallen to about 45 per cent by 1968. The planned increase in output is expected to come mainly from plants at Hıranlı, Demirkıprı, Kemer, Sarıyar and Seyhan.

More important than any of these however will be Turkey's most ambitious power project, the Euphrates dam at Keban on which work started early in 1966. The 670 ft. high dam will hold back a lake 70 miles long at the confluence of the two main branches of the Euphrates. The plant will have an initial capacity of 620,000 kW, rising to 1,240,000 kW. by 1972. The power generated will go firstly through a 400-mile grid system to the industries of the north western part of the country, but it is intended that the dam will also serve as the power basis for the development of the eastern part of Turkey, which in the past has lagged in industrial and agricultural wealth. Another important hydroelectric station is being built at Gökçekaya and the plant at Ambarlı near Istanbul is being extended.

FINANCE AND TRADE

Banking and Currency. The Central Bank (Merkez Bankası) the sole bank of issue, started its operations on October 3rd, 1937. It controls exchange operations and ensures the monetary requirements of certain state enterprises by the discounting of bonds issued by these establishments and guaranteed by the Treasury.

There are 51 other banks, thirteen are state-controlled and operate under special legislation to promote governmental industrial, agricultural and other plans. The largest of these are the Agricultural Bank (Ziraat Bankası), concerned with the development of agriculture, the Emlak Kredi Bankası, a mortgage loan bank, the Şişmebankası, founded in 1933 to develop and control government industry, the Etibank, founded in 1935 to develop mines and market minerals, and expand bulk power supply, the İller Bankası (Provincial Bank) and the Denizcilik Bankası (Maritime Bank), founded in 1952 to run the mercantile marine.

Among leading private banks are the Industrial Development Bank of Turkey, founded in 1950 to promote private industrial enterprise with the help of the International Bank and such commercial banks as Akbank (1948), Demirbank (1953), İş Bankası (1924), and Yapı ve Kredi Bankası (1944). One new commercial bank, Raybank, was formed in 1956, with a nominal capital of £14,000,000.

The monetary unit is the kuruş (pastre) by the law of April 1916. The Turkish lira (pound), which is, in practice, employed as the monetary unit, is made up of 100 kuruş.

Public Finance. The principal sources of budgetary revenue are income and wealth tax, transaction tax, customs, consumption tax and revenues from State monopolies. From the beginning of 1962 agricultural incomes were taxed for the first time in recent history.

For the fiscal year 1970 (ending February 1971) estimated total budgetary revenue was £128,260 million, against which expenditure totalling some £130,117 million were to be set. About £11,000 million was allocated for investment expenditure by the public sector, a roughly equal amount going for current expenditures. Some indication of the growth rate which these figures reflect may be seen by comparing them with the fiscal year 1968 budget (ending February 1969) in which expenditures were £121,600 million and revenue £121,000 million.

Foreign Investments. Legislation encouraging foreign private capital was promulgated in 1950 and 1951 but proved inadequate. It was superseded by the Law for the Promotion of Foreign Capital Investments of January 1953 currently in force. This enables foreign investors to export profits and original capital. Subsequently, foreign investors have joined Turkish interests in industrial projects and plants have been set up to manufacture tractors, tyres, trucks, diesel motors, electrical equipment and other goods. Part of the Tuzla area of Istanbul was declared a 'free zone' in 1958, enabling foreign companies in the zone to manufacture products for export without paying taxes or duties on them.

Foreign Trade. Before and during World War II, Turkish foreign trade figures showed a surplus of exports over imports. Since 1947 this position has been reversed, and the demands of Turkey's economic development, especially since 1950, have inflated the imports bill without making equivalent short term additions to the country's exporting strength. However, until recently the trade situation was improving—the total deficit shrank from \$320 million in 1963 to \$113 million in 1965. This favourable trend was due to import controls and to the high prices then fetched by copper, tobacco and cotton. But in 1966 the deficit more than doubled to \$232 million despite a record \$490 million export total. Unusually large imports for the development plan, particularly of capital goods, are held responsible for this. Exports under bilateral trade agreements with Russia and other east European countries increased from \$60 million in 1964 to \$87 million in 1965.

That such efforts have only managed to keep pace with the growth in Turkey's imports is easily seen in the 1970 trade figures, however. Although exports totalled a record \$360 million imports stood at \$950 million leaving a trading deficit of \$360 million.

The main exports by value in 1970 were cotton (\$175 million), hazel nuts (\$87 million) and tobacco (\$80 million). principal imports by value were boilers and machinery (\$275 million), assorted minerals (\$120 million), transportation equipment (\$113 million), miscellaneous raw and finished goods (\$106 million) and chemical products (\$75 million). By area most of Turkey's 1970 exports went to the member countries of the European Economic Community and the European Free Trade Area (\$240 million and \$105 million respectively) and the East Bloc (\$84 million). Imports came primarily from the EEC (\$325 million), the dollar area (\$221 million) and EFTA countries (\$165 million) and the East Bloc (\$115 million).

An agreement with the European Economic Community was signed in September 1963 under which Turkey enters into a preparatory association with the Six for at least five years. During this time it will be given \$175 million in aid and will benefit from customs concessions on its main agricultural exports. The annual export quotas are tobacco 12,500 tons, figs 13,000 tons, sultanas 30,000 tons, and hazelnuts 17,000 tons. In each case the quota is a little below the past average of exports to the EEC and further increases depend on the agreement of the EEC members and Greece. Eventually, it is hoped to enter into full associate membership of the Community.

Planning. In 1960 the State Planning Organization was established. The first Five-Year Plan (1962-67) envisaged a total investment of £T 59,646 million; this is the equivalent of some 18 per cent of the gross national product over the period. It aimed at a 7 per cent annual rate of growth in G.N.P. from £T 53,000 million in 1962 to £T 74,000 million in 1967. Housing received the largest proportion of investment (20.3 per cent); agriculture was allocated £T 10,548 million (17.7 per cent), followed by manufacturing (16.9 per cent) and transport and communications (13.7 per cent). The State aimed to provide the larger part of investment in agriculture, whereas in the manufacturing sector private investment predominated. The object of the plan was to increase annual manufacturing production by 13 per cent and to establish a balanced industrial structure.

Private investment rose rapidly during the years of the first plan, reaching satisfactory levels. However, the distribution of this investment was not wholly in accordance with the planners' wishes. The traditional sectors of the economy, such as light consumer goods industries and certain services, were over-emphasized and not enough attention was paid to capital-intensive industries such as machinery and chemicals.

Foreign exchange aid for the First Plan was mostly directed through the Aid for Turkey consortium, set up under the auspices of the OECD in 1972. It was composed of the United States, Britain, Canada, the members of the European Economic Community, Sweden, Austria, Norway, Switzerland and Denmark; aid provided by the consortium was in the region of \$1,500 million.

During the years of the First Plan, a real growth rate of 6.6 per cent per annum was achieved. Over 90 per cent of the scheduled investment targets were reached, private sector investment exceeding its target share of 40 per cent of total investment by a considerable margin.

THE SECOND PLAN

The second Five-Year Plan, covering the years 1968 to 1972, envisages an annual growth rate of 7 per cent—the same as that targeted for the First Plan. Investment is planned to reach £T 17,000 million in 1969 and to rise by some 11 per cent annually to nearly £T 29,000 million by 1972. Total investment through the Second Plan is expected to be £T 111,500 million from both the public and the private sectors. Foreign aid needs are expected to be less than in the First Plan. Overseas loans of some \$247 million in 1968 are expected to fall only about \$229 million in 1972. The long-term target if self-sustained economic growth, i.e. independent of foreign loans is planned to materialize by the next plan. In addition, a substantial increase in revenues from foreign exchange is sought; for this reason heavy emphasis is now placed on export opportunities and import substitution.

The emphasis of the second plan is on industrial development and the reduction of the dependence of agriculture on weather conditions. Of total investment 22.4 per cent is allocated to manufacturing industry, a sum double the amount realized between 1963 and 1967 when certain projects were delayed. Priority is now to be given to chemicals, fertilizers, iron and steel, paper, petroleum, cement and vehicle tyres, in order to replace imports and to provide the basis for long-term industrialization. Second priority is given to the manufacture of machinery and equipment which will receive top priority in the next plan. It is planned to invest the same sum in agriculture as under the first plan, with the emphasis on irrigation and machinery.

Government investment will concentrate on the infrastructure and education and health. Manufacturing industry will be mainly the responsibility of the private sector but the government will help out, if the private sector proves reluctant.

C.L.R.

STATISTICAL SURVEY

AREA AND POPULATION

TOTAL AREA	THRACE	ANATOLIA	POPULATION (1970 Census)	WORKERS ABROAD (1970 provisional)
780 576 sq km	23 721 sq km	756 855 sq km	35 666 549	400 000

CHIEF TOWNS

POPULATION (1970 estimate)

Ankara (capital)	1 208 791	Samsun	134 272
Istanbul	2 247 630	Sivas	132 527
Izmir	520 686	Balıkesir	85 032
Adana	351 655	Zonguldak	72 688
Bursa	275 917	Manisa	70 022
Konya	200 760	Kars	53 473
Erzurum	134 655		

EMPLOYMENT*

(1969)

	PERSONS EMPLOYED		
	Male	Female	Total
Agriculture Forestry Hunting and Fishing	68 040	30 180	98 220
Mining and Quarrying	12 000	420	12 420
Manufacturing	504 120	62 100	566 220
Construction	99 300	660	99 960
Electricity Gas Water and Sanitary Services	7 800	720	8 520
Commerce Banking Insurance and Real Estate	351 840	34 200	386 040
Transport Storage and Communication	154 560	9 180	163 740
Services	399 180	95 220	494 400
Activities not Adequately Described Unknown and Persons without Occupations	52 260	2 640	54 900
TOTAL	1 649 100	235 320	1 884 420

*Data covers only cities with over 50 000 population total agricultural employment in 1965 was estimated at 9 764 000 Unemployed people are included under their prior occupation

WORKERS ABROAD (1970)

German Federal Republic	373 000
Belgium	8 500
Netherlands	27 200
Austria	13 682
Switzerland	6 502

Remittances sent back to Turkey by workers abroad			
1966	US \$115 334 000	1969	US \$140 636 057
1967	US \$93 000 000	1970	US \$273 020 778
1968	US \$107 318 349		

AGRICULTURE
UTILIZATION OF LAND

	AREA ('000 hectares)				
	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969
Area under cultivation	23,556	23,982	23,836	24,092	24,731
Meadows and grazing lands	28,232	28,013	26,135	n.a.	n.a.
Market gardens and truck farms, orchards, olive groves, vineyards, etc.	2,305	2,384	2,414	2,976	3,012
Forests	10,584	10,584	12,578	18,273	18,273
Unproductive area	13,096	13,095	13,095	n.a.	n.a.

PRINCIPAL CROPS

CROP	AREA ('000 hectares)			PRODUCTION ('000 metric tons)		
	1967	1968	1969	1968	1969	1970
Cereals:						
Wheat	8,000	8,250	8,660	9,520	10,500	10,000
Rye	735	690	655	820	817	630
Barley	2,725	2,730	2,687	3,560	3,740	3,250
Oats	390	365	351	450	468	415
Maize	675	655	659	1,000	1,000	1,040
Millet and sorghum	42	40	39	53	56	56
Vegetables:						
Dry beans	106	107	110	135	138	138
Broad beans	35	33	35	43	45	39
Chick peas	85	90	90	102	111	109
Lentils	100	99	103	96	107	92
Potatoes	150	148	157	1,805	1,936	1,915
Industrial and other crops:						
Cotton:						
Lint	718	713	639	{ 435	400	400
Seed				{ 696	640	640
Tobacco	297	273	273	161	127	147
Sugar beet	150	127	n.a.	4,716	3,356	4,254
Hemp:						
Seed	9	10	8	{ 4	3	3
Fibre				{ 9	8	8
Sesame seed	60	80	67	50	41	36
Sunflower seed	215	240	286	230	310	375
Flax: Fibre	18	16	17	{ 4	4	1
Seed				{ 12	12	7
Olives*	67,450	72,280	n.a.	{ 822	308	681
Olive oil				{ 159	54	118
Opium: Gum	21	13	n.a.	{ 0.125	0.127	0.06
Seed				{ 8	11	8

* Number of trees.

TURKEY—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

FRUIT

		1967	1968	1969	1970
Pears	tons	165 000	180 000	160 000	180 000
Apples		640 000	700 000	620 000	748 000
Figs Fresh		232 000	215 000	215 000	214 000
Grapes		3 500 000	3 725 000	3 635 000	3 850 000
Walnuts		88 000	96 000	84 000	103 000
Lemons		90 000	130 000	121 494	126 000
Oranges		380 000	476 000	414 100	445 000

LIVESTOCK

(000 head)

	1967	1968	1969		1967	1968	1969
Horses	1 183	1 151	1 110	Sheep	35 878	36 587	36 351
Asses	1 965	1 986	1 938	Goats	20 659	20 637	20 267
Mules	259	273	291	Buffaloes	1 248	1 257	1 178
Cattle	14 165	13 761	13 189	Camels	43	42	39
Hens	30 387	32 020	32 313				

MINING

(000 tons)

MINERAL	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970*
Copper Blister and Refined	26 6	25 4	26 6	19 3	27 1
Chrome Ore	707 0	632 2	606 9	662 3	695 8
Iron Ore	1 660 9	1 553 2	2 223 4	2 502 4	2 951 0
Coal	7 382	7 469	7 506	7 743 3	7 598 3
Lignite	6 571 2	6 650	8 078 7	8 538 3	8 712 7
Manganese	23 8	41 9	25 3	13 7	13 9
Petroleum	2 041	2 751 7	3 104 5	3 623 2	3 459 9

* Provisional figures

INDUSTRY

ITEM	UNIT	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970†
Steel	000 tons	581 2	842 1	996	1 109 4	1 169 7	1 311 9
Crude Iron		499 7	736 1	846 7	909 8	948 3	1 033 6
Coke		1 186 5	1 447 2	1 360 8	1 430	1 592	1 531 0
Sulphuric Acid		16 7	20 0	23	21 6	23 2	22 1
Superphosphates		221 3	222 1	205	187	150 8	194 5
Cement		3 238	3 853 6	4 236 4	4 732 8	5 795	6 374 0
Paper and Cardboard		97 9	106 2	108 6	115 8	116 2	118 4
Glass*		7 3	6 0	7 4	8	10 7	10 8
Cotton Yarn*		32	33 2	34 3	37	37 1	46 8
Cotton Fabric*	million metres	180 7	187 4	188 7	208 9	200 8	219 7
Woollen Fabric*		4 4	4 5	5 2	6	5 3	4 7
Woollen Yarn*	000 tons	3 1	3 5	3 7	3 4	3 2	3 1
Sugar (refined)		599 7	600 6	663 2	717 6	587 2	518 0
Beer	million litres	34 3	38	34 1	38 2	41 5	44 4
Wines		47 3	44 4	43 4	38 2	21 5	21 5
Raki		6 2	7 3	8 1	8 9	8 7	8 3
Tobacco*	000 tons	35 6	39 3	36 5	41 5	40 2	39 8
Electric Energy	million kWh	4 952 7	5 549 3	6 216 6	6 885 6	7 830 0	8 617 0

* Public sector only

† Provisional figures

TURKEY—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

FINANCE

Lira=100 kuruş.

TL36=£1 sterling; TL15=U.S. \$1.

TL 100=£2.78 sterling=U.S. \$6.66.

The Turkish currency was officially devalued by 66.6 per cent in August 1970; the former Tourist Exchange Rate no longer exists.

BUDGET

(TL million)

REVENUE	1969-70	1970-71	EXPENDITURE (Main Items)	1968-69	1969-70
Direct Taxes	6,798	8,640	Justice	387	419
Income Tax	5,168	6,573	Defence	4,278	4,270
Indirect Taxes	12,343	14,351	Police and Security	780	840
Production Tax	6,460	7,947	Interior	242	263
Customs Duties	1,137	1,438	Finance and Debt Repayments	8,067	10,959
Profits and Taxes on Monopolies	2,148	2,276	Education	3,144	3,040
TOTAL TAXES	19,141	22,982	Public Works	1,035	1,534
Other Normal Revenues	1,561	4,028	Health	785	845
Special Revenues and Funds	1,890	4,336	Agriculture	732	779
TOTAL REVENUES	22,592	31,356			

1968-69 Expenditure TL 21,078 million.

1969-70 Expenditure TL 24,880 million.

FIVE-YEAR DEVELOPMENT PLAN

(TL million—at 1965 prices)

SECTOR	1968-72	
	Investment over 5 Years	Percentage of Total
Agriculture	16,900	15.2
Mining	4,100	3.7
Manufacturing Industry	25,000	22.4
Energy	8,900	8.0
Transportation and Communications	18,000	16.1
Housing	20,000	17.9
Education	7,500	6.7
Health	2,000	1.8
Tourism	2,600	2.3
Other Services	6,100	5.5
Development Fund	400	0.4
TOTAL	111,500	100.0

DEVELOPMENT PERFORMANCE

(Percentage growth per annum)

SECTOR	1963-67 PLAN		1968-72 PLAN
	PLANNED	ACHIEVED	PLANNED
Agriculture	4.2	3.3	4.1
Industry	12.3	9.7	12.0
Building and Public Works	10.7	8.2	7.2
Transport	10.5	7.7	7.2
Services	6.2	8.1	6.0
National Product	7.0	6.7	7.0

TURKEY—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

NATIONAL ACCOUNTS (TL million at current prices)

	1968	1969	1970*
GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT (at factor cost)	96 742	107 567	121 685
of which			
Agriculture	32 992	31 972	37 840
Manufacturing (Industry)	17 670	20 497	22 896
Construction	7 302	8 266	9 341
Commerce	7 907	8 950	10 768
Transport and Communications	7 358	8 403	9 705
Finance	3 678	4 289	4 932
Private professions and services	5 267	5 962	6 874
Ownership and dwellings	4 724	5 381	6 323
Public administration and defence	9 843	10 847	13 007
Income from abroad	303	495	2 285
NET NATIONAL PRODUCT (National Income)			
(at factor cost)	97 045	108 062	123 971
Indirect taxes	12 324	13 918	16 751
NET NATIONAL PRODUCT (at market prices)	109 369	121 981	140 722
Depreciation allowances	5 354	6 008	6 795
GROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT (at market prices)	114 723	127 989	147 517
GROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT (at factor cost)	102 419	114 070	130 765

* Preliminary estimates.

GOLD RESERVES AND CURRENCY IN CIRCULATION (TL million at year end)

	1967	1968	1969	1970
Gold Reserves	1 109	1 109	1 112	1 834
Currency in Circulation	10 214	10 221	11 264	14 235

CONSUMER PRICE INDEX (Ankara—1958=100)

	1967	1968	1969	1970
Food	182.2	187.9	201.7	215.0
Clothing	146.2	139.7	146.3	163.3
Household Expenditure	137.9	132.9	136.0	144.9
Miscellaneous Expenditures	191.8	196.8	209.1	221.6
ALL ITEMS	165.7	166.4	175.9	188.4

TURKEY—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

BALANCE OF PAYMENTS (million U.S.\$)

	1967	1968	1969	1970
Imports (c.i.f.)	-685	-764	-801	-948
Exports (f.o.b.)	523	496	537	588
Trade Balance	-162	-268	-264	-360
Invisible Items (net)	42	44	43	189
CURRENT BALANCE	-106	-224	-221	-171
Capital Receipts	274	307	374	571
Capital Expenditure	-98	-72	-115	-158
CAPITAL BALANCE	176	235	259	413
Change in Monetary Reserve (-=increase)	-21	6	-133	-236
Net Errors and Omissions	-49	-17	85	-24
TOTAL BALANCE	70	11	38	242
Special Drawing Rights	—	—	—	18

EXTERNAL TRADE (TL million)

	1967	1968	1969	1970*
Imports	6,217	6,934	7,275	9,598
Exports	4,701	4,467	4,832	6,408

* Preliminary estimates.

COMMODITIES (TL '000)

IMPORTS	1968	1969	1970*
Live Animals and Animal Products	8,282	10,830	17,819
Vegetable Products	26,686	182,246	621,193
Animal and Vegetable Oils and Fats	28,635	18,698	52,119
Foodstuffs, Beverages and Tobacco	12,966	13,127	11,743
Mineral Products	660,614	629,898	782,573
Chemicals	1,259,671	1,362,956	1,554,994
Plastic and Rubber	347,312	287,313	383,966
Hides and Skins	25,777	20,287	19,626
Wood	14,638	11,697	36,032
Paper-making Material	218,329	232,053	197,321
Textiles	383,374	339,378	408,258
Glassware, Ceramics	71,151	79,313	95,286
Base Metals	627,706	742,153	1,342,655
Machinery	2,304,800	1,983,442	2,858,283
Vehicles	770,531	713,018	1,010,585
Measuring Instruments	152,968	135,225	182,338

* Preliminary estimates.

TURKEY--(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

EXPORTS	1968	1969	1970*
Livestock	95 993	102 923	197 196
Fish	38 702	52 880	67 530
Fruit and nuts	1 112 854	1 432 639	1 502 302
Cereals	14 622	2 948	6 882
Oilseeds	43 711	65 417	115 312
Tannin materials gums	5 349	6 963	7 353
Cattlecake and foodstuff residues	182 373	159 088	227 288
Tobacco	853 462	733 124	783 006
Iron chrome manganese and other ores	124 868	152 910	232 910
Hides and skins	50 562	60 568	64 963
Mohair wool	90 864	66 263	56 660
Cotton	1 287 565	1 126 505	2 015 056
Copper and products	124 042	61 322	74 005
All other products	442 804	807 952	1 058 889
TOTAL	4 467 771	4 831 502	6 408 454

* Preliminary estimates

COUNTRIES

(TL 000)

	IMPORTS			EXPORTS		
	1968	1969	1970*	1968	1969	1970*
U.S.A.	1 313 252	1 152 964	1 851 965	652 838	538 962	587 951
German Federal Republic	1 413 382	1 258 527	1 775 440	777 670	1 011 957	1 323 530
United Kingdom	893 089	829 201	945 758	305 478	272 578	361 315
Italy	609 283	667 930	761 153	217 741	386 075	430 762
France	245 147	228 168	348 273	196 278	249 071	431 253
U.S.S.R.	274 117	301 869	412 330	268 815	269 713	306 308
Netherlands	169 651	164 231	251 051	137 869	147 292	230 669
Switzerland	208 550	314 952	490 165	240 913	250 187	487 481
German Democratic Republic	119 48	107 479	117 036	104 944	96 346	98 758
Czechoslovakia	111 935	112 168	130 427	123 712	124 579	117 710
Belgium	122 110	134 851	191 261	148 168	139 313	239 062
Poland	77 622	93 323	295 304	70 076	75 945	79 951
Japan	106 665	79 563	206 333	148 571	113 452	208 830

* The 1970 figures are affected by the devaluation of the lira in August. Imports have been calculated at the rate TL 9.08 = US \$1 (Jan 1st Aug 9th) and TL 15.15 = \$1 (Aug 10th Dec 31st) exports at TL 9 = \$1 (Jan 1st Aug 9th) and both TL 12 = \$1 and TL 14.85 = \$1 (Aug 10th Dec 31st)

TRANSPORT

RAILWAYS

millions

	1968	1969	1970
Passenger kilometres	4 539	4 603	5 561
Net ton kilometres	5 682	5 775	6 080

ROADS

(January—000)

	1968	1969	1970
Passenger Cars	125 4	137 3	147 0
Trucks	62 6	69 5	74 7
Buses	32 9	36 1	37 6
Motor Cycles	47 1	53 0	62 5

TURKEY—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

SHIPPING

		1966	1967	1968	1969
Merchant Fleet*	('000 gross reg. tons)	773	753	746	n.a.
Vessels Entered	('000 net reg. tons)	6,727	7,900	6,851	7,310
Vessels Cleared	(" " " ")	5,055	5,471	4,647	5,086
Goods Loaded	('000 metric tons)	2,756	2,437	2,641	2,870
Goods Unloaded	(" " ")	6,042	7,146	7,087	7,672

* Includes vessels of 18 gross tonnage and over.

CIVIL AVIATION

Turkish Airlines.

('000)

	1967	1968	1969	1970
Kilometres Flown . . .	10,663	13,069	12,444	13,464
Passenger-kilometres . .	331,168	418,070	494,112	640,128
Cargo ton-kilometres . .	29,532	36,212	41,784	56,856
Mail ton-kilos . . .	853	1,087	n.a.	n.a.

TOURISM

	1967	1968	1969	1970*
Foreign Visitors to Turkey . .	574,055	602,996	694,229	724,784
Income from Tourism (\$'000) . .	13,220	24,083	36,573	51,597

*Provisional figures.

Tourist Accommodation (1970): 292 classified hotels, 3 holiday villages.

EDUCATION

(1970-71)

COMMUNICATIONS MEDIA

	1967	1968	1969
Telephones . . .	273,380	282,000	331,000
Radio Licences . . .	2,720,959	2,885,120	3,072,000
Letters Sent ('000) . .	379,441	422,631	n.a.

	SCHOOLS	TEACHERS	PUPILS
Primary . . .	38,421	133,812	5,037,500
Secondary . . .	2,579	36,199	1,108,010
Technical and Vocational . .	930	15,285	245,304
Universities . . .	8	6,033*	69,382*
Other Higher Education . .	98†	2,375†	77,365†

* Data for three faculties not available.

† Data for seven institutions not available.

Source: Ministry of Education, Ankara.

Source: State Institute of Statistics, Prime Minister's Office, Ankara.

THE CONSTITUTION

PREAMBLE

Having enjoyed freedom, and fought for her rights and liberties throughout her history, and having achieved the Revolution of May 27th, 1960, by exercising her right to resist the oppression of a political power which had deteriorated into a state of illegitimacy through behaviour and actions contrary to the rule of law and the Constitution, the Turkish Nation, prompted and inspired by the spirit of Turkish nationalism, which unites all individuals, be it in fate, pride or distress, in a common bond as an indivisible whole around national consciousness and aspirations, and which has as its aim always to exalt our nation in a spirit of national unity as a respected member of the community of the world of nations enjoying equal rights and privileges,

With full dedication to the principle of peace at home, peace in the world and with full dedication to the spirit of national independence and sovereignty and to the reforms of Atatürk,

Guided by the desire to establish a democratic rule of law based on juridical and social foundations, which will ensure and guarantee human rights and liberties, national solidarity, social justice, and the welfare and prosperity of the individual and society,

Now, therefore, the Turkish Nation hereby enacts and proclaims this Constitution drafted by the Constituent Assembly of the Turkish Republic, and entrusts it to the vigilance of her sons and daughters who are devoted to the concept of freedom, justice and integrity, with the conviction that its basic guarantee lies in the hearts and minds of her citizens

PART ONE

Articles 1-9

The Turkish Republic is a nationalistic, democratic, secular and social State governed by the rule of law, based on human rights

The Turkish State is an indivisible whole comprising the territory and people. Its official language is Turkish. Its capital is the city of Ankara

Sovereignty is vested in the nation without reservation and condition. Legislative power is vested in the Turkish Grand National Assembly

This power shall not be delegated

The executive function shall be carried out by the President of the Republic and the Council of Ministers within the framework of law

Judicial power shall be exercised by independent courts on behalf of the Turkish Nation

Laws shall not be in conflict with the Constitution

The provision of the Constitution establishing the form of the State as a republic shall not be amended

PART TWO

Articles 10-62

Every individual is entitled, in virtue of his existence as a human being, to fundamental rights and freedoms, which cannot be usurped, transferred or relinquished

All individuals are equal before the law irrespective of language, race, sex, political opinion, philosophical views, or religion or religious sect.

Status of aliens, personal immunities, freedom of communication, travel, residence, thought, belief, press and publications

Right to controvert and rebut, to congregate, demonstrate and form associations
Protection of individual rights

PART THREE

Articles 63-66 Grand National Assembly

The Grand National Assembly of Turkey is composed of the National Assembly and the Senate of the Republic.

The two bodies meet in joint session in such instances as are provided in the Constitution

The Grand National Assembly is empowered to enact, amend and repeal laws, to debate and adopt the bills on the State budget and final accounts, to pass resolutions in regard to minting currency, proclaiming pardons and amnesties, and to the carrying out of definitive death sentences passed by courts

Articles 67-69 National Assembly

The National Assembly is composed of 450 deputies elected by direct general ballot. Election qualifications elections shall be held every four years. The Assembly may hold new elections before the end of the four-year period

Articles 70-73 The Senate

The Senate of the Republic is composed of 150 members elected by general ballot and 15 members appointed by the President of the Republic. Election qualifications term of office is six years, one-third of members shall be re-elected every two years

Articles 74-94 Elections, Members Debates, Laws, Expenditure

Articles 95-101 The President of the Republic

The President of the Turkish Republic shall be elected for a term of seven years from among those members of the Turkish Grand National Assembly who have completed their fortieth year and received higher education; election shall be by secret ballot, and by a two-thirds majority of the plenary session. In case this majority is not obtained in the first two ballots, an absolute majority shall suffice

The President is not eligible for re-election

The President elect shall disassociate himself from his party, and his status as a regular member of the Grand National Assembly shall be terminated

The President of the Republic is the head of the State. In this capacity he shall represent the Turkish Republic and the integrity of the Turkish Nation

The President of the Republic shall preside over the Council of Ministers whenever he deems it necessary, shall dispatch the representatives of the Turkish State to foreign states, shall receive the representatives of foreign states, shall ratify and promulgate international conventions and treaties and may commute or pardon on grounds of chronic illness, infirmity or old age the sentences of convicted individuals

The President of the Republic shall not be accountable for his actions connected with his duties

All decrees emanating from the President of the Republic shall be signed by the Prime Minister, and the relevant Ministers. The Prime Minister and the Ministers concerned shall be responsible for the enforcement of these decrees

The President of the Republic may be impeached for high treason upon the proposal of one-third of the plenary session of the Turkish Grand National Assembly, and conviction of high treason shall require the vote of at least a two-thirds majority of the joint plenary session of both legislative bodies.

TURKEY—(THE CONSTITUTION)

Articles 102-109. The Council of Ministers

The Council of Ministers shall consist of the Prime Minister and the Ministers.

The Prime Minister shall be designated by the President of the Republic from among the members of the Turkish Grand National Assembly.

The Ministers shall be nominated by the Prime Minister, and appointed by the President of the Republic from among the members of the Turkish Grand National Assembly, or from among those qualified for election as deputies.

As head of the Council of Ministers, the Prime Minister promotes co-operation among the Ministries, and supervises the implementation of the Government's general policy. The members of the Council of Ministers are jointly and equally responsible for the manner in which this policy is implemented.

Each Minister shall be further responsible for the operations in his field of authority and for the acts and activities of his subordinates. The Ministers are subject to the same immunities and liabilities as the members of the Turkish Grand National Assembly.

Articles 110-111. National Defence

The office of the Commander-in-Chief is integrated in spirit in the Turkish Grand National Assembly and is represented by the President of the Republic.

The Council of Ministers shall be responsible to the Turkish Grand National Assembly for ensuring national security and preparing the armed forces for war.

The Chief of the General Staff is the Commander of the armed forces.

The Chief of the General Staff shall be appointed by the President of the Republic upon his nomination by the Council of Ministers, and his duties and powers shall be regulated by law. The Chief of the General Staff is responsible to the Prime Minister in the exercise of his duties and powers.

The National Security Council shall consist of the Ministers as provided by law, the Chief of the General Staff, and representatives of the armed forces.

The President of the Republic shall preside over the National Security Council, and in his absence this function shall be discharged by the Prime Minister.

Articles 112-125. Administration

Articles 126-131. Economic and Fiscal Provisions

The budget, accounts, development projects, natural resources,

Articles 132-136. The Judiciary

Judges shall be independent in the discharge of their duties. They shall pass judgment in accordance with the Constitution, law, justice and their personal convictions.

No organ, office, agency or individual may give orders or instructions to courts or judges in connection with the discharge of their judicial duty, send them circulars or make recommendations or suggestions.

No questions may be raised, debates held, or statements issued in legislative bodies in connection with the discharge of judicial power concerning a case on trial. Legislative, executive organs, and the administration are under obligation to comply with ruling of the courts. Such organs and the administration shall in no manner whatsoever alter court rulings or delay their execution.

Article 137. The Public Prosecutor

Article 138. Military Trial

Article 139. Court of Cassation

The Court of Cassation is the court of the last instance for reviewing the decisions and verdicts rendered by courts of law. It has original and final jurisdiction in specific cases defined by law.

Article 140. Council of State

The Council of State is an administrative court of the first instance in matters not referred by law to other administrative courts, and an administrative court of the last instance in general.

The Council of State shall hear and settle administrative disputes and suits, shall express opinions on draft laws submitted by the Council of Ministers, shall examine draft regulations, specifications and contracts of concessions, and shall discharge such other duties as prescribed by law.

Article 141. Military Court of Cassation

The Military Court of Cassation is a court of the last instance to review decisions and verdicts rendered by military courts. Furthermore, it shall try specific cases as a court of the first and last instance involving military matters as prescribed by law.

Article 142. Court of Jurisdictional Disputes

The Court of Jurisdictional Disputes is empowered to settle definitively disputes among civil, administrative and military courts arising from disagreements on jurisdictional matters and verdicts.

Articles 143-144. Supreme Council of Judges

Articles 145-152. The Constitutional Court

PARTS FOUR, FIVE AND SIX

Miscellaneous, Temporary and Final Provisions.

THE GOVERNMENT

THE HEAD OF STATE

General CEVDET SUNAY.

Principal Secretary of President's Office: Cihat ALPAN

COUNCIL OF MINISTERS

(A coalition of members of the Justice Party (A P), the Republican People's Party (CH P) the Reliance Party (C P) and of fifteen ministers from outside the National Assembly, formed in March 1971)

(August 1971)

Prime Minister: Prof. Nihat Erim (Independent)
Minister of State and Deputy Prime Minister responsible for political and administrative affairs: Sadi Koçuş (CH P)
Minister of State and Deputy Prime Minister responsible for economic affairs: Atilla KARAOĞLANOĞLU
Ministers of State: MEHMET ÖZGÜNEŞ DOĞAN KİTAFLI (A P)
Minister of Justice: İsmail ARAR (CH P)
Minister of National Defence: FERİT MELEN (G P)
Minister of the Interior: Hamdi Ömeroğlu
Minister of Foreign Affairs: Osman Olcay
Minister of Finance: Sait Naci Ergin
Minister of National Education: Şinasi ÖREL
Minister of Public Works: Cahit KARAKAŞ (A P)
Minister of External Economic Relations: ÖZER DERBİL

Minister of Health and Social Welfare: Prof. Dr. Turgut AKYOL
Minister of Customs and Monopolies: HAYDAR ÖZALP (A P)
Minister of Agriculture: ORHAN DİKMEN
Minister of Communications: HALUK ARİK
Minister of Labour: Atilla SAV
Minister of Industry and Commerce: AYHAN ÇİLİNGİR (OPAP)
Minister of Power and Natural Resources: İhsan Taloğlu (CH P)
Minister of Tourism: EROL YILMAZ ARÇAL (A P)
Minister of Reconstruction and Housing: SELAHATTİN BABUROĞLU
Minister of Rural Affairs: Dr. CEVDET AYKAN
Minister of Forestry: Prof. SELAHATTİN İNAL
Minister of Youth and Sports: SEZAL ERGUN (A P)
Minister of Culture: TALAT HALMAN

DIPLOMATIC REPRESENTATION

REPRESENTATIVES OF TURKEY ABROAD

(A) Ambassador, (M) Minister, (CA) Chargé d'Affaires, (Perm. Rep.) Permanent Representative, (Perm. Del.) Permanent Delegate

Afghanistan: Hamit BATU, Kabul (A)
Albania: ERCÜMENT TATAROĞASI, Tirana (A)
Algeria: EFDAL DERİNGİL, Algiers (A)
Argentina: Talat Miras, Buenos Aires (A) (also accredited to Paraguay and Uruguay)
Australia: MEHMET BAYDUK, Canberra (A)
Austria: NURETTİN VERGİN, Vienna (A)
Belgium: FARUK BERKOL, Brussels (A) (also accredited to Luxembourg)
Bolivia: (see Chile)
Brazil: VECDİ TÜREL, Rio de Janeiro (A)
Bulgaria: NEJAT ERTÜZÜN, Sofia (A)
Burma: (see India)
Cameroon: (see Nigeria)
Canada: Gen. İRFAN TANSEL, Ottawa (A)
Ceylon: (see India)
Chile: NECDET ÖZMEN, Santiago (A) (also accredited to Bolivia and Peru)
China, Republic of: HALUK KOCAMAN, Taipei (A)
Colombia: (see Venezuela)
Costa Rica: (see Mexico)
Cuba: (see Mexico)

Cyprus: ASAF İNAN, Nicosia (A)
Czechoslovakia: HALUK KURA, Prague (A)
Denmark: SERİK FENMEN, Copenhagen (A)
Dominican Republic: (see Venezuela)
Ecuador: (see Venezuela)
El Salvador: (see Mexico)
Ethiopia: HİKMET BENSAN, Addis Ababa (A)
Finland: (Vacant) Helsinki (A)
France: HASAN ESAT IŞIK, Paris (A) (also accredited to Ireland)
German Federal Republic: OĞUZ GÖKMEN, Bonn (A)
Ghana: (Vacant), Accra (A) (also accredited to Togo)
Greece: İLTER TÜRKMEN, Athens (A)
Guatemala: (see Mexico)
Haiti: (see Mexico)
Honduras: (see Mexico)
Hungary: İsmail SOYSAL, Budapest (A)
India: MAHMUT DİKERDEM, New Delhi (A) (also accredited to Burma, Ceylon and Nepal)
Indonesia: (Vacant) Djakarta (A)
Iran: NÂMIK YOLGA, Teheran (A)

TURKEY—(DIPLOMATIC REPRESENTATION)

Iraq: PERTEV SUBAŞI, Baghdad (A).
Ireland: (see France).
Israel: MELİH AKBİL, Tel-Aviv (CA).
Italy: İSMAİL EREZ, Rome (A).
Japan: ŞÜKRÜ ELEKDAĞ, Tokyo (A).
Jordan: ŞAHİN ÜZGÖREN, Amman (A).
Kenya: SADUN TEREM, Nairobi (A).
Korea, Republic of: BÜLENT KESTELLİ, Seoul (A).
Kuwait: (Vacant).
Lebanon: ERCÜMENT YAVUZALP, Beirut (A).
Libya: ÖZDEMİR YİĞİT, Tripoli (A).
Luxembourg: (see Belgium).
Mexico: SAKİP BAYAZ, Mexico City (A) (also accred. to Costa Rica, Cuba, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Nicaragua and Panama).
Morocco: ALİ BİNKAYA, Rabat (A).
Nepal: (see India).
Netherlands: VAHİT HALEFOĞLU, The Hague (A).
Nicaragua: (see Mexico).
Nigeria: DOĞAN TÜRKMEN, Lagos (A) (also accred. to Cameroon).
Norway: CİHAŞ RÜŞTÜ VEYSELLİ, Oslo (A).
Pakistan: BEDİİ KARABURÇAK, Rawalpindi (A).
Panama: (see Mexico).
Paraguay: (see Argentina).
Peru: (see Chile).
Poland: ÖZDEMİR BENLER, Warsaw (A).
Portugal: FUAT DOĞU, Lisbon (A).
Romania: NAZİF ÇUHRUK, Bucharest (A).

Saudi Arabia: CELÂDET KİYASİ, Jeddah (A).
Senegal: ORHAN CONKER, Dakar (A).
Spain: ŞADİ ELDEM, Madrid (A).
Sudan: CEMİL MİROĞLU, Khartoum (A).
Sweden: NECDET KENT, Stockholm (A).
Switzerland: CEMİL VAFİ, Berne (A).
Syria: FAHİR ALACAM, Damascus (A).
Thailand: TURGUT İLKAN, Bangkok (A).
Tunisia: ADNAN BULAK, Tunis (A).
U.S.S.R.: FUAT BAYRAMOĞLU, Moscow (A).
U.A.R.: SEMİH GÜNVER, Cairo (A).
United Kingdom: ZEKİ KUNERALP, London (A).
U.S.A.: MELİH ESENBEL, Washington (A).
Uruguay: (see Argentina).
Vatican City: NECDET URAN, Rome (A).
Venezuela: RİFAT AYANLAR, Caracas (A) (also accred. to Colombia, Dominican Republic and Ecuador).
Yugoslavia: GÜNDOĞDU ÜSTÜN, Belgrade (A).

United Nations: ÜMİT HALÜK BAYÜLKEN, New York (Perm. Rep.).
United Nations Geneva Office: COŞKUN KIRCA, Geneva (Perm. Del.).
NATO: MÜHARREM NURİ BİRGİ, Paris (Perm. Del.).
OECD: KAMURAN GÜRÜN, Paris (Perm. Del.).
EEC: ZİYA MÜEZZİNOĞLU, Brussels (Perm. Del.).
Council of Europe: CAHİR HAYTA, Strasbourg (Perm. Del.).
UNESCO: MUNİS FAİK OZANSOY, Paris (A).

EMBASSIES AND LEGATIONS ACCREDITED TO TURKEY

(Ankara, unless otherwise stated)

(E) Embassy; (L) Legation.

Afghanistan: Yenişehir, Gazi Mustafa Kemal Bulvarı 12 (E); *Ambassador:* MUHAMMAD OSMAN SİDKY.
Albania: Gazi Osman Paşa, Nene Hatun Caddesi 89/2 (E); *Ambassador:* RASİM DEDJA.
Algeria: Baghdad, Iraq (E).
Argentina: Vali Dr. Reşit Cad. 82/3 (E); *Ambassador:* J. E. T. SANCHEZ SANTAMARIA.
Australia: Gaziosmanpaşa, Nenehatun Cad. 83; *Ambassador:* Sir ALAN MCNICHOL, K.B.E., C.B.G.M.
Austria: Atatürk Bulvarı 197 (E); *Ambassador:* Dr. FRANZ HERBATSCHKE.
Belgium: Atatürk Bulvarı 145 (E); *Ambassador:* ANDRÉ J. A. WENDELEN.
Brazil: Esat Cad. 19, Bakanlıklar (E); *Chargé d'Affaires a.i.:* JOSE AUGUSTO DE MACEDO SOARES.
Bulgaria: Atatürk Bulvarı 120 (E); *Ambassador:* GANTCHEV VATCHOV.
Cameroon: Cairo, U.A.R. (E).
Canada: Vali Dr. Reşit Cad. 52 (E); *Ambassador:* KLAUS GOLDSCHLAG.
Chad: Beirut, Lebanon (E).
Chile: Çankaya, Şehit Ersan Cad. 34/6 (E); *Ambassador:* ANGEL C. GONZÁLEZ.
China, Republic of (Taiwan): Muhammad Rıza Şah Pehlevi Cad. 39 (E); *Chargé d'Affaires a.i.:* SOONG SIH-JEN.
Congo (Kinshasa): *Ambassador:* RENE BAVASSA.

Cyprus: Vali Dr. Reşit Cad. 108, Çankaya (E); *Ambassador:* AHMED ZAIM.
Czechoslovakia: Atatürk Bulvarı, 261 (E); *Ambassador:* (vacant).
Denmark: Gaziosmanpaşa Bölük Cad. 14 (E); *Ambassador:* S. A. SANDAGER JEPPESEN.
Dominican Republic: London, S.W.7, England (E).
El Salvador: Bad Godesberg, German Federal Republic (E).
Ethiopia: Kavaklıdere, Tunalı Hilmi Cad. 93/5 (E); *Ambassador:* OSMAN MOHAMMED.
Finland: Vali Dr. Reşit Cad. 15/3 (E); *Ambassador:* AXE J. B. FREY (also accred. to Afghanistan and Iran).
France: Paris Cad. 70, Kavaklıdere (E); *Ambassador:* ARNAULD WAPLER.
German Federal Republic: Atatürk Bulvarı 114 (E); *Ambassador:* Dr. RUDOLF THIERFELDER.
Ghana: Rome, Italy (E).
Greece: Fatma Ali Sok. 1 and Yeşilyurt Sok. (E); *Ambassador:* IOANNIS TZOUNIS.
Hungary: Gazi Mustafa Kemal Bulvarı 10 (E); *Ambassador:* GYÖRGY ZAGOR.
Iceland: Copenhagen V, Denmark (E).
India: Kızılırmak Cad. 50 (E); *Ambassador:* UMA SHANKAR BAJPAI.
Indonesia: Çankaya, Abdullah Cevdet Sok. 10 (E); *Ambassador:* MUHAMMAD İSKANDAR İŞHAQ.

TURKEY—(DIPLOMATIC REPRESENTATION)

Iran: Tehran Cad. 10 (E), *Ambassador* Dr AMIR CHILATY
Iraq: Muhammad Rıza Şah Pehlvi Cad. 47 (E) *Ambassador* TALIB AL-SHIBIB
Ireland: Rome, Italy (E)
Israel: Vali Dr Reşit Cad., Farabi Sok. 43 (L), *Chargé d'Affaires* a: DANIEL LAOR.
Italy: Atatürk Bulvarı 118 (E), *Ambassador* MARIO MONDELLO
Japan: Gan Osman Paşa, Reşit Galip Cad. 81 (E), *Ambassador* MITSUO TANAKA
Jordan: Kavaklıdere, Vali Dr Reşit Cad. 12 (E), *Ambassador* OMAR EL MADANI
Korea, Republic of: Vali Dr Reşit Cad., Alaçam Sok. 9 (E), *Ambassador* SUNG GA LEE (also accredited to Iran and Jordan)
Kuwait: Ankara (E), *Ambassador* MUHAMMAD JAAFER
Lebanon: Çankaya Vali Dr Reşit Cad. 25/5 (E), *Ambassador* YOUSSEF SHADID
Libya: Çankaya Ebozzeriya Tervik Sok. 5 (E) *Chargé d'Affaires* a: HADI HUSUMI
Malaysia: Teheran Iran (E)
Mexico: Vali Dr Reşit Cad. 41/13 (E), *Ambassador* ERNESTO SOTO REYES
Morocco: Çankaya Ahmet Mithat Efendi Sok. 21 (E), *Ambassador* MUHAMED BENBOUCHAIB
Nepal: Islamabad Pakistan (E)
Netherlands: Çankaya, Şehit Ersan Cad. 4 (E), *Ambassador* A. R. TAMMENOMS BAKKER.
Nigeria: Berne, Switzerland (E)
Norway: Farabi Sok. 27/7 (E), *Ambassador* IVAR MELRUS
Pakistan: Farabi Sok. 8 (E), *Ambassador* İFTIKAR ALI
Peru: Vienna, Austria (E)
Philippines: Rome, Italy (E)
Poland: Atatürk Bulvarı 231 (E), *Ambassador* STANISLAW PIOTROWSKI

Turkey also has diplomatic relations with Cuba, Malawi and Sierra Leone. Relations at ambassadorial level are to be established with the People's Republic of China.

Portugal: Vali Dr Reşit Cad., Alemdaroğlu Apt. 28/3 (E), *Ambassador* Dr. HENRIQUE GUILHERME AUGUSTO DE FIGUEIREDO DA SILVA MARTINS (also accredited to Iran and Iraq)
Romania: Çankaya Yeşilyurt Sok. 4 (E) *Ambassador* (vacant)
Saudi Arabia: Çankaya Abdullah Cevdet Sok. 18 (E), *Ambassador* SAMIR S. SHIHABI
Senegal: Beirut, Lebanon (E)
Spain: Güneşevleri Yeşilyurt Sok. 25 (E), *Ambassador* LUIS GARCIA DE LLERA.
Sudan: Baghdad Iraq (E)
Sweden: Kâtip Çelebi Sok. 5 (E), *Ambassador* HARRY A. M. N. BAGGE
Switzerland: Atatürk Bulvarı 263 (E), *Ambassador* ARTURO MARCIONELLI
Syria: Çankaya Abdullah Cevdet Sok. 7 (E), *Ambassador* Dr. SALAH EADINE TARAZI
Thailand: Vienna, Austria (E)
Tunisia: Vali Dr Reşit Cad. 11 (E), *Ambassador* AHMET BEN ARFA (also accredited to Iran)
U.S.S.R.: Çankaya Kar Yağdı Sok. (E), *Ambassador* VASSILY FEDOROVICH GROUBVAKOV
U.A.R.: Atatürk Bulvarı 173 (E), *Ambassador* ABBAS EL SHAHEL
United Kingdom: Çankaya, Şehit Ersan Cad. 46/A (E), *Ambassador* Sir RODERICK SARBIL K.C.M.G.
U.S.A.: Atatürk Bulvarı 110 (E), *Ambassador* WILLIAM J. HANDLEY
Vatican: Gaziosmanpaşa Reşit Galip Cad. 94 (Apostolic Internunciature), *Apostolic Internuncio* Mgr SALVATORE ASTA
Venezuela: Kavaklıdere Cad. 23/6 (E), *Ambassador* FRANÇOIS MOANACK VAHLIS
Viet-Nam, Republic: Vali Dr Reşit 10 (E) *Chargé d'Affaires* a: LE-VAN-KY.
Yugoslavia: Paris Cad. 47, Kavaklıdere (E), *Ambassador* MUHTDIN BEGIC

GRAND NATIONAL ASSEMBLY

SENATE*

President: TEKİN ARIBURUN.

PARTY	SEATS	
	Elections July 1970	March 1971
Justice Party	101	89
Republican People's Party	34	34
Reliance Party	11	10
New Democratic Party	—	5
Turkish Workers' Party	1	1
Nation Party	1	1
National Action Party	1	1
New Turkey Party	—	1
Independents	1	8
Presidential Appointees	15	14
Life Senators	18	17
Vacant	—	2
TOTAL	183	183

* Voting by majority system.

NATIONAL ASSEMBLY†

President: SABİT OSMAN AVCI.

	SEATS		VOTES
	General Election (Oct. 1969)	March 1971	General Election (Oct. 1969)
Justice Party	257	227	4,229,712
Republican People's Party	144	142	2,487,006
New Democratic Party	—	37	—
Reliance Party	15	13	597,818
Nation Party	6	5	292,961
National Order Party	—	3	n.a.
Union Party	8	2	254,695
Turkish Workers' Party	2	2	243,631
New Turkey Party	6	1	197,929
National Action Party	1	1	275,091
Independent	11	13	511,023
Vacant	—	4	—
TOTAL	450	450	—

† Voting by proportional representation.

POLITICAL PARTIES

Justice Party (A.P.): Ankara; f. 1961; Leader SÜLEYMAN DEMİREL; Sec.-Gen. NİZAMET TİN-ERKMEN; inherited much support from the former Democratic Party; supports private enterprise. Approximate annual budget TL 4 million.

Republican People's Party (C.H.P.): Ankara; f. 1923 by Kemal Atatürk; Leader İSMET İNÖNÜ; Sec.-Gen. ŞEREF BAKŞIK. For many years the Republican People's Party was the only party in Turkey. It favours a considerable degree of State enterprise along with continuing private enterprise. In recent years the party has moved to the left of centre.

Democratic Party: Ankara; f. 1970 by deputies and senators expelled from the Justice Party; Leader FERRUH BOZBEYLİ.

Reliance Party (G.P.): Ankara; f. 1967 by 45 members of Parliament from the Republican People's Party, who broke away as a result of this party's "left of centre policies"; stands for political democracy, social justice and security, protection of private investment, priority for education; Leader Professor TURHAN FEYZİOĞLU.

National Order Party (M.N.P.): Ankara; f. 1969; extreme right-wing. It favours free enterprise, constitutional changes, the abolition of the Senate, reduction in the number of members of Parliament, direct Presidential election, control of the Press; dissolved in June 1971 by the Turkish Constitutional Court for violating the constitution; Pres. Prof. ERBAKAN.

Nation Party (M.P.): Ankara; f. 1962; a faction of the Republican National Peasants' Party with one seat in the Senate. Traditional and religious in character; Leader OSMAN BOLÜKBAŞI.

New Turkey Party (Y.T.P.): Ankara; f. 1961; moderate right-wing; Leader Prof. TAHSİN BANGUOĞLU.

Turkish Workers' Party (T.I.P.): Ankara; f. 1961; left-wing; one Senate seat and two National Assembly seats at the latest elections; Leader Dr. BEHİCE BORAN.

National Action Party (M.H.P.): Ankara; f. 1954; Leader Col. ALPARSLAN TURKEŞ; secularist and nationalist; seeks progressive reform.

Union Party: Ankara; f. 1968; Conservative.

JUDICIAL SYSTEM

Until the foundation of the new Turkish Republic, a large part of the Turkish civil law—the laws affecting the family, inheritance, property, obligations, etc.—was based on the Koran, and this holy law was administered by special religious (Sharia) courts. The legal reform of 1926 was not only a process of secularization, but also a root and branch change of the legal system. The Swiss Civil Code and the Code of Obligation, the Italian Penal Code, and the Neuchâtel (Cantonal) Code of Civil Procedure were adopted and modified to fit Turkish customs and traditions.

Court of Cassation: The court of the last instance for reviewing the decisions and verdicts rendered by courts of law. It has original and final jurisdiction in specific cases defined by law. Members are elected by the Supreme Council of Judges.

Council of State: An administrative court of the first instance in matters not referred by law to other administrative courts, and an administrative court of the last instance in general. Hears and settles administrative disputes and expresses opinions on draft laws submitted by the Council of Ministers.

Military Court of Cassation: A court of the last instance to review decisions and verdicts rendered by military courts.

Court of Jurisdictional Disputes: Settles disputes among civil, administrative and military courts arising from disagreements on jurisdictional matters and verdicts.

Supreme Council of Judges: Consists of eighteen regular and five alternate members. Decides all personnel matters relating to judges.

Constitutional Court: Consists of fifteen regular and five alternate members. Reviews the constitutionality of laws passed by the Turkish Grand National Assembly. Sits as a

High Council empowered to try senior members of state. The rulings of the Constitutional Court are final. Decisions of the Court are published immediately in the Official Gazette, and shall be binding on the legislative, executive, and judicial organs of the State.

Public Prosecutor: The law shall make provision for the tenure of public prosecutors and attorneys of the Council of State and their functions.

The Chief Prosecutor of the Republic, the Chief Attorney of the Council of State and the Chief Prosecutor of the Military Court of Cassation are subject to the provisions applicable to judges of higher courts.

Military Trial: Military trials conducted by military and disciplinary courts. These courts are entitled to try the military offences of military personnel and those offences committed against military personnel or in military areas, or offences connected with military service and duties. Military courts may try non military persons only for military offences prescribed by special laws.

Independence of Courts: Judges shall be independent in the discharge of their duties. They shall pass judgment in accordance with the Constitution, law, justice and their personal convictions. No organ, office, agency or individual may give orders or instructions to courts or judges in connection with the discharge of their judicial duty, send them circulars, or make recommendations or suggestions.

No questions may be raised, debates held, or statements issued in legislative bodies in connection with the discharge of judicial power concerning a case on trial. Legislative, executive organs, and the administration are under obligation to comply with ruling of the courts. Such organs and the administration shall in no manner whatsoever alter court rulings or delay their execution.

RELIGION

MUSLIMS

Diyanet İşleri Reisî (Head of the Muslim Faith in Turkey)
Ali Rıza HAKSESE

Over 98 per cent of the Turkish people are Muslims, mainly of the Sunni rite. Under the Republic, from 1923 onwards action was taken to reduce the influence of religion on state affairs. e.g., its association with the schools was curtailed, mosques and churches were sometimes

closed and facilities denied to their adherents, both Muslim and Christian. The Muslim faith was also disestablished. After 1950 there was a change, and religious life was to a certain extent revived. The 1960 revolution is trying to bring about a return to the more secular republic of Atatürk.

NON-MUSLIMS

Mainly Greek Orthodox, Armenian Christians and Jews

THE PRESS

Under the Constitution of 1961, "the press is free within the limits of the law". Provision is made for recourse to a constitutional court in issues involving laws affecting the Press.

Following the Revolution of 1960 and the new Constitution, which also introduced a measure of protection for editors, came the Law for Preventive Measures of March 1962. This law provided penalties of imprisonment with forced labour for persons criticizing the 1960 Revolution or for defending the pre-1960 or pre-Atatürk régimes, or suggesting that Turkey is unable to thrive as a democracy.

As well as these items of legislation there are a number of articles in the Penal Code, some traceable back to Mussolini's fascist code, which sometimes affect the Press very harshly. Political offences affecting the Press and the protection of the State and civil order are treated in Articles 141 and 142, the latter providing penalties of up to 15 years imprisonment for Communist propaganda. Articles 158 and 159 penalize defamation of the President, the Republic, the nation and institutions such as the army, parliament and the courts.

The liberal conditions which followed the Revolution led to abuses. In the attempt to develop greater responsibility and self-discipline within the Press, the Press Council or Court of Honour was founded in 1960. Composed of publishers, journalists and private individuals, it censures those violating the voluntary Code of Ethics adopted by editors and owners. Lacking legal power, the Court has the disadvantage of depending on the support of newspaper membership, which may be withdrawn by editors seeking to avoid the Court's moral sanctions.

A stronger incentive of self-discipline was provided in 1961 by the Board of Official Announcements which supervises the just distribution of official announcements and advertising (which serve as an essential subsidy to the Press.) The Board, composed of a broadly chosen group of representatives of different professions, by its power to withhold advertisements, obliges editors to maintain standards and observe the Code of Ethics, and has put an end to the abuses of advertisement distribution of the pre-Revolutionary period.

Formerly most newspapers were family businesses, but recently companies have emerged and newspaper groups are beginning to develop. *Hürriyet*, *Milliyet* and *Hayat* each head a group of papers. The *Hürriyet* Group includes *Hürriyet*, *Yeni Gazeti*, *Günaydın* and several weekly and monthly papers and its own news agency. The *Hayat* Group, which is the largest group owning periodicals, includes *Hayat*, *Ses* (the cinema and arts magazine), and several children's periodicals. Most papers are politically independent. A small number, while not being political organs, are indirectly associated with political parties. Noteworthy among these are *Ulus*, which supports the Republican People's Party, and *Son Havadis*, which supports the Justice Party.

Almost all Istanbul papers are also printed in Ankara on the same day. Among the most serious and influential papers are the dailies *Milliyet* and *Cumhuriyet*. *Akhbaba* is noted for its political satire. The most popular dailies are the Istanbul papers *Hürriyet*, *Milliyet*, *Tercüman*, *Son Havadis*, *Günaydın*, *Akşam* and *Cumhuriyet*; *Yeni Asir*, published in İzmir, is the best selling quality daily of the Aegean region. A major popular weekly is the illustrated magazine *Hayat*.

PRINCIPAL DAILIES

ADANA

Çukurova: Kızılay Cad.; f. 1961; political; Editor MEHMET OLGUNBAŞ; circ. 1,950.

Vatandaş: Dörtüylağzı 117 Sok. 11; f. 1951; political; Editor NİHAT GÜLYAŞAR; circ. 1,700.

Yeni Adana: Kızılay Cad. 65; f. 1918; political; Editor ÇETİN R. YÜREGİR; circ. 2,000.

ANKARA

Adalet: Ağâh Efendi Sok.; f. 1962; morning; political, supports the Justice Party; Editor TURHAN DİLLİÇİ; circ. 16,500.

Ankara Ekspres: Rüzgârlı Sok. 21/3; f. 1968; political; Editor YAŞAR AYSEV; circ. 4,150.

Ankara Ticaret Postası: Rüzgârlı Sok., O.W. Han; f. 1954; commercial; Editor CAHİD BAYDAR; circ. 3,000.

Başkent: Rüzgârlı Sok. 21/2; f. 1968; political; Editor İSMET ÖZKAN; circ. 4,100.

Bugün Ticaret: Meşrutiyet Cad. 31/4, Yenışehir; f. 1964; commercial; Editor FARUK TAŞKIRAN; circ. 1,500.

Daily News: Konur Sok. 16, Yenışehir; f. 1961; English language; Publisher-Editor İLHAN ÇEVİK; circ. 3,300.

Ekonomide Egemenlik: Atatürk Bulvarı 137/2; f. 1970; commercial; Editor FEHMİ ANLAROĞLU.

Hür Anadolu: Rüzgârlı Sok. 21; f. 1967; political; Editor MUSTAFA ÖZKAN; circ. 4,050.

İktisadi İnkilâp: Plevne Sok. 12, Ulus; f. 1957; commercial; Editor CELÂL HAFİFBİLEK; circ. 1,600.

İktisat ve Piyasa: İzmir Cad. 22/9; f. 1964; commercial; Proprietor ÜLKÜ BİLGİN; circ. 1,900.

İş Alemi: Fevzi Çakmak Sok. 38, Damirtepe; f. 1964; commercial; Publisher İLHAMİ ÖMEROĞLU; circ. 2,200.

İş ve Ekonomi: Rüzgârlı Sok., O.W. Han; f. 1964; Publisher-Editor COŞKUN BÖLÜKBAŞIOĞLU; circ. 2,000.

Medeniyet: Rüzgârlı Sok. 39; f. 1956; evening; Editor ERDOĞAN TOKATLI; circ. 4,100.

Memleket: Rüzgârlı Sok. 21/3; f. 1970; political; Editor ŞEMSİ BELLİ.

Resmî Gazete: Başbakanlık Neşriyat, ve Müdevvnat Genel Müdürlüğü; f. 1920; official gazette.

Tasvir: Ulus Han, Kat 5, Ulus; f. 1957; political; Editor ŞAHAP GENSOY; circ. 5,100.

Turizm Ticaret: Çelikkale Sok. 8/12, Kızılay; f. 1970; commercial; Editor TEOMAN YALAZAN.

Ulus: Şinasi Sok., Ulus; f. 1919; morning; political, supports the Republican People's Party; Editor CEMAL SALTİK; circ. 15,700.

Vatan: İbrahim Müteferrika Sok. 2/2; f. 1940; evening; Editor TURHAN TÜRKEL; circ. 4,000.

Yeniğün: Rüzgârlı Sok. 45/8, Ulus; f. 1968; political; Editor KEMAL TÜKEL; circ. 4,000.

Yeni Tanin: Ağâh Efendi Sok. 2/A, Ulus; f. 1964; political; Editor KEMAL ARARAT; circ. 4,000.

Zafer: Çankırı Cad. 14; f. 1963; morning; political; Proprietor MUAMMER KIRANER; circ. 11,000.

BURSA

Bursanın Sesi: Yeniyol, Ersan İşhanı; f. 1969; political; Editor NECATİ AKGÜN; circ. 800.

Haber Kambet Sok. 7 f 1964 political Editor **TURBAN**
TAYAN circ 1200
Halkın İhtiyacı Başak Cad 5 f 1950 political Editor
MUSTAFA TAYLA circ 500
Millet Ankara Cad 59 f 1960 political Editor **FATMA**
MAT circ. 900

ESKİŞEHİR

İstiklal Çarşı, Değirmen Sok. 15/A f 1950 political
Editor **İRFAN UĞURLUER**
Millî İrade Uygur Sok 1 f 1968 political Editor
GÜLTERİN TÖTÜ
Sakarya Hacat Sok 3 f 1947 political Editor **BOZKURT**
ÜNÜGÜR.

İSTANBUL

Akşam Cemal Nadir Sok 13 f 1918 independent Editor
İRFAN DERMAN circ 42 000
Apoyevmatını Suriye Çarşısı 10 Beyoğlu f 1925 Greek
language Publisher **TAKVİM ACUN** circ 3 500
Bahâîde Sabah Sultanahmet Adliye B.ış 8 f 1965
political Editor **ALİ TABAN** circ 7 300
Bizim Anadolu Şeref Efendi Sok. Çagaoluğu f 1969
political Ed tor **ABDÜLKADİR BİLLURCU**
Buğün Sultanahmet Adliye Sarayı Bitişiği f 1966
political Editor **SABRİ YILMAZ** circ. 12 250
Cumhuriyet Halkıvi Sok. 39 Çagaoluğu f 1924 morning
independent pol tical Editor **OKTAY KURTBOKE** circ
90 000

Dünya Narlıbahçe Sok 15 Çagaoluğu f 1952 morning
political Editor **KAYHAN KÜREMAN** circ 14 500

Ekonomi Cemal Nadir Sok 22 Çagaoluğu f 1944
commercial Editor **SAFA ÇELİKÇİ** circ 1 500

Ekspres Şeref Efendi Sok 44 Çagaoluğu f. 1962 evening
Editor **ÇOPKUM ÖZER**

Embras Galip Dede Cad 103 Tünel f 1953 Greek
language evening Editor **NIHAL VASILYADIS** circ
1 000

Günlük Ticaret Başmushah Sok Çagaoluğu f 1947
political Editor **NEZRİN TÜRCÜBİLER** circ 1 700

Günaydın Alay köşkü Sok 2 f 1968 political Ed tor
RAHİMİ TURAN circ 272 600

Haber Şeref Efendi Sok. 44 Çagaoluğu f 1934 political
Editor **NECLA BERKAN** circ 8 100

Hakikat Şeref Efendi Sok. 44 f 1970 political Editor
MEHMET EMİN İLER

Hergün Cemal Nadir Sok 9 Çagaoluğu f 1947 evening
Editor **UĞUR GÜRTÜNCA** circ 8 300

Hürriyet Bahâîli Cad 15 Çagaoluğu f 1948 morning
independent political Publisher **EROL SİMAVİ** Editor
YÜKSEL BAŞTUĞÇ circ 501 000

İstanbul Postası Çatalçeşme Sok 17 Çagaoluğu f 1946
commercial Editor **ÇETİN A ÖZKIRIM** circ 2 250

Jamanak İstiklal Cad Narmanlı Yurdu Beyoğlu f 1908
Armenian language Ed tor **N KIRKOR HUDAVERDİYAN**
circ 1 100

Le Journal d'Orient Deva Çıkması 2/1 Beyoğlu f 1918
French language Editor **ALBERT KARASTU** circ. 2 000

Marmara İstiklal Cad 360/12 Tünel f 1941 Armenian
language Editor **R. HADDECİYAN** circ 1 700

Milliyet Nuruosmaniye Caddesi 65 f 1950 morning
political Editor **ABDİ İPEKÇİ** circ 169 800

Son Havadis Şeref Efendi Sok 44 Çagaoluğu f 1951
supports the Justice Party Editor **CAN HAYA İSEN**
circ 34 500

Son Saat Çemberlitaş Palas Hat 1 Çagaoluğu f 1956
evening Editor **SELİM BİLMEZ** circ 8 700

Tercüman Nuruosmaniye Çagaoluğu f 1961 political
Editor **SADETTİN ÇULCU** circ 266 000

Yeni Asya Şeref Efendi Sok 32 Çagaoluğu f 1970
political Editor **A RAHİM ERDEM** circ 9 400

Yeni Gazete Mollafenan Sok 30 Çagaoluğu f 1965
political Ed tor **ÖZÜŞ ŞERİN** circ 12 000

Yeni İstanbul Dr Emna Paşa Sok 20 Çagaoluğu f 1950
independent polt cal Ed tor **DOĞAN KOLOĞLU** circ
29 200

İZMİR

Ege Ekspres 856 Sok. No 46 f 1952 political Editor
İLHAN ESEN circ 4 100

Ege Ekonomi 2 Beyler Sok 45/A f 1968 commercial
Editor **KAZIM YENİSEY** circ 2 200

Ege Telgraf Atatürk Cad 150 f 1960 evening political
Ed tor **SUHA SÜAAZİ TEKİL**

Ticaret Gazi Bulvarı 18 f 1942 commercial and polt cal
news Ed tor **SEZAL GÜVEN** circ 7 600

Yeni Asır Gazi Osman Paşa Bulvarı 13/A f 1895 political
Editor **CEMİL DEVRİM** circ 48 500

KONYA

Yeni Konya İş Bankası Bitişiği f 1948 political Ed tor
A NECATİ ATALAY circ 1 850

Yeni Meram Mevlana Cad Sağlık Pasajı f 1949 political
Editor **A RİDVAN BULBUL** circ 1 250

WEEKLIES

ANKARA

Ekonomi ve Politika Tunus Cad 12/3 Bakanlıklar f
1966 economic and pol tical Publisher **ZIYA TANSU**

Hız Necatibey Cad Serenler Sok f 1966 labour news
Publisher **ŞERAFETTİN AKOVA**.

Outlook Olgunlar Sok 2/3 Yenışehir f 1967 English
language Editor **A KIŞLALI**

The Week Fevzi Çakmak Sok 38 Demirtepe f 1952
English language political and general interest
Publisher Editor **VEDAT ABUT**

Türkiye İktisat Gazetesi Karantil Sok 56 Bakanlıklar
f. 1953 commercial Ed tor **BEHZAT TANIR**.

Türkiye Ticaret Sicili Karantil Sok 56 Bakanlıklar
f 1957 commercial Editor **OKTAY DİZDAROĞLU**

Yarın İnkılap Sok 25/2 Yen şehir f 1963 political
Publisher Editor **MURİT DURU**

İSTANBUL

Akbaba Klodifar Cad 8 to Divanyolu f 1923 satirical
Editor **KADRİ YURDAPAP**

Doğan Kardeş Tırbedar Sok 22 Çagaoluğu f 1945
illustrated children's magazine Editor **SEZAL SOLELİ**
circ 40 000

Durum Nuruosmaniye Cad Atasaray İş Hanı Kat 13
no 102 302 f 1964 political Editor **MİTHAT PERİN**

Economic News About Turkey—ENAT POB 716
Karaköy f 1960 Editor **E G KOVEY**

Gecit Nuruosmaniye Cad Atasaray Han 408 f 1966,
political Publisher **FURUZAN TEKİL**

Hafta Sonu Tırbedar Sok. No 22 Divanyolu Çagaoluğu

Hayat Tırbedar Sok 22 Divanyolu f 1956 general
interest illustrated magazine Publisher **ŞEVKET RADO**

İstanbul Ticaret İstanbul Ticaret Odası Emuonü
Unkapanı Cad f 1957 commercial news Publisher
İSMAIL ÖZASLAN

Kadın Nuruosmaniye Cad Benice Han 54 Çagaoluğu
f 1947 serious political women's magazine Publisher
İFFET HALİM ORUZ

- La Vera Luz:** Tahtakale Cad., Prevuayans Han 12; f. 1951; Jewish news weekly; Publisher İLYAZER MENDA.
- Meydan:** Sultan Mektebi Sok. 23, Cağaloğlu; f. 1965; political; Editor AKIM KAMACIOĞLU.
- Pardon:** Foto Politik, Çemberlitaş Palas, Daire 7, Cağaloğlu; f. 1965; political; Editor UĞUR GÜMÜŞTEKİN.
- Pazar:** Alâ-y Köşkü Cad. 12, Cağaloğlu; f. 1956; illustrated; Publisher HALDUN SİMAVİ.
- Perde:** Divanyolu Isık Sokak 11; f. 1963; cinema and theatre; Editor LÜTFİ GÖKMEN.
- Resimli Roman:** Türbedar Sok. 22, Cağaloğlu; f. 1965; twice weekly; illustrated; Editor SEZAI SOLELLİ; circ. 120,000.
- Şalom:** Bereket Han 24/5, Karaköy; f. 1948; Jewish; Publisher AVRAM LEYON.
- Ses:** Türbedar Sok. 22, Cağaloğlu; f. 1962; illustrated film magazine; Editor ERDOĞAN SEVGİN; circ. 90,000.
- Türkische Deutsche Post:** Asmalimescit Sok. 41/7, Beyoğlu; German and Turkish; Publisher İBRAHİM TOKAY.
- Tutum:** Nuruosmaniye Cad. 54; f. 1967; political; Editor ERDOĞAN AKKURT.
- Yeni Gavros:** Billür Sok. 10, Karaköy; f. 1945; Armenian news weekly; Publisher BOĞOS ARTUR.

PERIODICALS

ANKARA

- Adalet Dergisi:** Adalet Bakanlığı; f. 1909; legal journal published by the Ministry of Justice; Editor HÜSEYİN ERGÜL; circ. 3,500.
- Ankara Barosu Dergisi:** f. 1944; monthly; journal of the Ankara Bar.
- Azerbaycan:** Azerbaizhan Cultural Association, P.K. 165; f. 1949; literary; Editor Dr. AHMET YAŞAT.
- Bayrak Dergisi:** Necatibey Cad., Karakimseli Han; f. 1964; Pub. and Editor HAMI KARTAY.
- Çiftlik Dergisi:** P.K. 6, Çankaya; agricultural; f. 1960; monthly; Publisher VASFI HAKMAN; circ. 10,000.
- Devlet Operası:** Devlet Operası Umum Md.; art, opera.
- Devlet Tiyatrosu:** Devlet Tiyatrosu Um. Md.; f. 1952; art, theatre.
- Dost:** Menekşe Sok. 16/13, Yenışehir; f. 1947; literary; Editor SALİM SENGİL.
- Elektrik Mühendisliği Mecmuası:** İhlamur Sokak 10/1, Yenışehir; f. 1954; published by the Chamber of Turkish Electrical Engineers.
- Halkevleri Dergisi:** Atatürk Bulvarı 104; f. 1966; art, literary; Publisher CELÂL ERTUĞ.
- Hisar:** P.K. 501; f. 1950; literary; Editor MÜSERRET YILMAZ.
- İdare Dergisi:** İçişleri Bakanlığı; administrative.
- İlk Öğretim:** Millî Eğitim Bakanlığı; educational.
- İller ve Belediyeler Dergisi:** Mithat Paşa Cad. 45/2; f. 1945; monthly journal of the Turkish Municipal Asscn.; Pres. İSMET SEZGİN.
- Karınca:** Mithat Paşa Cad. 38/A, Yenışehir; f. 1934; monthly revue published by the Turkish Co-operative Society; circ. 6,000.
- Maden Tetkik ve Arama Enstitüsü Dergisi:** Eskişehir Yolu; f. 1935; bi-annual; publ. by Mineral Research and Exploration Institute of Turkey; English Edition *Bulletin of the Mineral Research and Exploration Institute* (bi-annual).
- Mesleki ve Teknik Öğretim:** Millî Eğitim Bakanlığı; f. 1942; educational.
- Mühendis ve Makina:** Çelikkale Sok. 3, Kızılay; f. 1957; engineering monthly; Publ. Chamber of Mechanical Engineers; Dir. ARSLAN SANIR; Editor SELÂMİ ÜNER.

- Önasya Dergisi:** Konur Sokak Uğur Apt., 10-1 Yenışehir; f. 1965; monthly; cultural; Publisher SADI BAYRAM.
- Orta Doğu (Middle East):** Fevzi Çakmak Sok. 38, Demirtape; Publisher Senator CELÂL TEVFIK KARASAPAN; Editor SEVİNÇ KIŞLALI.
- Resmi Kararlar Dergisi:** Ministry of Justice, Adalet Bakanlığı; f. 1966; legal; Editor AVNİ ÖZENÇ; circ. 3,500.
- T. C. Merkez Bankası Aylık Bülten:** Merkez Bank; monthly.
- Turizm:** Posta kutusu 682; f. 1957; Publisher HAYRİ BENLİ.
- Türk Arkeoloji Dergisi:** General Directorate of Antiquities and Museums, Eski Eserler ve Müzeler Genel Müdürlüğü; archaeological.
- Türk Dili:** Türk Dil Kurumu, Atatürk Bulvarı 221, Kavaklıdere; f. 1951; monthly; literary.
- Türk Kültürü:** Tunus Cad. 16; f. 1962; cultural studies; Editor Prof. Dr. AHMET TEMİR.
- Turkey—Economic News Digest:** Karanfil Sok. 56; f. 1960; Editor-in-Chief BEHZAT TANIR; Man. Editor SADİK BALKAN.
- Türkiye Bankacılık:** P.K. 121; f. 1955; commercial; Publisher MUSTAFA ATALAY.
- Türkiye Bibliyografyası:** Milli Kütüphane Genel Müdürlüğü, Yenışehir; f. 1934; quarterly; Turkish national bibliography; published by the Bibliographical Institute of the Turkish National Library; Dir. FİLTİZ BAŞBUĞOĞLU.
- Yeni Yayınlar (Aylık Fikir, Sanat ve Bibliyografya Dergisi):** P.K. 60, Yenimahalle (Yeşilyurt Sokak 54/17, Aşağıyaranca); f. 1956; bibliography; Dir. SAHAP NAZMİ COŞKUNLAR; Editor MUHARREM MERCANLIGİL.
- Ziraat Dergisi:** Posta K. 305; f. 1950; monthly; agriculture.
- Ziraat Dünyası:** Posta K. 127; f. 1950; monthly; agriculture.

İSTANBUL

- Ant:** P.K. 934, Sirkeci; f. 1967; political; Editor DOĞAN ÖZGÜDEN.
- Arkitekt:** Anadolu Han 32, Eminönü; f. 1931; quarterly; architecture, city planning and tourism; Chair. ZEKİ SAYAR; Sec. KETİ GAPAÜOĞLU.
- Bakis:** Cağaloğlu Yokuşu; f. 1945; Editor AVNİ ALTINLER.
- Banka:** Imam Sok. 1, Kat 3, Beyoğlu; f. 1964; banking, economic, social and management subjects; Publisher NEZİH H. NEYZİ; circ. 2,500.
- Baris Dunyasi:** P.K. 478, Himayci Etfal Sok. 5/18, Cağaloğlu; f. 1962; political; monthly; Publisher AHMET HAMDİ BAŞAR.
- Deniz:** Rıhtım Cad., Veli Alemdar Han, Kat 6/23, Karaköy; f. 1955; monthly; maritime news; Publisher EMEL KAZANLIOĞLU.
- Filim:** P.K. 307, Beyoğlu; f. 1970; cinema; Editor ONAT KUTLAR.
- İktisadi Yükseliş:** P.K. 317; f. 1949; economic; Publisher ŞEMSETTİN CURA.
- İstanbul, A Handbook for Tourists:** Sıslı Meydanı, 364; f. 1968; quarterly; published by the Touring and Automobile Club of Turkey; Publisher Dr. NEJAT F. ECZACIBASI; Editor ÇELİK GÜLERSOY.
- İstanbul Barosu Dergisi:** f. 1926; monthly; published by the Istanbul Bar.
- İstanbul Ticaret Odası Mecmuası:** f. 1884; every two months; journal of the Istanbul Chamber of Commerce; Turkish and English; Editor Dr. YILDIRIM KILKIŞ.
- Kemalizm:** Bankalar Cad., Ankara H. 16; f. 1962; Publisher HÜSEYİN SAĞIROĞLU.

Köy Postası: Nuruosmaniye Cad 57, f 1944. Editor KADRI ÖGÜZ

Kışılın Sesi: Nuruosmaniye Cad 59/2 f 1966 Publisher KEMAL KARADENİZ

Kulis Çağaloğlu Yokuşu 10/A, f 1947 fortnightly arts magazine, Armenian Publisher HAGOP AYVAZ

Musiki Mecmuası: Yonicerler Cad. 43 Beyazıt P K 666, f 1948 monthly, music and musicology, Editor ETEM RUHİ ÜNGÖR

Pirelli: Büyükdere Cad 151. Gayrettepe, f 1964. Publisher EMİL ELAĞÖZ

Polis Dergisi: Kuledibi Emniyet Sarayı, Karaköy, f 1954. Publisher KEMAL ARUÇ

Polis Magazin: İstiklal Cad 364/18, Beyoğlu f 1958, Publisher MİHAHAT ENGİN VİRANYALI

Ruh ve Madde Dergisi: P K 1157 f 1959 organ of the Metapsychic and Scientific Research Society of Turkey, Publisher ERGÜN AKIKAL

Sanat Dünyası: Fevziye Cad 29 Fatih f 1956 arts culture Editor HALİDE TILGİN, circ 15 000

Seyir Dünyası (World of Love) Larmartin Cad 26/3 Faksım f 1963 Publisher Dr R. KAYSERİLOĞLU, circ 10 000

882: Piyerloti Cad 7, Divanyolu f 1966, political, Editor GENÇAY GÜN

Tıp Dünyası: Ankara Cad 31/3 Küçük Han Çağaloğlu P K 192 f 1927 monthly organ of the Turkish Mental Health and Social Psychiatry Society, Editor Dr FAHRETTİN KERİM GÖKAY

Türk Anglo-Amerikan ve Almanya Postası: P K 192, Beyoğlu, f 1947, commercial Publisher KEMAL ERKAN

Türk Folklor Araştırmaları: P K 46 Aksaray, f 1949, arts and folklore, Editor İHSAN HİNÇER

Türk Ticaret Almanası: Mollafenar Sok 25 Çağaloğlu, commercial, Editor REŞAT TOPALOĞLU

Turkish Trade Directory: Boyacı Ahmet Sok. 12 Çarşıberitaş Nuriye Han 12/E, f 1960, annual, Publisher SERGIO COSTANTE

Türkiye Turizm ve Otomobil Kurumu Belleteni: Halaskar gazı Cad 364 Şişli Meydanı, f 1930 bi monthly, published by the Touring and Automobile Club of Turkey, Publisher Dr NEJAT ECZİCİBAŞI, Editor ÇELİK GÜLERSOY

Türkiyede ve Dünyada Tarım: P K 578, f 1964, agricultural news Publisher KEMAL BAYKAL

Ülkeli Öğretmen: Başmuhafız Sok. Emek Han Çağaloğlu f 1965 education Publisher HALİD BERR, Editor in-Chief Dr BAHA ARIKAN

Varlık: Çağaloğlu Yokuşu 40, f 1933, monthly literary, Editor YAŞAR NALİ NAYIR

Yedigöller: P K 77, Çağaloğlu Mengene Sok, Yeni Han 21, f 1950 literary and cultural, monthly, Editor HÜSAMETTİN BOZOK

Yelken: P K 639, Karaköy, f 1955 arts, Editor RÖR-NETTİN RESULOĞLU

Yeni Sağlık Afemi: Başmuhafız Sok. 10/1, Çağaloğlu f 1964, health Editor ENGİN SÖMER

Yeni Sanayi Dünyası: P K 515, Beyoğlu f 1963 Editor NURETTİN ÖZŞİMŞEK

Yeni Sinema: P K 307 Beyoğlu, f 1966, cinema Editor HÜSEYİN HACİBAŞOĞLU

İZMİR

İzmir Barosu Dergisi: f 1967, monthly, Journal of the İzmir Bar Editor CİHAĞIR KUTLAY, Propri NEDDET ÖZLEM, circ. 1,000

İzmir Ticaret Odası Dergisi: Atatürk Cad 126, f 1925; monthly, commercial

KONYA

Cağrı Dergisi: P K 99 f 1957, literary, monthly, Editor FREYİL HALICI

NEWS AGENCIES

Anatolian News Agency: Ankara and Istanbul f 1920, Gen Man ATILTA ONUK publ *Weekly Economical Bulletin*

Haber Ajansı: Ersoy Han Çağaloğlu f 1963 Dir Gen AYDOĞAN ÖVÖL

İKA Economic and Commercial News Agency: Tunus Cad 12/3 Bakanlıklar Ankara, f 1954, Dir Ziya TANSU, publs *Daily Economic and Commercial Bulletin Investment and Finance Bulletin* (both English and Turkish), *Foreign Investment Authorization Records for Turkey*

Türk Haberler Ajansı (Turkish News Agency) Basın Sarayı Çağaloğlu İstanbul, f 1950, brs in Ankara and İzmir, Dir-Gen KADRI KAYABAĞ

FOREIGN BUREAUX

ANKARA

ANSA: Gelişik Sok. 7A/6, Bureau Chief LAMBERTO BORGATO

Agence France-Presse and AP are also represented

İSTANBUL

AP: 5ci Kat, Mollafenar Sok No 1, Bureau Chief HAL McCLEURE

UPI: Basın Sarayı, Çağaloğlu, Bureau Chief JOHN LAWTON
The following are also represented Agence France Presse Deutsche Presse-Agentur (DPA) Reuters, Tass

PRESS ASSOCIATIONS

Editörler Birliği (Editors' Union) Ankara Cad 93 İstanbul, f 1950 Pres Remzi BENGİ Sec CİHAH İMER

PUBLISHERS

Ağaoğlu Yayınevi: Selvilimesçit Sokak 2, Kurt İş Hanı, Cağaloğlu, İstanbul; translations and literary books; MUSTAFA KEMAL AĞAOĞLU.

Akgün Matbaası: İstanbul.

Ark Ticaret Ltd. ŞTİ: P.K. 577, Ankara; f. 1962; technical books; Gen. Man. ATILAN TÜMER.

Arkin Kitabevi—Bir Yayınevi: Ankara Cad. 60, P.K. 11, İstanbul; f. 1949; encyclopedias, atlases, children's books, reference; Pres. and Man. RAMAZAN GÖKALP ARKIN.

Atlas Kitabevi Yayınevi: Nuruosmaniye Caddesi, Mengene Sokak 7-9, İstanbul; literary.

Ayyıldız Matbaası: Ankara.

Baha Matbaası: Cemal Nadir Sokak 12, İstanbul.

Başkent Yayınevi: Anafartalar Caddesi, Nilüfer Sokak 5A, İstanbul; literary.

Bates Bayilik Teşkilâtı A.Ş.: Molla Fenari Sokak 1, Cağaloğlu, İstanbul; f. 1960; books and periodicals.

Bodri Yayınevi: İstanbul.

Berkalp Kitabevi: Şehir Bahçesi 7/8, Ankara.

Cumhuriyet Mat. ve Gaze T.A.Ş.: Halkevi Sokak 40/41, Cağaloğlu, İstanbul.

Do Yayınevi: Vilâyet Han, Kat. 3, Cağaloğlu, İstanbul; literary.

Depas: 56 Cumhuriyet Bulvarı, İzmir.

Elif Kitabevi: Sahaflar Çarşısı 4, Beyazıt, İstanbul; f. 1956; all types of publications, especially historical, literary, political, drama and reference.

Forum Yayınları: Ankara; literary and artistic books.

Gerçek Yayınevi: İstanbul; economic.

İnkılâp Kitabevi: Ankara Caddesi 95, İstanbul; Dir. NAZAR FİKRİ.

İnkılâp ve aka Kitabevleri Kollektif Şirketi: Ankara Caddesi 95, İstanbul; Dir. KARABET FİKRİ.

İzel Yayınları: İstanbul; plays.

Kanaat Kitabevi: İlyas Bayar Halefi, Yakup Bayar, Ankara Caddesi 133, İstanbul; f. 1896; textbooks, novels, dictionaries, posters, maps and atlases.

Kanaat Yayınları Ltd. Şti: Narlıbahçe Sokak 19, İstanbul; f. 1951; maps, school books; Dir. YAKUP BAYAR.

Köy ve Eğitim Yayınevi: P.K. 339, Ankara; social sciences.

Kültür Kitabevi: Ankara Cad. 62, Sirkeci, İstanbul; f. 1945; Dirs. İZİDOR and RENE KANT.

Neşriyat A.Ş.: Mollafenari S.1, Cağaloğlu, İstanbul; classics, children's books, novels.

Nil Yayınevi: İstanbul; literary translations.

Nişantaşı Deniz Kitabevi: Nisantas, İstanbul; poetry.

Öğretim Yayınevi: Ankara Cad. 62/2, Sirkeci, İstanbul; f. 1959; English, French, German and Dutch language courses, guides and dictionaries; Dir. İZİDOR KANT.

Remzi Kitabevi: Ankara Caddesi 93, İstanbul; f. 1930; school textbooks, novels, fiction, science and art books; Dir. REMZİ BENİ.

Sermet Matbaası: Şeref Efendi Sok. 28, Cağaloğlu, İstanbul; f. 1950; books on medicine, statistics, economics, mathematics, dictionaries; Gen. Man. SERMET ARKADAŞ.

Sinan Matbaası: İstanbul.

Tifdruk Matbaacılık Sanayii Anonim Şirketi: Divanyolu, Türbedar S. No. 22, İstanbul; f. 1955; novels, magazines, encyclopedia; Pres. KAZIM TAŞKENT.

Türk Dil Kurumu: Atatürk Bulvarı, 221 Kavaklıdere, Ankara; f. 1932; non-fiction.

T.T.K. Basımevi: Ankara.

Türkiye Yayınevi: Ankara Caddesi 36, İstanbul.

Üniversite Kitabevi: İstanbul.

Varlık: Cağaloğlu Yokuşu 40, İstanbul; f. 1946; fiction and non-fiction books; Dir. YAŞAR NABİ NAYİR.

Yeditepe Yayınları: P.K. 77, Cağaloğlu, Mengene Sok., Yeni Han 21, İstanbul; publishes literature, poetry, translations, etc. and also *Yeditepe* (monthly).

Yeni Zaman Kitabevi: Ankara Caddesi 155, İstanbul; f. 1970; Dir. ROZİN İULIA FİKRİ.

RADIO AND TELEVISION

RADIO

Türkiye Radyo Televizyon Kurumu (T.R.T.): Mithat Paşa Caddesi 37, Ankara; f. 1964; controls Turkish radio and television services; Dir.-Gen. ADNAN ÖZTRAK.

Home Service:

Radio Ankara: LW, 240 kW., Dir. OĞUZ YILMAZ HICYILMAZ.

Ankara II Programme: MW, 2 kW., Dir. OĞUZ YILMAZ HICYILMAZ.

Ankara III Programme: FM, 0.25 kW., Dir. OĞUZ YILMAZ HICYILMAZ.

Radio Çukurova: MW, 300 kW., Dir. ERGUN EVREN.

Radio Diyarbakir: MW, 300 kW., Dir. RIDVAN ÖONGUR.

Radio İstanbul: MW, 150 kW., Dir. SALİH AKGÖL.

İstanbul II Programme: MW, 2 kW., Dir. SALİH AKGÖL.

Radio İzmir: MW, 100 kW., Dir. NİHAT UYTUN.

İzmir II Programme: MW, 2 kW., Dir. NİHAT UYTUN.

Radio Erzurum: LW, 100 kW., Dir. MEHMET GÜVEN.

Radio Antalya: MW, 2 kW., Dir. AYHAN DÜNDAR.

Radio Kars: MW, 2 kW., Dir. ALTAN KINAL.

Radio Van: MW, 2 kW., Dir. KADİR KAYNAR.

Radio Gaziantep: MW, 2 kW., Dir. ADİL DAİ.

Radio Trabzon: MW, 2 kW., Dir. KEMAL KOLLIOĞLU.

Foreign Service:

Ankara I: 16 and 19 meter bands, 100 kW.

Ankara II: 16, 19 and 31 meter bands, 250 kW. Twelve daily short-wave transmissions in the following languages: Arabic, Bulgarian, English, French, German, Greek, Persian, Pushtu, Romanian, Serbo-Croat, Turkish and Urdu. Dir. OĞUZ YILMAZ HICYILMAZ; also on the above frequency:

Voice of Turkey: broadcasting to Turks in Europe.

TURKEY—(RADIO AND TELEVISION FINANCE)

Technical University of Istanbul 0.5 kW Frequency Modulation broadcasts for Istanbul Dir Gen Prof Dr M SANYUR

In 1969 3 074 433 radio receivers were in use

TELEVISION

Türkiye Radyo Televizyon Kurumu (Ankara TV) Mihdat Paşa Caddesi 49 Ankara A limited television service was set up in 1965 and regular broadcasts for Ankara

began in 1968 now transmitting programmes four days a week and four hours a day New studios are to be established in Istanbul and Izmir Head of the Dept of Admin of the TV Stud os of TRT FAHRETTİN İŞİKÇİ Head of the Dept of TV Programmes GÜNTEKİN ÖRKÜT

Technical University of Istanbul educational programmes on Thursdays during the Academic Year Dir Dr A ATAMAN

In 1970 approx 150 000 television receivers were in use

FINANCE

(cap = capital p u = paid up dep = deposits m = million brs = branches)

Amounts in Turkish liras except where otherwise stated Figures given for capital and deposits are for the end of the calendar year stated)

The Central Bank of the Republic of Turkey was originally founded in 1931 and constituted in its present form after the revolution of 1960 The Central Bank is the bank of issue and is responsible also for public deposits and medium and long term borrowings of the banks In addition all international payments go through the Bank and all foreign exchange is held by the Bank

There are some 50 other banks functioning in Turkey Thirteen had been created by special laws to fulfil special services for particular industries The Sümerbank directs the operation of a number of state-owned factories Etlbank operates primarily in the extractive industries and electric power industries the Agricultural Bank makes loans for agriculture the Maritime Bank operates government-owned port facilities the merchant marine and its own fleet of ships the Real Estate Credit Bank participates in industrial undertakings and the construction of all types of buildings Other specialized banks deal with tourism municipalities and mortgages etc

The largest of the 33 private sector Turkish banks is the Türkiye İş Bankası which operates 380 branches and 67 agencies The private banks borrow at medium and long term mainly from the State Investment Bank

These banks are required to contribute credits to the Bank Liquidation Fund set up by law in December 1960 to liquidate gradually those banks whose financial standing was unsatisfactory This fund is derived from annual contributions of 0.2 per cent of savings and commercial deposits and since 1960 has been made up to the required amount by the Central Bank

There are five foreign banks operating branches in Turkey The Ottoman Bank which was founded in 1863 is the oldest bank in Turkey and has strong British and French interests The agreement with the Turkish Government expires in 1975

There are several other credit institutions in Turkey including the Industrial Development Bank of Turkey which encourages private investment in industry by acting as underwriter in the issue of share capital The Türkiye Sınai Kalkınma Bankası is a privately owned development finance company founded in 1950 with the assistance of the World Bank to stimulate industrial growth in the private sector

There are numerous co-operative organizations and in the rural areas there are Agricultural Sale Co-operatives and Agricultural Co-operatives There are also a number of savings institutions

BANKING

STATE BANKS

Türkiye Cumhuriyet Merkez Bankası (Central Bank of the Republic of Turkey) Bankalar Caddesi 48 Ankara 1 1931 bank of issue part of the share capital is owned by the State cap p u 15m Gen Man NAIM TALU

Etlbank Atatürk Bulvarı Cihan Sok. Sıhhiye Posta K 505 Ankara 1 1935 Government Bank for mineral electric-power and banking development cap p u 500m (1967) Gen Man. TAHSİN YALABİK

İller Bankası (Municipal Bank) Atatürk Bulvarı Ankara 1 1945 Government Municipalities Bank cap p u 270m Chair of Board and Gen Dir ESAT KIRAT

Sümerbank Ulus Meydanı 2 Ankara Holdings Bank for governmental industrial undertakings cap p u 500m Gen Man HÜSEİN ÇERİDOĞLU

Türkiye Cumhuriyeti Turizm Bankası Mesrutiyet Caddesi 57 Galatasaray İstanbul 1 1960 state bank to develop tourism authorized cap 300m cap p u 129.4m

Türkiye Cumhuriyeti Ziraat Bankası (Agricultural Bank) Bankalar Caddesi Ankara 1 1863 Government Agricultural Bank over 760 branches cap p u 1 028m. dep 8 112m (1969) Gen Man SABAHATTİN SERTİFOĞLU

Türkiye Emlak Kredi Bankası A O (Real Estate Credit Bank of Turkey) Atatürk Bulvarı 15 Ankara 1 1946 cap p u 1 000m (1968) Pres and Gen Man HAYRİ SEÇKİN

Türkiye Sınai Kalkınma Bankası A Ş (Industrial Development Bank of Turkey) Necatibey Caddesi 241 47 Karaköy İstanbul 1 1950 cap 110.5m loans and investments 1 752m (1970) Chair FERİD BİSMACI Man Dir BÜLENT YAZICI Gen Man. REŞİD EĞİLİ

Türkiye Vakıflar Bankası T A O Bankalar Caddesi 52 Ankara 1 1954 state bank controlling funds of religious foundations cap p u 50m Chair ATIF BENDERLİOĞLU Gen Man BASRİ KURDOĞLU

Dönizcilik Bankası T A O (Turkish Maritime Bank) Rıhtım Caddesi Posta K. 1387 İstanbul a set-up public corporation with a 99-year charter which took over the function of the former State Seaways and Harbours Administration 1 1952 cap approx. 500m of which 51 per cent is subscribed by the Government the rest by private investors and organizations Gen. Man NEDRAT UTKAN

PRINCIPAL COMMERCIAL BANKS

- Akbank T.A.Ş.:** Eski Gümrük Sokak 2, P.K. 926, Karaköy, İstanbul; f. 1948; cap. p.u. 50m., dep. 3,066m. (1970); Chair. AHMED DALLI; Gen. Man. MEDENİ BERK; publ. monthly bulletin.
- Anadolu Bankası A.Ş.:** Okçu Musu Caddesi, Karaköy, İstanbul; f. 1962; cap. p.u. 45m., deposits 236m. (1968); successor to Türk Ekspres Bank and Buğday Bankası; Gen. Man. MİTHAT GÜLDÜ.
- Demirbank T.A.Ş.:** 44-46 Bankalar Caddesi, Karaköy, İstanbul; f. 1953; cap. p.u. 10m., dep. 57.3m. (1968); Pres. SABRİ SAVCI; Gen. Man. MÜNÜR EVRENOL.
- Egebank, S.A.:** Atatürk Avenue 80, P.K. 251, İzmir; f. 1928; cap. p.u. 5m., dep. 12m. (1968); Chair. SEVKET FİLİBELİ.
- İstanbul Bankası T.A.Ş.:** Beyoğlu İstiklâl Caddesi, Mısır Apart. 309, İstanbul; f. 1953; cap. p.u. 20m., dep. 177.4m. (1969); Pres. F. BARIN; Gen. Man. H. GÖNEN.
- Maden Kredi Bankası A.Ş.:** Bankalar Caddesi Bozkurt Han Karaköy, İstanbul; f. 1958; cap. p.u. 8m. (1968).
- Pamukbank T.A.Ş.:** İstiklâl Caddesi 151, Beyoğlu, İstanbul; f. 1955; cap. p.u. 25m., dep. 268.6m. (1970); Chair. K. ÇELİK; Gen. Man. A. DEMİRER.
- Şekerbank T.A.Ş.:** Atatürk Bulvarı 55, Ankara; f. 1953; cap. p.u. 30m., dep. 401m. (1970); Chair. of Board HAYDAR KOYUNCU; Gen. Man. ÖMER SUNAR.
- Türk Ticaret Bankası A.Ş.:** İskele Caddesi, Hayri Efendi Sokak, Bahçekapı, İstanbul; f. 1914; cap. p.u. 30m., dep. 1,135m. (1968); Dir.-Gen. HAKI EROL.
- Türkiye Garanti Bankası A.Ş.:** 43 Yeni Postahane Caddesi, Bahçekapı, İstanbul; f. 1946; cap. p.u. 40m., dep. 626m. (1968); Chair. CÂBİR S. SELEK.
- Türkiye Halk Bankası A.Ş.:** Anafartalar Caddesi 41, Ankara; f. 1938; cap. 100m., dep. 354m. (1969); 181 branches; Dir.-Gen. HALİT TAŞÇIOĞLU.
- Türkiye İmar Bankası T.A.Ş.:** Karaköy, İstanbul; cap. p.u. 5m., dep. 68m. (1968).
- Türkiye İs Bankası A.Ş.:** Ulus Meydanı, Ankara; f. 1924; 446 brs.; cap. p.u. 40m., dep. 8,915m. (1970); Chair. İHSAN KÖKNEL; Gen. Man. FERİD BASMACI; publs. annual review, bi-monthly economic review.
- Türkiye Öğretmenler Bankası T.A.Ş.:** Çankırı Cad. 18, P.K. 152, Ankara; cap. 30m.; Chair. Prof. Dr. SAİR KEMAL MİMAROĞLU; Gen. Man. BULUT HÜSREV GÖLE.
- Türkiye Tütcüler Bankası A.Ş.:** Halit Ziya Bulvarı No. 45, İzmir, P.K. 239; f. 1924; 5 brs.; cap. p.u. 5m., dep. 36m. (1968); Chair. REŞAT EKİNCİ; Gen. Man. İSMAİL AKSÖY.
- Uluslararası Endüstri ve Ticaret Bankası A.Ş.:** Voyvoda Cad. 31/33, Karaköy, İstanbul; f. 1888 as Selânik Bankası T.A.Ş.; cap. p.u. 2.7m., dep. 110.9m. (1970); Pres. FAHRETTİN ULAŞ; Gen. Man. Dr. MUZAFFER ERSOY.
- Yapi ve Kredi Bankası A.Ş.:** P.O.B. 250, İstiklâl Cad. 285, Beyoğlu, İstanbul; f. 1944; cap. p.u. 100m., dep. 4,421m. (1970); Chair. KÂZIM TAŞKENT.

FOREIGN BANKS

- Amerikan-Türk Dış Ticaret Bankası A.Ş.:** 207 Cumhuriyet Caddesi, Harbiye, P.K. 11, Şişli, İstanbul; f. 1964; cap. p.u. 10m., dep. 255m. (1970); jointly owned by Bank of America, Türkiye İş Bankası and Banca d'America e d'Italia; brs. in Ankara, İstanbul (three) and İzmir; Chair. A. ÜSKÜDARLI.

- Banca Commerciale Italiana:** Head Office: Milan, Italy; İstanbul branch: Bankalar Cad. 53, Karaköy; cap. p.u. 1.5m., dep. 112m. (1968).
- Banco di Roma:** Rome, Italy; Hayri Efendi Caddesi, Bahçekapı, P.O.B. 464, İstanbul; cap. and reserves 9.7m., dep. 105.6m. (1968); Man. in İstanbul CARLO CAPPI.
- Holantse Bank-Üni N.V.:** Amsterdam, Netherlands; İstanbul, Karaköy, P.K. 34; cap. p.u. 1m., dep. 57m. (1968); Man. in İstanbul C. H. WEDDEPOHL.
- Ottoman Bank (Osmanlı Bankası):** Bankalar Caddesi, Karaköy, İstanbul; f. 1863; cap. p.u. 8m., dep. 1,141m. (1970); Dir.-Gen. J. JEULIN; over 90 brs.

STOCK EXCHANGE

- Borsa-Komiserliği:** Menkul Kıymetler ve Kambiyo Borsası, 4 Vakıf Han, Bahçekapı, İstanbul; f. 1873; 323 mems.; Pres. REFİK T. SELİMOĞLU; publ. *Borsa*.

INSURANCE

- Milli Reasürans T.A.Ş.:** P.K. 359, İstanbul; f. 1929; state-owned with monopoly of re-insurance; supervises private insurance companies; Chair. SALİH COŞKUN; Gen. Man. SEBATİ ATAMAN.
- Sosyal Sigortalar Kurumu:** Ankara; Social Insurance Organization.

PRIVATE INSURANCE

- Anadolu Anonim Türk Sigorta Şirketi (Anatolia Turkish Insurance Society):** Galata, Anadolu Sigorta Hanı, P.O.B. Karaköy 1845, İstanbul.
- Ankara Sigorta Şirketi (Ankara Insurance Society):** Bankalar Cad. 80, Ankara Sigorta Hanı, İstanbul; f. 1936; Dir. KEMAL SARIGÖLLÜ.
- Atlantik Sigorta A.Ş.:** Bankalar Cad. No. 2, Karaköy, İstanbul; f. 1964; fire, marine, accident; Chair. EMİN ANSEN; Gen. Man. ENGİN ASAL.
- Destek Reasürans T.S.A.Ş.:** Cumhuriyet Caddesi 6a/2 İstanbul; f. 1943; Pres. BÜLENT KOZLU.
- Doğan Sigorta A.Ş.:** Doğan Sigorta Binası, Karaköy İstanbul; f. 1942; Chair. EMİN ANSEN; Managing Dir. NAIL MORALI; Gen. Man. ENGİN ASAL; fire, marine, accident and life.
- Güven Türk Anonim Sigorta Şirketi:** Karaköy, İstanbul; f. 1925; Chair. and Gen. Man. A. FETHİ SOYSAL.
- Halk Sigorta T.A.Ş.:** Galata, Halk Sigorta Hanı, Söğüt Sokak, İstanbul; f. 1944; Man. SAFFET DEMİR.
- İstanbul Umum Sigorta, Anonim Şirketi (General Insurance Society of İstanbul):** P.O.B. Galata 391, İstanbul; 1893; Pres. CÂBİR SELEK; Man. HAŞİM EKENER.
- İmtaş İttihadı Milli Türk Anonim Sigorta Şirketi (İmtaş Insurance Company):** Karaköy, Ünyon Han, İstanbul, P.K. 107; f. 1918; Man. NURETTİN YAMANLAR.
- Şark Sigorta Türk Anonim Şirketi (Orient Turkish Insurance Society):** P.O.B. 111, Karaköy, Bankalar Cad., Şark Han, İstanbul; f. 1923; Chair. MİTHAT NEMLI.
- Seker Sigorta Anonim Şirketi:** Meclisi Mebusan Cad. 325, Seker Sigorta Hanı, Fındıklı, İstanbul; all types of insurance.
- Tam Sigorta A.Ş.:** 279 Cumhuriyet Cad., Harbiye, İstanbul; all types of insurance.
- Türkiye Genel Sigorta Anonim Şirketi:** Yeni Postahane Karşısı, İstanbul; f. 1948; Pres. C. ARIDURU; Gen. Man. F. İŞİL.

TRADE AND INDUSTRY

CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY

Union of Chambers of Commerce, Industry and Commodity Exchanges of Turkey 149 Atatürk Bulvarı Ankara Pres MUKERREM BERK

Organization for Turkish Chambers of Industry Corporation İzmir Caddesi No 22/10 Ankara f 1968 Chair FAZİL ZORU

There are Chambers of Commerce and Industry in all towns of the Republic. Among the most important are the following:

Adana Chamber of Commerce Adana f 1893 Pres FERİT ERÇETİL Sec Gen A İRFAN TUĞBERK 3 100 mems publ *Gazetesi*

Adana Chamber of Industry Adana f 1966 Pres SAKİP SARANCI 230 mems

Ankara Chamber of Commerce and Industry Şehit Teğmen Kalmaz Caddesi 20 Pres NURİ CİRİTOĞLU Gen Sec İZZET DURU publ *Bulletin* (monthly)

British Chamber of Commerce of Turkey (Inc) P.O.B. 190 Karaköy İstanbul f 1887 500 mems Sec and Treas N COVEY M.B.E. publ *Journal* (8 issues a year)

Bursa Chamber of Commerce and Industry Bursa f 1926 4 582 mems Pres HÜSEYİN SÜNGÜR Sec Gen ERGUN KAĞITCIBAŞI publ *Bursa Ticaret Haberleri* weekly

Chamber of Industry for the Aegean Region P.O.B. 188 İzmir f 1954 succeeded to the İzmir Chamber of Industry Pres SİNAN ERTAN Sec Gen HÜSEYİN KUNTER publ *Monthly Bulletin*

İstanbul Chamber of Commerce Ragıp Gümüş Paşa Cad. Eminönü İstanbul and P.K. 377 İstanbul f 1882 43 400 mems Pres EMİR SEVİNCER Pres Exec Board BEHÇET OSMANAGAĞOĞLU Sec Gen İSMAIL HÜSEYİN TÖRKİ publ *İstanbul Ticaret Odası Mecmuası* *İstanbul Ticaret Statistical Abstract* (in English) *Monthly Bulletin* (in English)

İstanbul Chamber of Industry Eminönü İstanbul Pres BEHÇET OSMANAGAĞOĞLU

İzmir Chamber of Commerce Atatürk Caddesi 126 İzmir f 1885 7 351 mems Pres SABRİ TANIK Sec Gen HİLMİ ÖZTARHAN publ *İzmir Ticaret Odası Dergisi* (monthly)

Mersin Chamber of Commerce and Industry P.O.B. 212 Mersin f 1886 1 711 mems Pres NUREDDİN ALGÜZ Sec Gen ALİ B AYDINIZ

Samsun Chamber of Commerce and Industry Samsun f 1923 9 mems Pres CENGİZ BALKAN Gen Sec CAYDET KARSLI

TRADE UNIONS

CONFEDERATIONS

Türkiye İşçi Sendikaları Konfederasyonu-Türk İş (Turkish Trade Union Confederation) Bayındır Sok 8 Yenisehir Ankara f 1952 affiliated to ICFTU 29 national unions and 6 federations with 934 000 employees Chair SEYİT DEMİRSÖZ Sec-Gen. HALİF TUNÇ Financial Sec ÖMER ERGÜÇ Organizing Sec. ERTEN ERGÜÇ publ *Türk İş*

Devrimci İşçileri Sendikası Konfederasyonu (Confederation of Reformist Workers Unions) Ankara f 1967 17 mem. unions

PRINCIPAL UNIONS

Unions affiliated to Türk İş in 1967 with a membership of over 5 000

Çimento-İş (Türkiye Cimento, Seramik ve Toprak Sanayii İşçileri Sendikası) (Cement Ceramic and Soil) Necatibey Cad 13/13 14 Yenisehir Ankara f 1963 15 000 mems also affiliated to ITPCW Pres HASAN TURKAY, Gen Sec ANUZER UCAR

Deri-İş (Türkiye Deri Debbaz, Kundura ve Saraciyeler Sanayii İşçileri Sendikası) (Leather and Shoe) Nuruosmaniye Cad 9 Cağaloğlu İstanbul f 1948 5 000 mems also affiliated to ISLWF Pres MUSTAFA ŞAHİN Gen Sec ADYAN GÖRKÜLE

Dok Gemi İş (Türkiye Liman Dok ve Gemi Sanayii İşçileri Sendikası) (Port Dock and Ship Building) Kemankeş Mah. Mumhane Cad Demir Han 17 19 Karaköy İstanbul f 1947 6 000 mems also affiliated to IMF Pres MAHMET YÜKSEL Gen Sec KAZIM YETİMŞİRK

Dyt İş (Türkiye Demiryolları İşçi Sendikaları Federasyonu) (Railways) Necatibey Cad Sezenler Sok 5/4 Yenişehir Ankara f 1952 30 100 mems also affiliated to ITF Pres ŞERAFETTİN AKOVA Gen Sec AHMET ÇATAKÇINLER

Genel İş (Türkiye Genel Hizmetler İşçileri Sendikası) (Public Services) Ulus İşhanı E Blok 201 Ulus Ankara f 1962 17 665 mems also affiliated to PSI Pres ABDULLAH BAŞTÜRK Gen Sec HASAN TOĞAY

Gas İş (Türkiye Devleti Enerji, su ve Gaz İşçileri Sendikası) (State Energy Gas Water Workers) Lozan Meydanı Strazburg Cad Kozanoğlu Apt 23/7 8 Yenisehir Ankara f 1961 17 000 mems also affiliated to PSI Pres OSMAN SOĞUKPINAR Gen Sec EROL AYKAŞ

Harb İş (Türkiye Harb Sanayi ve Yardımcı İşkolları İşçileri Sendikası) (Defence Industry and Allied Workers) Adakale Sok. Set Apt 73/5 8 Kocatepe Ankara f 1956 26 000 mems also affiliated to PSI Pres REMİZ DUYUKAN Gen Sec İLHAMİ AÇIRISÖZ

Likat İş (Türkiye Liman ve Kara Tahmini-Tahliye İşçileri Sendikası) (Loading and Unloading Workers) Necatibey Cad 13/11 12 Yenisehir Ankara f 1963 14 770 mems also affiliated to ITF Pres M. ALİ SARI Gen Sec MÜHÜRİN GEZER.

Metal İş (Türkiye Metal, Çelik Mühimmat, Makina Metal- den Mamul Eya ve Oto Sanayi İşçi Sendikaları) Federasyonu (Federation of Turkish Metal Steel Metal Goods Ammunition Machines and Automobile Industry Workers Unions) Gazi Mustafa Kemal Bulvarı No 40/1 2 Maltepe Ankara f 1962 61 428 mems at 20 mem unions Pres KAYA ÖZDEMİR Gen Sec MUSTAFA PATIRNA.

Petrol İş (Türkiye Petrol, Kimya, Azot ve Atom İşçileri Sendikası) (Oil Chemical Nitrogen and Atomic) P.K. 37 Büyükdere Cad 83 Mecidiyeköy İstanbul f 1950 12 000 mems also affiliated to ITPCW Pres ZİRA HEFBLR Gen. Sec ÖZKAL YICI publ *Bulletin* (weekly)

Sağlık-İş (Türkiye Sağlık İşçileri Sendikası) (Health Employees) Necatibey Cad. Başkent Apt. 12 Yenisehir Ankara f 1961 11 400 mems also affiliated to PSI Pres MUSTAFA BAŞOĞLU

Şeker-İş (Türkiye Şeker Fabrikaları İşçileri Sendikası) (Sugar Industry) Mithatpaşa Cad 13/3 Yenisehir Ankara f 1947 18 500 mems. Pres SADIK SİDİK Gen Sec HAYDAR ÖZGÜRETMEN publ *Şeker İş* (fortnightly)

TURKEY—(TRADE AND INDUSTRY)

Tarım-İş (Türkiye Tarım ve Tarım Sanayii İşçileri Sendikası) (*Agriculture*): Selânik Cad. 8/10, Yenişehir, Ankara; f. 1961; 6,317 mems.; also affiliated to IUF; Pres. BİNALİ YAĞIŞAN; Gen. Sec. ALİ RIZA ÖZDEMİR.

Tekgıda-İş (Türkiye Tütün, Müskirat, Gıda ve Yardımcı İşçileri Sendikası) (*Tobacco, Drink, Food and Allied Workers*): Babıali Cad. Sıhhiye Apt. 19/3, Cağaloğlu, İstanbul; f. 1952; 45,438 mems.; also affiliated to IUF; Pres. İBRAHİM DENİZCİER; Gen. Sec. ORHAN SORUĞU.

Teksif (Türkiye Tekstil, Orme ve Giyim Sanayii İşçileri Sendikası) (*Textile, Knitting and Clothing*): Ziya Gökalp Cad. 80, Yenişehir, Ankara; f. 1951; 100,000 mems.; also affiliated to ITGWF; Pres. ŞEVKET YILMAZ; Gen. Sec. VAHAP GÜVENÇ.

Tes-İş (Türkiye Enerji, Su, Gaz ve Devleti İşçi Sendikaları Federasyonu) (*Energy, Water, Gas and State Water Department*): Selânik Cad. 7/4, Yenişehir, Ankara; f. 1963; 17,000 mems.; Pres. ENVER TURGUT; Gen. Sec. ORHAN ERÇELİK.

TOLEYİS (Türkiye Otel Lokanta ve Eğlence Yerleri İşçileri Sendikası) (*Hotel, Restaurant and Places of Entertainment*): Sümer Sokak 6, Yenişehir, Ankara; f. 1969; 26,970 mems.; also affiliated to IUF; Pres. MUKBİL ZIRTILOĞLU; Gen. Sec. NUSRET AYDIN.

Tüm Gıda-İş (Türkiye Tütün, İçki ve Gıda Sanayii İşçileri Sendikası) (*Tobacco, Drink and Food*): Ankara Cad. 40, Sirkeci, İstanbul; f. 1957; 118,211 mems.; Pres. ORHAN SORUĞU; Gen. Sec. BÜLENT ÖZTUĞ.

Tümtis (Türkiye Motorlu Taşıt İşçileri Sendikası) (*Motor Transport*): Yeniselim Paşa Sok. 62, P.K. 292, Aksaray, İstanbul; f. 1949; 7,163 mems.; also affiliated to ITF; Pres. MEHMET İNHANLI; Gen. Sec. D. ZEKİ DEMİREL.

Türk Deniz Ulaş-İş (Türkiye Deniz Taşımacılığı İşçi Sendikaları Federasyonu) (*Water Transport*): Necatibey Cad., Şeref Han 401, Karaköy, İstanbul; f. 1959; 12,478 mems.; also affiliated to ITF; Pres. FERİDUN ŞAKIR ÖĞÜNÇ; Gen. Sec. KERİM AKYÜZ.

Türkiye Maden-İş (Türkiye Maden İşçileri Sendikaları Federasyonu) (*Mine Workers*): Mithatpaşa Cad. 10/11-12, Yenişehir, Ankara; f. 1958; 80,000 mems.; also affiliated to IMF; Pres. KEMAL ÖZER; Gen. Sec. MUSTAFA ORHAN.

Türkiye Maden, Madeni Eşya ve Makine Sanayii İşçileri Sendikası (*Metal, Metal Goods and Machine Industry Workers' Union of Turkey*): Nuruosmaniye Cad., Alibaba Türbe sok. No. 18, Kat 3, Cağaloğlu, İstanbul; f. 1947; 33,000 mems.; Pres. KEMAL TÜRKLER; Gen. Sec. RUHİ YÜMLÜ; publ. *Maden-İş Gazetesi* (fortnightly).

Yapı-İş (Türkiye Yapıcılık Genel Hizmetleri Sanayii İşçileri Sendikası) (*General Construction Services Industry*): Ziya Gökalp Cad. 20/12, Yenişehir, Ankara; f. 1964; 31,005 mems.; also affiliated to IFBWW; Pres. TAHİR ÖZTÜRK; Gen. Sec. EMRULLAH AKDOĞAN.

Yol-İş (Türkiye Karayolu Yapım-Bzkım ve Onarım İşçi Sendikaları Federasyonu) (*Highways Construction, Maintenance and Repair Workers*): Kızıllırmak Cad. 36/6, Kocatepe, Ankara; f. 1963; 29,759 mems.; also affiliated to PSI; Pres. HALİT MİSİRLİOĞLU; Gen. Sec. R. RAFET ALTUN.

TRADE FAIR

İzmir Enternasyonal Fuarı (Izmir International Fair): Kültürpark, İzmir; f. 1929; August 20th-September 20th annually.

TRANSPORT

RAILWAYS

Türkiye Cumhuriyeti Devlet Demiryolları İşletmesi—TCDD (*Turkish State Railways*) Ankara 1 1924 operates all railways and connecting ports the Railway Administration acquired the status of a public corporation in July 1953 Gen Dir AHMET SAKP Gen Sec FAHİR BİLGE

The total length of the railways operated within the national frontiers is 8 008 km. A five-year plan for modernizing the railway system came into force in January 1963. A second five-year plan 1968-72 aims at continuing this work, with dieselization and electrification projects. The Haydarpaşa Gebze section of the Haydarpaşa Arifiye Double Track Electrification Project was opened in May 1969.

The Central Treaty Organization Agreement between Turkey and Iran provided for the linking of the two railway networks by the construction of the Muş-Tatvan railroad which opened in October 1964. Work on this line between Van and Kotor is still under construction and is expected to be completed by the end of 1970.

ROADS

General Directorate of Highways Ankara Dir Gen SERVET BAYRAMOĞLU

At the end of 1967 the total length of all weather highways was 73 500 km and the highway network totalled 108 000 km. It is planned to complete a further 30 000 km of all weather roads by 1972.

In 1968 a ten year programme of road improvement for eastern Turkey was announced. A 78 km main road (sponsored by CENITO) runs from Sivekan in south-eastern Turkey to Rezayeh on Lake Urmia in Iran. Construction of a TL 1 500m six lane bridge across the Bosphorus was started early in 1970 for completion in 1972. It will be the fourth longest bridge in the world and the biggest in Europe with a centre span of 1 074 metres and a length of 1 560 metres. The existing ferry services constitute a major traffic bottleneck in the Turkish transport system. Plans are being made for the construction of a bridge across the Golden Horn.

MOTORISTS ASSOCIATION

Türkiye Tüving ve Otomobil Kurumu (*Touring and Automobile Club of Turkey*) Halaskargazi Cad 364 Şişli İstanbul 1. 1923 4 500 mems Dir ÇELİK GÜLERSEY

SHIPPING

Denizcilik Bankası (*The Turkish Maritime Bank Inc*) Genel Müdürlük Karaköy İstanbul 1 1952 by Act of Parliament converting the Turkish State Seaways and Harbour Administration into a corporation controlled and partly owned by the State. The Bank has a capital

of TL 500m. four maritime establishments operate passenger cargo and ferry boat lines on inter city coastal Adriatic Aegean and Mediterranean Sea routes. four Port Administrations offer loading unloading transfer and warehousing facilities. five ship-yards and dry docks have repair and construction facilities for ships up to 15 000 tons. international concerns such as ship salvage and coastal security. other assets include six hotels 90 173 gross tons of shipping 21 ships.

DB Deniz Nakliyatı T.A.Ş. Fındıklı İstanbul associated company of the above operating R.C.D. joint services to U.S. Atlantic and Gulf ports Gen Man Necmi AKYILDIZ 31 cargo ships 4 tankers

PRIVATE COMPANIES

Denizcilik Anonim Şirketi Meclis Mebusan Caddesi Fındıklı Han Kat 4 Fındıklı İstanbul 1 1952 tanker owners and shipbuilders up to 8 000 t d w repair and dry-docking at company's shipyard in İstanbul Chair Board of Durs HAYRETTİN BARAN Man Dir SABA HATTİN ÜLKÜ 3 ships

Koçtaş Denizcilik İşletmesi Dİ Bankalar Caddesi Bozkurt General Han Kat 5 Karaköy P.K. 884 İstanbul cargo services to and from Europe and the U.S.A. Gen Mans S KOÇMAN S GÖKTÜG 6 ships

Rıza ve Aslan Sadıkoğlu Ortakları Komandit Şirketi Taksim Cumhuriyet Meydanı 33 İstanbul cargo services Black Sea Europe and Atlantic Gen Man ASLAN SADIKOĞLU 2 ships

Sadıkkade Rusen Oğulları Akın, Talat Sadıkoğlu Kolektif Şirketi Arlu Han Kat 2 Rıhtım Caddesi Tophane İstanbul cargo services to Europe Man Dir ADNAN ALDORA 3 ships

CIVIL AVIATION

Türk Hava Yolları A.O. (THY) (*Turkish Airlines Inc*) THY Genel Müdürlüğü Gümüşsuyu No 96 İstanbul 1 1934 Chair MUHAMMET TUNÇAY Gen Man AGASI ŞEN Airports for international and internal flights at Yeşilköy (İstanbul) Esenboğa (Ankara) Antalya (international charter flights) and İzmir (international charter flights) fourteen other airports for internal flights only. Internal service and flights to Amsterdam Athens Beirut Brussels Frankfurt London Munich Nicosia Paris Rome Tel Aviv Vienna and Zurich fleet of 4 Viscounts 8 Friendshipships 10 DC-3 and a DC-7B and DC-9 (both leased).

Twenty seven international airlines also serve Turkey

TOURISM

Ministry of Tourism and Information: Gazi Mustafa Kemal Bulvarı 33, Ankara; Dir.-Gen. of Tourism SEVİNÇ KAYNAK; Dir.-Gen. of Information MEHMET DOBADA.

CULTURAL ORGANIZATION

Fine Arts General Directorate (*Güzel Sanatlar Genel Müdürlüğü*): Education Ministry, Bakanlıklar, Ankara; Dir.-Gen. MÜKERRREM KEYMEN.

PRINCIPAL THEATRES

State Theatre General Directorate (*Devlet Tiyatrosu Genel Müdürlüğü*): part of the above; runs eight playhouses; Dir.-Gen. CÜNEYT GÖKÇER.

Büyük Tiyatro (*Great Theatre*): Ankara.

Küçük Tiyatro (*Small Theatre*): Ankara.

Devlet Operası: Ankara; national opera and ballet; permanent classical ballet company of 50 dancers.

There are three other state theatres in Ankara, and five private companies. Istanbul has thirteen private companies.

Istanbul Municipal Theatre: Harbiye, Istanbul; f. 1914; presents wide range of plays, Turkish and international, classical and modern; six playhouses; Artistic Dir. VASFI RIZA ZOBU; Admin. Dir. BASKI DEDEOĞLU; publ. *Review*.

Istanbul City Opera: Taksim, Istanbul; Dir. MUHSİN ERTUĞRUL.

ORCHESTRAS

Istanbul Municipal Symphony Orchestra: Taksim, Istanbul

Presidential Symphony Orchestra: Ankara.

ATOMIC ENERGY

Turkish Atomic Energy Commission: Prime Minister's Office, Bestekar Sokak 29, Ankara; f. 1956; controls the development of peaceful uses of atomic energy; 10 mems.; Chair. Hon. MUNİS FAİK OZANSOY; Sec.-Gen. DANIŞ KOPER; publ. *Activity Reports, Research Reports*, etc.

There are nuclear research centres at Çekmece, near Istanbul, and at Ankara.

Technical University of Istanbul: graduate school of nuclear engineering.

Institute of Radiobiology: University of Ankara; sub-critical assembly.

Institute of Nuclear Science: Faculty of Science, University of Teheran, Teheran; f. 1959; under the aegis of the Central Treaty Organization, of which Turkey is a member. Courses are conducted in the use of radio isotopes for agriculture, industry and medicine.

Co-operation. Turkey is a member of the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) and the European Nuclear Energy Agency (ENEA). IAEA is providing assistance which includes equipment and technical aid for the universities of Ankara and Istanbul.

Power: Turkey's first nuclear power station, with a capacity of 400 MW, is planned for completion in 1976.

EDUCATION

One of the greatest problems confronting the new Republic was that of modernising and extending the educational system, for at that time only 11 per cent of the population were literate. New schools had to be built and equipped in towns and villages; teachers and inspectors trained, and suitable schemes of training devised for them; technical courses provided to equip skilled workers for industry and agriculture; and, above all, training in reading and writing had to be provided for the millions of peasants who had received no schooling.

Under the Ottoman Empire there had been a dual system of education—religious schools existing side by side with others in which ordinary educational subjects were taught, although religious instruction played a large part. Unity of education was recognised as the first requisite; the theological schools were converted into theological seminaries for the training of clergy, or abolished; the others were secularised. The Ministry of Education was declared the sole authority in all educational matters.

One of the main obstacles to literacy was the Arabic script, which required years of study before proficiency could be attained. In 1928, therefore, a Turkish alphabet was introduced, using Latin characters. At the same time the literary language was simplified, and purged of some of its foreign elements. By 1968–69 the education budget

amounted to nearly £T 3,924 million, around 17 per cent of the state budget.

People's Schools

This change of script created a need for schools in which reading and writing in the new alphabet could be taught to adults. Temporary institutions known as "people's schools" or "national schools" were set up everywhere. During the winter months these schools gave instruction in reading and writing and other basic subjects to men and women beyond the normal school age. Between 1928 and 1935 some 2 million people received certificates of proficiency. Since then education in Turkey has made big advances, but although literacy is estimated at 65 per cent in towns, it is still much lower in the villages (30.3 per cent in 1960).

Primary Education

A compulsory school attendance law had been passed in 1913, but only under the Republic were measures taken to enforce this. Primary education is now entirely free, and co-education is the accepted basis for universal education. The number of schools has risen from 12,511 in 1950 to 37,240 in 1969, and the number of teachers from 27,144 to 130,730. In 1969–70, 5,000,000 children were attending primary schools.

Secondary Education

The reorganization of the system of secondary education began in the early 1920s. Before the reorganization there were two types of secondary schools: state schools providing one or two educational stages, and local schools corresponding approximately to the modern middle schools. In 1926 the system of co-education was adopted in day schools of the middle-school group.

Present Organization This period of education lasts six years, and is free.

The secondary schools are divided into two stages: middle schools and *lycees*, and students who intend to proceed to higher educational institutions must pass through both stages, spending three years in the middle school and three in the *lycée*.

The middle school, although complementary to the *lycée*, is a separate unit, designed to give a definite and complete education to those students who at the end of the course will proceed directly to work. The state examination is taken by all students at the end of the third year. Graduates of a middle school are qualified either to take up an unskilled occupation or to enter upon a vocational course at a school of a higher grade.

The *lycée* takes the student up to the age of 17 or 18 years and those who wish to proceed to an institute of higher education must pass the state matriculation examination. The study of a modern language (English, French or German) is compulsory in middle schools and *lycees*. In addition, Latin and Greek have been taught in some *lycees* since 1940. The number of secondary schools has increased from 343 in 1950 to 1,885 in 1969, including the *lycees*. The number of students in these schools in the 1969-70 school year totalled 917,085.

Adult Education. Since 1932, reading rooms have been established in every town and many villages. They are centres of social and cultural life and provide evening classes. Their libraries, meeting halls and recreational facilities are open to all. In the towns there are also evening trade schools which provide technical training for adults, and travelling courses are sent out to the villages.

Higher Education. Higher educational institutions in Turkey were founded and are administered, by the State. These institutions include the universities and the higher professional schools. There are now eight universities and 35 institutes of higher education (including teacher training colleges). Three of the universities are specialized in scientific and technical subjects. The number of students at universities and other institutes of higher education rose to 112,790 in the academic year 1969-70.

Technical Education. The events of the past thirty years have shown that vocational education is an all important factor in the life and progress of all nations and the 1931 programme of the People's Party therefore accepted the desirability of setting up in Turkey professional and trade schools. The problem of technical education began to be seriously considered first in 1926 specialists were invited from Europe and America, and a plan was drawn up for perfecting the existing vocational schools and for founding new ones to meet the economic needs of each region. In addition plans were made for evening schools to train craftsmen and for the founding of teachers' technical training colleges. There are two such colleges in Ankara, one for men and one for women. The number of technical and vocational schools and colleges in 1969-70 was 741, the number of instructors was 11,797 and 206,299 students were enrolled.

Teachers' Training. There are five types of teachers' training colleges in Turkey, excluding the universities.

Normal Schools. Graduates of the normal schools are appointed to positions in the primary schools, and are eligible by examination for admission to certain higher teachers' training institutions. There are two types of normal schools—six year schools, grades 6-11, following the primary school and three year schools following the middle school. All normal schools are boarding schools, but day students are accepted. There are 21 six year normal schools and 45 three year normal schools based on the middle schools.

Secondary Teachers' Training Schools and Pedagogical Institutes. There are ten secondary teachers' training schools and pedagogical institutes: one at Ankara, one at Istanbul, one at Bursa, one at Izmir and others at Balıkesir, Diyarbakir, Konya, Samsun, Erzurum and Trabzon. These schools are normally boarding schools, the following subjects can be studied at one or other of the ten institutions—literature, science, music, drawing and handicrafts, physical education, German, French, English. The graduates of the pedagogy departments are appointed to be primary school inspectors, or teachers of professional subjects in the normal schools.

Lycée Teachers' Training Colleges. There are two *lycée* teachers' training colleges, one in Istanbul and one in Ankara, offering courses in thirteen subjects—Turkish language and literature, history, geography, philosophy, French, English, German, mathematics—astronomy, mathematics, physics, chemistry, physics—chemistry, natural sciences, and commerce. *Lycée* and commercial *lycée* graduates are admitted to these colleges, and graduates teach in *lycees* and vocational schools of *lycée* standard.

Technical Teachers' Training Colleges for Men and Women. There are three, two for men and one for women, two are in Ankara and one is in Istanbul, the courses are four-year, and graduates to the colleges teach either at boys' trade schools and institutes, or at girls' schools of domestic science and girls' trade schools and institutes.

Commercial Teachers' Training College. The College is at Ankara; it offers a three year course, and prepares teachers for the commercial *lycees* and commercial middle schools.

Students from the Universities of Istanbul and Ankara may qualify for a teaching certificate by following certain courses including one on pedagogy.

LEARNED SOCIETIES AND RESEARCH INSTITUTES

(see also under Universities)

Birleşmiş Milletler İnsan Haklarını ve Ana Hürriyetleri, Sağlama ve Koruma Türk Grubu (Turkish United Nations Group for the Defence and Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms) Ankara, f 1946, Chair Prof. AHMET ESMEK, Gen. Sec. Dr. İHTİŞAN AKTİPEK, publi. *İnsan Hakları (Aylık Dergi)*, *İnsan Hakları Yılı* 1957, etc.

British Council: 27 Adakale Sokak, Yenışehir, Ankara Y10, Rep. H. G. WYMENT, OBE, FSA and Muralay Şefik Bey Sokak 1, 2, 3, Reşat Bey Apt., Ayazpaşa, Istanbul, Regional Director C. A. W. WILLIAMSON, M.C., libraries see Libraries.

British Institute of Archaeology at Ankara: Tahran Caddesi 21, Kavaklıdere, Ankara, f 1948 with the object of furthering archaeological research by British and Commonwealth students or scholars in Turkey, London Office 140 Cromwell Rd., S.W. 7, library of 5,000 vols., Pres. The Hon. Sir STEVEN RUNCIMAN, LITT.D., F.R.A., Dir. D. H. FRENCH publi. *Anatolian Studies* (annual).

Centri di Studi Italiani in Turchia: Adakale Sok. 68, Ankara; Dir. Prof. SERGIO PRATO; Mesrutiyet Caddesi 161, İstanbul; Dir. Prof. RENZO MILANI.

Çocuk Sağlığı Enstitüsü (*Institute of Child Health*): Hacettepe University, Ankara; f. 1958; Dir. Dr. I. DOĞRAMAÇI.

Coğrafya Enstitüsü (*Geographical Institute*): Edebiyat Fakültesi, İstanbul University; f. 1933; Dir. SİRRI ERİNÇ.

Deutsches Archäologisches Institut: Siraselvi 123, İstanbul-Taksim; Dir. Prof. Dr.-Ing. RUDOLF NAUMANN; publ. *Istanbul Mitteilungen des D.A.I.* (annual).

Holanda Tarih ve Arkeoloji Enstitüsü (*Netherlands Historical and Archaeological Institute*): İstiklâl Cad. 393, Beyoğlu, İstanbul; f. 1958; Dir. Prof. Dr. A. A. KAMP-MAN; library of 12,500 vols.; Librarian Mrs. H. ALKIM; Asst. Librarian Dr. SEMRA ÖGEL; publs. *Publications de L'Institut Historique et Archéologique Néerlandais de Stamboul* (Vols. I-XXVII), *Revue Anatolica* (Vols. I-III).

Institut Français d'Archéologie: Ambassade de France, İstanbul-Beyoğlu, İstanbul; f. 1930; Dir. EMMANUEL LAROCHE; publ. *Bibliothèque archéologique et historique*.

Maden Tetkik ve Arama Enstitüsü—M.T.A. (*Mineral Research and Exploration Institute*): Eskişehir Rd., Ankara; f. 1935; conducts the Geological Survey of Turkey and evaluates mineral resources; staff of 490 technical personnel; 65,000 vols. in library; Dir.-Gen. Dr. SADRETTİN ALPAN; Dep. Dir.-Gen. ALİ DRAMALI; publs. *Bulletin*, *Monographs*, *Annual Report*.

Millîterarası Şark Tetkikleri Cemiyeti (*International Society for Oriental Research*): Türkiye Enstitüsü, Bayezit, İstanbul; f. 1947; Pres. Prof. FUAD KÖPRÜLÜ.

Österreichisches Kulturreferat in İstanbul: İstanbul-Tesvikiye, Belvedere Apt. 101/2; Dir. Prof. Dr. J. E. KASFER.

Türk Biyoloji Derneği (*Biological Study of Turkey*): P.K. 144, Sirkeci-İstanbul; f. 1949; 240 mems.; Pres. Prof. Dr. H. DEMİRİZ; to promote biological research and to organize lectures, congresses and training courses on biology and nature study; publ. *Türk Biyoloji Dergisi* (*Acta Biologica Turcica*) (three issues a year).

Türk Cerrahi Cemiyeti (*Turkish Surgical Society*): Etibba Odası, Cağaloğlu, İstanbul; f. 1931.

Türk Dil Kurumu (*Turkish Linguistic Society*): Ankara; f. 1932; 575 mems.; 15,250 vols. in library; Pres. Prof. MACİT GÖKBERK; Sec.-Gen. ÖMER ASIM AKSOY; publs. *Türk Dili* (monthly), *Türk Dili Araştırmaları Yıllığı-Belleten* (annual).

Türk Eczacıları Birliği (*Turkish Pharmaceutical Association*): 26 Ortaklar Han, Cağaloğlu, İstanbul; publ. *Türk Eczacıları Birliği Mecmuası* (bi-monthly).

Türk Ekonomi Kurumu (*Turkish Economic Society*): Ankara; f. 1939; Gen. Sec. Dr. MUHLİS ETE; publ. *Türk Ekonomisi* (review).

Türk Halk Bilgisi Derneği (*Turkish Folklore Society*): Çemberlitaş, Atık Ali Paşa Medresi 43, İstanbul; f. 1946; Pres. S. Y. ATAMAN; Sec. İHSAN HİNÇER.

Türk Hukuk Kurumu (*Turkish Law Association*): Yenişehir, Adakale Sokak, No. 28, Ankara; f. 1934; publs. *La Turquie* (*Vie Juridique des Peuples*, Paris), *Türk Hukuk Lügati* (*Turkish Law Dictionary*).

Türk Jinekoloji Cemiyeti (*Turkish Society of Obstetrics and Gynaecology*): Sağlık Sok 21, Taksim, İstanbul; f. 1956; Pres. Prof. Dr. ERCÜMENT BORA; Gen. Sec. VEDAT YEGİNSU, M.D.; publ. *Acta Gynaecologica et Obstetrica Turcica* (quarterly).

Türk Kültürünü Araştırma Enstitüsü (*Turkish Cultural Research Institute*): P.K. 14, Çankaya, Ankara; f. 1961;

scholarly research into all aspects of Turkish culture; Dir. Dr. AHMET TEMİR; publs. *Türk Kültürü* (monthly), *Cultura Turcica* (bi-annual), *Türk Kültürü Araştırmaları* (bi-annual).

Türk Mikrobiyoloji Cemiyeti (*Turkish Micro-Biological Society*): Nuruosmaniye Cad. No. 9, Cağaloğlu, İstanbul; f. 1931.

Türk Nöro-Psikiyatri Cemiyeti (*Turkish Neuro-Psychiatry Society*): Psikiyatri Kliniği, Capa/İstanbul; f. 1914; 425 mems.; monthly meetings to discuss aspects of neuro-psychiatry; National Congress every year; Pres. Ord. Prof. Dr. İHSAN ŞÜKRÜ AKSEL; Sec.-Gen. Dr. ADNAN ZİYALAR; publ. *Nöro-Psikiyatri Arşivi* (*Archives of Neuro-Psychiatry*) (quarterly).

Türk Ortopedi Şirürjisi ve Travmatoloji Cemiyeti (*Turkish Orthopaedic Surgery and Traumatology Society*): c/o Orthopaedic and Surgery Clinic, İstanbul University, İstanbul; f. 1939; 200 mems.; Pres. Prof. MÜNİR AHMET SARPYENER; Gen. Sec. Doc. HÜSAMETTİN ALTAV.

Türk Oto-Rino-Larengoloji Cemiyeti (*Turkish Oto-Rhino-Laryngological Society*): c/o Faculty of Medicine, İstanbul University, İstanbul.

Türk Sakatlar Cemiyeti (*Turkish Disabled Society*): Kocamustafapaşa Cad. No. 148, İstanbul; Hon. Pres. Prof. MÜNİR AHMET SARPYENER; Gen. Sec. HALİM DİRİ.

Türk Sırfi ve Tatbiki Matematik Derneği (*Turkish Society of Pure and Applied Mathematics*): İstanbul University İstanbul.

Türk Tarih Kurumu (*Turkish Historical Society*): Ankara; f. 1931; 41 mems.; library of 90,000 vols.; Pres. Ord. Prof. Dr. SEVKET AZİZ KANSU; Gen. Dir. ULUĞ İĞDEMİR; Librarian MİHİN EREN; publs. *Belleten* (quarterly), *Belgeler* (twice a year).

Türk Tıbbi Elektro Radyografi Cemiyeti (*Turkish Electro-Radiographical Society*): Türk Tıp Cemiyeti, Bursa Sokak, Beyoğlu, İstanbul; f. 1924.

Türk Tıbbi Radyoloji Cemiyeti (*Turkish Radiological Society*): İstanbul.

Türk Tıp Cemiyeti (*Turkish Medical Society*): 201 Anadolu han 1/1, Beyoğlu, İstanbul; f. 1856; 312 mems.; Pres. Dr. KAZIM İSMAİL GÜRKAN; Sec. Dr. ASIL MUKBİL ATAĞAM; publs. *Türk Tıp Cemiyeti Mecmuası*, *Anadolu Kliniği* (*Turkish Medical Journal*).

Türk Tıp Tarihi Kurumu (*Turkish Medical History Society*): Tıp Tarihi Enstitüsü, İstanbul University, İstanbul; f. 1938; 56 mems.; library of 15,000 vols.; Dirs. Prof. K. İ. GÜRKAN, M.D.; Prof. A. S. ÜNVER, M.D.

Türk Tüberkloz Cemiyeti (*Turkish Tuberculosis Society*): Selime Hatun, Sağlık Sokak, Taksim, İstanbul; f. 1937.

Türk Üroloji Cemiyeti (*Turkish Urological Society*): Türk Tıp Cemiyeti, Bursa Sokak, Beyoğlu, İstanbul; f. 1933; 47 mems.; Pres. Dr. FEYZİ TANNER; Sec. Dr. GİYAS KORKUT.

Türk Veteriner Hekimleri Derneği (*Turkish Veterinary Medicine Association*): Sağlık Sokak 21-3 Yenişehir, Ankara; f. 1930.

Türkiye Akıl Hıfzıssıhhası Cemiyeti (*Turkish Society of Mental Hygiene*): Teşvikiye P.K. 36, İstanbul; f. 1939; 241 mems.; mem. of many international and world federations; Hon. Pres. Prof. Dr. FAHREDDİN KERİM GÖKAY; Pres. Prof. Dr. İHSAN ŞÜKRÜ AKSEL; Sec.-Gen. Asst. Prof. Dr. G. KOPTAGEL.

Türkiye Bilimsel ve Teknik Dokümantasyon Merkezi (TÜRDOK) (*The Scientific and Technical Research Council of Turkey*): 33 Bayındır sokak, Yenişehir, Ankara; f. 1966; documentation and information services in

TURKEY—(LEARNED SOCIETIES AND RESEARCH INSTITUTES, LIBRARIES)

- science and technology including applied economics
 Dr. HİSMEY BURLAN, publs *Abstracts Key to Turkish Sciences* (in English in nine series) bibliographies
- Türkiye Jeoloji Kurumu** (*Turkish Geological Society*)
 Posta Kutusu 512 Ankara f 1946, 436 mems. library of 5 000 vols. Pres Prof H N FAKIR Sec Gen Dr M AYAN, publ *Türkiye Jeoloji Kurumu Bülteni*
- Türkiye Kimya Cemiyeti** (*The Chemical Society of Turkey*)
 Harbiye Hıdaskargazi Caddesi No 53 Uzun Apt D 8 P O B 829 İstanbul f 1919 970 mems Pres Chem Eng Prof Dr ALİ RIZA BERKEM Vice-Pres Chem Eng HADİ TAMER, Sec Chem Eng Ç TURHAN ÖZALP Treas Chem Eng ERDEM TARGUL publ *Kimya ve Sanayi* (Chemistry and Industry)
- Türkiye ve Orta Doğu Amme İdaresi Enstitüsü** (*Institute for Public Administration for Turkey and the Middle East*) Ankara f 1952, Dir Gen. Prof Dr AKİF ERGİNER, Dir of Research VEDAT ERKİN, Dir of Training SELÇUK YALCINDAĞ, publ *Amme İdaresi Dergisi* (quarterly)
- U.S. Information Centers:**
 42 Mithat Paşa Caddesi, Yenışehir, Ankara
 İstiklal Caddesi 132 134 Beyoğlu İstanbul
 186 Atatürk Bulvarı, İzmir
- Yeni Felsefe Cemiyeti** (*The New Philosophical Society*)
 İplik Lisesi, Nispetiye İstanbul f 1943

LIBRARIES

- Ankara University Library:** the main library has 70 050 vols., there are also separate faculty libraries with a total of over 395 000 vols. Dir ZEKERİYA ERDAL.
- Ali Efendi Library.** İstanbul f. 1741, 7 000 vols, 2 800 MSS
- Bayazit Library:** İstanbul f. 1882 45 000 vols in European languages 11 000 vols. in Oriental languages 9 000 MSS, in Persian, Arabic and Turkish dir by Ministry of Education.
- British Council Libraries:** Ankara f 1942 16 000 vols Librarian Mrs. M TOPRAK İstanbul f 1942 12 300 vols. Librarian I SÖLÜK.
- Camii İbrahim Paşa Library:** Nevşehir, f 1727 5 500 vols, 600 MSS
- Fatih Mosque Library:** İstanbul f 1742, 4 000 vols over 6 000 MSS
- Gedik Ahmed Paşa Library:** Aiyon f 1785 21 000 vols
- General Library of İzmir:** Milli Kütüphane Caddesi No 39 İzmir f 1912 68 317 vols in Turkish 17 807 vols in European languages 10 500 vols in Oriental scripts largely Turkish over 1 500 MSS, dir by the Ministry of Education Chief Officer KEMAL ÖZERTEN
- Halil Hamit Paşa Library.** İsparta f 1783 20 200 vols, over 850 MSS Dir MAHMUT KAYICI
- Halil Nuri Bey Library:** Bor f 1932 12 000 vols nearly 500 MSS in Persian Arabic and Turkish
- Halkevi Library:** Ankara f 1935 20 000 vols
- Hisar Safiyeoğlu Library** İzmir f 1775 7 000 vols over 900 MSS
- Hüseyin Paşa Library:** Eyyup f 1839 6 500 vols over 300 MSS
- İl Halk Kütüphanesi** (*Provincial Public Library formerly the İlan Library*) Balıkesir f 1901 828 MSS in Turkish Arabic and Persian 29 970 vols in Turkish Arabic and English 2 101 in other languages Dir NECDET ELAL

- İstanbul University Library.** İstanbul Beyazit the main university library contains 170 000 vols and 17 750 MSS, in addition each faculty possesses its own specialised library
- Köprülü Library:** İstanbul f 1677 3 000 vols, 2 775 MSS of which 193 are from early Ottoman presses and 42 handwritten works over 1 000 years old
- Library of the Grand National Assembly:** Palais de la Grande Assemblée Nationale Ankara f 1920 78 500 vols in Turkish 93 000 vols in European languages, 1 000 vols in Arabic and Persian 500 MSS, Dir MELİK EĞZ, Librarian S NAZMI COSKUNLAR
- Library of the Institute of Education:** Ministry of Education, Ankara, f 1926 1 400 vols in Turkish 6 000 vols in European languages
- Library of the Mineral Research and Exploration Institute:** Eskişehir Rd., Ankara f 1935, 65 000 vols in various languages Librarian PERRAN ÖZGEN, publs *Bulletin*, *Monographs and Maps* (in Turkish and English)
- Library of National Defence:** Ankara f 1877 8 678 vols in Turkish, 5 820 vols in other languages State-governed.
- Library of the Institute of Turkology:** İstanbul University, Bayazit, f 1924 over 20 000 vols relating to Turkish language, literature history and culture
- Library of the Oecumenical Patriarchy:** İstanbul foundation dates from beginning of Patriarchy, reorganization 1890, 25 000 vols. in main library and 1 500 MSS, 45 000 vols. in branch library at Orthodox Seminary of Heybelada, dir by Rev PANAGIOTIS THEODORIDIS, under the jurisdiction of the Holy Synod.
- Mehmet Paşa Library:** Darıca f 1776 4 000 vols 800 MSS
- Middle East Technical University Library:** Ankara f. 1956 central library of the university, maintains custody of the university's recording microfilm and projection equipment, 210 000 vols, 1 700 periodicals received mainly in English Dir MİSİR FURUZAN OLŞEN, publ *Abstracts of Graduate Theses*
- Millî Library:** Fatih, İstanbul, f. 1916, 33 980 vols, 8 844 MSS
- Millî Kütüphane (National Library)** Yenışehir Ankara f 1946 524 351 vols, 3 264 current periodicals 86 254 vols periodicals 2 692 MSS in Turkish Arabic and Persian and 9 092 microfilms provides facilities for artistic and scientific research Gen Dir MÜĞLA ÇOKER publ *Türkiye Bibliyografyası* (Turkish National Bibliography) numerous other bibliographies *Yabancı Dil Esirleri Bülteni* (Bulletin of Foreign books added to Turkish libraries) *Türkiye Kütüphanecileri Rehberi* (Directory of the Turkish Libraries) *Millî Kütüphane Haberleri* (News Bulletin of the National Library) catalogues etc
- Murat Molla Library:** İstanbul f 1775 4 000 vols, 5 000 MSS
- Nuruosmaniye Library:** İstanbul f 1755, 6 000 vols, 5 000 MSS
- Public Library:** Ankara f 1922 21 000 vols in Turkish 10 200 vols in European languages over 1 200 MSS in Arabic and Persian
- Public Library:** Konya f 1917, 20 000 vols, over 6 000 MSS
- Razi Paşa Library:** İstanbul f 1762 4 958 vols, 2 200 MSS
- Rasit Efendi Library:** Kayseri f 1792 6 000 vols, over 1 000 MSS

TURKEY—(LIBRARIES, MUSEUMS, UNIVERSITIES)

Robert College Library: Bebek, P.K.8, Istanbul; f. 1863; 114,000 vols. in English and other languages, including special collection on the Near East; Acting Librarian Mrs. JOCELYN DIEHL.

Selimiye Library: Edirne; f. 1575; 6,500 vols., over 1,300 MSS.

Süleymaniye Library: Istanbul; 28,000 vols., over 37,000 MSS. in Turkish, Arabic and Persian; the library material from Ayasofya was incorporated in 1967.

Technical University Library: Istanbul Teknik Üniversitesi, Merkez Kütüphane Müdürlüğü, Gümüşsuyu Caddesi 87, Beyoğlu; f. 1795; the Central Library of the Technical University, containing 28,307 vols.; the faculty libraries contain 25,946 vols.; Librarian NACI YÜNGÜL.

Tekelioğlu Library: Antalya; f. 1924; 5,000 vols., nearly 2,000 MSS. in Persian, Arabic and Turkish.

Ulucami Library: Bursa; f. 1787; 8,000 vols., over 1,300 MSS.

Veliyuddin Library: Istanbul; f. 1761; 4,000 vols., 3,500 MSS.

Yegen Mehmet Paşa Library: Akseki; f. 1926; 6,000 vols.

There are 165 public libraries throughout Turkey.

MUSEUMS

Arkeoloji Müzesi (Archaeological Museum): Ankara; f. 1923; exhibits cover the Palaeolithic, Neolithic, Chalcolithic, Early Bronze Age, Hittite, Phrygian and Urartian periods. In the Central Hall the exhibited artefacts are mainly Hittite reliefs from Alaca, Carchemish, Sakçagözü and Aslantepe. Collections represent excavations at Karain, Çatal Hüyük, Hacilar, Can Hasan, Alaca, Has H., Ahlatlıbel, Alishar, Karaöğlan, Karayavşan, Beycesultan, Kültepe, Acemhöyük, Inandık, Boğazköy, Bitik, Gordion, Altintepe, with special sections for cuneiform tablets and coins; library of 4,200 vols., Dir. RACI TEMİZER.

Arkeoloji Müzesi (Archaeological Museum): Kulturpark, Izmir; classical and prehistoric exhibits.

Ayasofya (Saint Sophia) Museum: Sultan Ahmet, Istanbul; f. 1934; the Museum is housed in the Byzantine Basilica; built by Justinian and dedicated in A.D. 537, it was a church until 1453, after which it became a mosque; in 1934 it was made a state museum; contains Byzantine and Turkish antiquities; Dir. FERİDUN DİRİMEKİN. The Director of the Museum of St. Sophia is under the Minister of Education, and is in charge of the following Byzantine monuments:

Kariye Church of St. Saviour in Khora.

Fethiye Church of the Virgin Pammakaristos.

Imrahor, Church of the St. John Stoudion.

Church of St. Irene.

Tekfursaray, Palace of Constantine Porphyrogenitos.

Belediye Müzesi (Municipal Museum): Bayezit Square, Istanbul; Dir. O. DURUSOY.

Ethnographical Museum: Ankara; f. 1927; specimens of Turkish and Islamic art, archives and Islamic numismatics; 3,500 vols. in library; Dir. ENİSE YENER.

Hatay Museum: Gündüz Cad. No. 1, Antakya, Hatay; f. 1934; collection of mosaics from Roman Antioch, also finds from Al-Mina, Atchana, Çatal Hüyük, Judeidah and Tainat excavations; Dir. VAHİT MEŞÇİOĞLU.

Istanbul Arkeoloji Müzeleri (Archaeological Museum of Istanbul): Sultanahmet, Istanbul; f. 1846; first collection of antiquities started by Field-Marshal Fethi

Ahmed Paşa in 1847. There are Archaeological, Mosaic and Ancient Orient museums, with Sumerian, Akkadian, Hittite, Assyrian, Egyptian, Urartu, Greek, Roman and Byzantine works of art and a library of 45,000 vols.; Dir. NECATİ DOLUNAY; Asst. Dir. LÜTFİ TUĞRUL; Curators: EDİBE UZUNOĞLU (Ancient Orient), MUAZZEZ ÇİĞ (Cuneiform Tablets), İBRAHİM ARTUK (Islamic), NEKRİMAN OLCAV (non-Islamic); publ. *Annual of the Archaeological Museums of Istanbul*.

Konya Museums: Konya; 1. Mevlâna: founded in Mevlâna Turbe—Seljuk, Ottoman and Turkish collections, clothing, carpets, weapons, coins, library. 2. Classical Museum: founded in new classical museum—collections of Neolithic, Hittite, Phrygian, Greek, Roman and Byzantine monuments; 3. Turkish Ceramics Museum: founded in Karatay Medresesi—contains ceramics of the 13th-18th century; 4. Seljuk Museum: founded in İnce Minare—contains stone and wooden works of the Seljuk period; 5. Sırcalı Medresesi—Sarcophagus and inscription, collections of Seljuk and Ottoman period; 6. Atatürk Museum—collections of documents and objects connected with Atatürk, also typical Konya clothing and other ethnographic exhibits; Dir. of Museums M. HADİ ALTAY.

Palais de la Culture d'Istanbul: Taksim; f. 1969; centre for all the arts, particularly theatrical, musical, choreographic and cinematographic arts; facilities include concert hall, art gallery and two theatres.

Pergamon Museum: Bergama; the historical relics discovered as the result of excavations conducted at Pergamon are stored here; Dir. OSMAN BAYATLI.

Resin ve Heykel Müzesi (Museum of Painting and Sculpture): Istanbul.

Topkapı Palace Museum: Istanbul; palace built by Muhammad II; collections of Turkish armour, cloth, embroidery, tiles, glass and porcelain, copper- and silver-ware, treasure, paintings, miniatures, illuminated manuscripts, royal coaches, a collection of Sèvres and Bohemian crystal and porcelain, donated by Mr. and Mrs. Sami Özgiritli, clocks, important collection of Chinese and Japanese porcelain amassed by the Sultans, selection of Islamic relics (coat of the Prophet, etc.), Seals of the Sultans, collection of manuscripts donated by Mrs. Halil Ethem Arda and her daughters, private collections of Kenan Özbel and Halil Edhem Arda, Ottoman tent; 18,000 MSS. in the library; Dir. KEMAL ÇİĞ; Asst. Dir. Mrs. FIRUZE PREYGER.

Museum of Turkish and Islamic Art: Süleymaniye, Istanbul; f. 1914; fine collection of Turkish and Islamic rugs, illuminated MSS., sculpture in stone and stucco, woodcarvings, metalwork and ceramics; Dir. CAN KERAMETLİ.

Türkiye Askeri Müzesi (Museum of the Janissaries): Istanbul; f. 1726; military uniforms, weapons and trophies from the earliest times; Dir. Col. ŞEVKİ ASLAN.

UNIVERSITIES

ANKARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ (University of Ankara)

ANKARA

Telephone: 113176.

Founded 1946. Existed first as separate faculties.

Rector: Prof. Dr. TAHSİN ÖZGÜÇ.

General Secretary: N. BASOL.

Number of teachers: 1,614.

Number of students: 16,859.

TURKEY—(UNIVERSITIES)

DEANS

Faculty of Letters Prof Dr ŞERAFETTİN TURAN
Faculty of Pharmacy Prof Dr MUSTAFA GÜLKEY
Faculty of Education Prof Dr KEMAL AKYÖZ
Faculty of Science Prof Dr ALLİ RIZA ÇETİK
Faculty of Law Prof Dr UĞUR ALACAKAPTAN
Faculty of Theology Prof Dr HANCI RAGİP ATADENİR
Faculty of Political Sciences Prof Dr İLHAN ONAY
Faculty of Medicine Prof Dr ADNAN GÜVENER
Faculty of Medicine (Djambakın) Prof Dr SABAHATTİN PANTIN
Faculty of Veterinary Medicine Prof Dr EMİN ARITÖRK
Faculty of Veterinary Medicine (Flang) Prof Dr MUSTAFA TENZER
Faculty of Agriculture Prof Dr ŞAHABETTİN ELÇİ
Faculty of Agriculture (Adana) Prof Dr AKİF İKİNSU

ATTACHED DEPARTMENT

Institute for Research in Near Eastern Civilizations and Languages publ. *Anadolü/Anadolü* (annual)

ATATÜRK ÜNİVERSİTESİ

(Atatürk University)

ERZURUM

Telephone 1109

Founded 1937

Rector Prof Dr KEMAL BİTİRKÖLLÜ
General Secretary NALİ HAĞİMEMLİOĞLU
 Library of 70 000 vols.
 Number of teachers and assistants 543
 Number of students 2 700

DEANS

Faculty of Agriculture Prof Dr AHMET KURT
Faculty of Medicine Prof Dr İRGÜN SARAR
Faculty of Science Prof Dr SİLAİ YALVAÇ
Faculty of Letters Prof Dr SELAHATTİN OLCAY
Faculty of Industry Prof Dr TURHAN T. YÖCE
Faculty of Dentistry Prof Dr İ. TALİ URAL
Faculty of Islamic Studies Prof Dr HAYDİ BİLİRGİL

EĞE ÜNİVERSİTESİ

(Aegean University)

BORNOVA İZMİR

Telephone 29144

Founded 1955

State control

Rector Prof Dr MUSTAFA ULUDAĞ
General Secretary NURETTİN AŞIKHAN
 Number of teachers 549
 Number of students 6 171
 Publications *Tıp Fakültesi Mecmuası Ziraat Fakültesi Dergisi Fen Dergisi*

DEANS

Faculty of Medicine Prof Dr ÖMER YILGIDAĞI
Faculty of Agriculture Prof Dr FETHİ KARACA
Faculty of Science Prof Dr BURNHAN PERİN
Faculty of Engineering Prof Dr KEMAL KARHAN

Faculty of Economics and Commercial Science Prof Dr HÜSEYİN TİNUR
Faculty of Dentistry Prof Dr İSMAIL ULUTAŞ

HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ

HACETTEPE HASTAHANESİ ANKARA

Founded 1206 in Kayseri Chartered 1967 in Ankara

President Dr İHSAN DOĞRAMACI

Number of students 2 123

DEANS

Faculty of Graduate Studies N. H. FİŞEK
Faculty of Health Sciences E. GÖLMEZOĞLU
Faculty of Medicine I. KIRSE
Faculty of Social and Administrative Sciences O. OKYAR
Faculty of Science and Engineering C. ŞENVAR

İSTANBUL ÜNİVERSİTESİ

(Istanbul University)

BAYEZİT İSTANBUL

Telephone 224370

Founded 1453 reorganized in 1927 1933 and 1946

Rector Prof Dr NAZIM TERKİTOĞLU

Secretary-General SAİT TURAN

Number of teachers 1 495

Number of students 33 601

DEANS

Faculty of Literature Prof Dr TAHİRİN YAZICI
Faculty of Economics Prof Dr LÖPÜT ÇÖĞER
Faculty of Law Prof Dr ORHAN ALDİKATİ
Faculty of Medicine Prof Dr SAFA KARATAY
Faculty of Science Prof Dr MEHMET AKARTUNA
Faculty of Forestry Prof Dr HAYRİ BAYRAKTAROĞLU
Faculty of Pharmacy Prof Dr KASIM TELLİS
Faculty of Dentistry Prof Dr GAZANFER ZEMBİLCİ
Faculty of Medicine (Cerrahpaşa) Prof Dr OSMAN BARLAS
Faculty of Chemistry Prof Dr SAFFET RIZA ALTAR
Faculty of Business Administration Prof Dr MEHMET OLLU
School of Foreign Languages Prof Dr CEMAL TÜKİN (Director)

ATTACHED INSTITUTE

Türkîyat Enstitüsü (Institute of Turcology) 1 1924 carries out research and publishes material on Turkish language literature history and culture library of 20 000 vols. Dir. Dr M. CAVİD BAYAL

İSTANBUL TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ

(Technical University of Istanbul)

GÜMÜŞSUYU CADDESİ 87 BEYOĞLU İSTANBUL

Telephone 431130

Founded 1773

Rector Prof Dr GALİP SAĞIROĞLU

General Secretary M. UÇDOĞAN

Librarian K. TOŞVALI

Number of teachers 437

Number of students 7 217

Publications *Bülten İstanbul Teknik Üniversitesi Dergisi*

TURKEY—(UNIVERSITIES, COLLEGES AND INSTITUTES OF HIGHER EDUCATION)

DEANS:

Faculty of Civil Engineering: Prof. GÜNDOĞDU ÖZGEN.

Faculty of Architecture: Prof. Dr. LUFTİ ZEREN.

Faculty of Mechanical Engineering: Prof. Dr. CAHİT ÖZGÜR.

Faculty of Electrical Engineering: Prof. Dr. EMİN UNALAN.

Faculty of Mining Engineering: Prof. Dr. ALİ SUMER.

Faculty of Chemistry Engineering: Prof. Dr. E. AYÇA.

KARADENİZ TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ

(Black Sea Technical University)

TRABZON

Telephone: 1102, 2527.

Founded 1963.

State control; Language of instruction: Turkish; Duration of academic year: December to June (two terms).

Rector: Prof. Dr. EKREM GÖKSU.

General Secretary: GAVSİ GÖZALAN.

Librarian: C. ÇAĞLAYAN.

Number of teachers: 204.

Number of students: 1,291.

Publication: *KTÜ Dergisi* (two issues a year).

DEANS

Faculty of Civil Engineering and Architecture: Prof. NACİ YÜNGÜL (Deputy).

Faculty of Sciences: Prof. NACİ YÜNGÜL.

Faculty of Mechanical and Electrical Engineering: Prof. HALİS DUMAN.

ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ

(The Middle East Technical University)

24 MUDAFAA CADDESİ, YENİŞEHİR, ANKARA

Telephone: 132040

Founded 1956.

Language of instruction: English; Private control; Academic year: November to July (two semesters).

Rector: Prof. Dr. ERDAL İNÖNÜ.

The library contains over 100,000 volumes.

Number of teachers: 530.

Number of students: 5,472.

Publication: *METU Journal of Pure and Applied Sciences* (three a year).

DEANS:

Faculty of Administrative Sciences: Y. GÜRBÜZ, PH.D.

Faculty of Architecture: E. DERYA, M.Arch.

Faculty of Arts and Sciences: Prof. Dr. B. BAYSAL.

Faculty of Engineering: Prof. Dr. İSMET ÖZDEMİR.

The Faculty of Arts and Sciences includes Departments of Education, Agriculture and Forestry, which are planned to become separate schools.

The University is being set up with help from the United Nations Special Fund and further assistance from the United Kingdom, United States, and Holland. It operates under an independent Board of Trustees on grants from the Turkish Government. There is a ten-year building programme which will provide for an ultimate enrolment of 20,000 students on a 12,000 acres site six miles south of Ankara. Admission is by competitive examination given in centres in Turkey and several cities in the Middle East. The aim of the University is to serve Turkey and the Middle East by offering professional education of high standard.

COLLEGES AND INSTITUTES OF HIGHER EDUCATION

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(Aegean Engineering and Architectural School)

BUCA CAMİ SOKAK 2, İZMİR

Founded 1963.

Day school (four-year course) and evening school (five-year course).

President: Prof. MEHMET B. ÜNVER.

Vice-President: EKREM TUNCER.

Secretary-General: CELÂL KARAGÖZCÜK.

Number of teaching staff: 117.

The library contains 2,875 vols.

HEADS OF DEPARTMENTS:

Architecture: Prof. İRFAK BAYHAN.

Mechanical Engineering: Assoc. Prof. MEHMET ÇAKIR.

Civil Engineering: Assoc. Prof. Dr. SEMİH KAVALLI.

Both schools offer a B.S. degree to graduates. Students enter the institute after the Lycée or other technical institutes.

ESKİŞEHİR İKTİSADİ VE TİCARİ İLİMLER AKADEMİSİ

(Eskisehir Academy of Economic and Commercial Sciences)

ESKİŞEHİR

Founded 1958.

President: Prof. Dr. İLHAN CEMALCILAR.

Vice-Presidents: Doç. Dr. AKAR ÜÇAL, Doç. Dr. YILMAZ BÜYÜKŞEN, Doç. Dr. SABRİ BEKTÖRE.

The library contains 18,778 vols.

Publications: *Eskişehir İktisadi ve Ticari İlimler Akademisi Dergisi* (Journal of Eskişehir Academy of Economic and Commercial Sciences).

İKTİSADİ VE TİCARİ İLİMLER AKADEMİSİ

(Academy of Economics and Commerce)

BESEVLER, ANKARA

Founded 1955; State control.

General Secretary: ALİ FUAT AKPINAR.

Library of 15,000 vols.

İSTANBUL İKTİSADİ VE TİCARİ İLİMLER AKADEMİSİ

(Istanbul Academy of Economics and Commercial Science)

İSTANBUL

Founded 1883.

President: Ord. Prof. Dr. NİHAD SAYAR.

Vice-Presidents: Prof. TURGUT EREM and Doç. F. ÜÇAL.

General Secretary: NEVZAT ÇELİK.

Registrar: ALTAN KİTAÇI.

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Librarian: R. ŞEREN.

The library contains 11,580 vols.

Number of professors: 30.

Number of students: 2,930.

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The library contains 30 000 vols

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Founded 1964

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Number of teachers 32
Number of students 2 600
The library contains 5 600 vols (including periodicals)

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(Istanbul College of Dentistry)
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Founded 1963

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Librarian A BULGAN
Number of teachers 23
Number of students 1 425

ÖZEL İSTANBUL ECZACILIK YÜKSEK OKULU
(Istanbul College of Pharmacy)
GÜZELBAHÇİ BÜYÜK ÇİFTLİK SOH No 6
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Number of teachers 21
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TURKEY—(COLLEGES AND INSTITUTES OF HIGHER EDUCATION, MUSIC AND DRAMA)

AMERICAN COLLEGE FOR GIRLS

ARNAVUTKÖY, ISTANBUL

Founded 1863

Yardirektör: NEYİRE BAYSAL.

Orta Principal: ISABEL HORULU.

Librarian: JOCELYN DIEHL.

Dean of Students: FAY LINDER.

Registrar and Director of Admissions: DOROTHY ASHOVER.

Number of teachers: 64.

Number of students: 702 Turkish, 10 foreign, total 712.

YÜKSEK İSLÂM ENSTİTÜSÜ

(Higher Institute of the Islamic Faith)

BAGLARBAŞI, ISTANBUL

Founded 1959.

The library contains 10,000 vols.

Dean: ZEKİ CANAN.

Assistant Deans: NURİ ÜNLÜ, İMDAT ŞENGÜL, NEDİM URHAN, NURETTİN BAYBURTLUGİL.

The purpose of the institute is to provide four years of higher education, at the university level, to graduates of the İmam-Hatip schools, which give a seven-year course and were founded for the education of men of religion and preachers in mosques. Graduate theologians are employed as teachers in the İmam-Hatip schools, as officials and müftüs, and preachers in the Department of Religion.

YÜKSEK İSLÂM ENSTİTÜSÜ

(Higher Institute of the Islam Faith)

KONYA

Founded 1962; State control.

Director: VELİ ERTAN.

Zonguldak Maden Teknik Okulu (*Technical School of Mining*): Zonguldak.

MUSIC AND DRAMA

GÜZEL SANATLAR AKADEMİSİ

(Academy of Fine Arts)

İSTANBUL-FİNDİKLİ

Telephone: 495410, 495411

Founded 1882.

Director: ASIM MUTLU.

Assistant Directors: M. CEZAR, K. SİLİVRİLİ, K. BİLENSOY.

Librarian: E. NAZAN.

Number of teachers: 102.

Number of students: 800.

HEADS OF FACULTIES:

Painting: Z. F. İZER.

History of Turkish Arts: B. TOPRAK.

Architecture: M. A. HANDAN.

Decorative Arts: I. H. OYGAR.

The academy attained the status of an institute of higher education in 1917 under the name of the Higher School of Fine Arts; it was re-organised as the Academy of Fine Arts in 1926.

Istanbul Municipal Conservatoire: Conservatoire municipal, Çeşmebaşı, İstanbul; f. 1923; internal and external sections.

Director: HİKMET TONGUR.

Members of the Artistic Council: PRCS. FERDİ STATZER (Piano), ORHAN BORAR (Violin), E. SAYDAM (Piano), A. TURAN (Violin), C. AKIN (Harmony).

Number of teachers: 70.

Number of students: 700.

Library contains 6,500 vols.

Izmir State Conservatoire: İzmir; f. 1951.

Ankara State Conservatoire: f. 1936; music, including opera and ballet, and drama; 110 teachers, 325 students; Dir. MİTHAT FENMEN.

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United Arab Republic (EGYPT)

PHYSICAL AND SOCIAL GEOGRAPHY

SITUATION

Egypt occupies the north-eastern corner of the African continent with an extension across the Gulf of Suez into the Sinai region which is usually, but not always regarded as lying in Asia. The area of Egypt is approximately 386 200 sq miles (1 002 000 sq km) but of this only 4 per cent can be said to be permanently settled the remainder being desert or marsh. Egypt lies between Lat 22° and 32° N and the greatest distance from north to south is about 674 miles (1074 km) and from east to west 770 miles (1240 km) giving the country a roughly square shape with the Mediterranean and Red Seas forming respectively the northern and eastern boundaries. Egypt has political frontiers on the east with Israel on the south with the Republic of the Sudan and on the west with Libya. The actual frontiers run in general as straight lines drawn directly between defined points and do not normally conform to geographical features (though since June 1967 the *de facto* frontier with Israel has been the Suez Canal).

Egypt occupies an almost unique place in the world as a region where in all probability the earliest developments of civilization and organized government took place. Though many archaeologists would not wholly subscribe to the view of Egypt as actually the first civilized country there can be no doubt that from very early times the lower Nile Valley has been prominent as possessing strongly marked unity with a highly specialized and characteristic way of life. Empires with fluctuating boundaries and with varying racial composition have arisen in neighbouring lands of the Middle East but Egypt has seemed able to stand relatively unchanged with the facility of absorbing immigrants and outside ideas of surviving military occupation and defeat and of maintaining her own culture finally shaking clear of foreign influence and rule. This process apparent on many occasions in the past may once again be repeating itself in the present century.

PHYSICAL FEATURES

The reasons for this remarkable persistence of cultural cohesion amongst the Egyptian people may be found in the geography of the country. Egypt consists essentially of a narrow troughlike valley some 2 to 10 miles wide cut by the River Nile in the plateau of north-east Africa. At an earlier geological period a gulf of the Mediterranean Sea probably extended as far south as Cairo but deposition of silt by the Nile has entirely filled up this gulf producing the fan like shaped Delta region (8 500 sq miles in area) through which flow two main distributary branches of the Nile—the eastern or Damietta branch (150 miles long) and the western or Rosetta branch (146 miles)

together with many other minor channels. As deposition of silt takes place large stretches of water are gradually impounded to form shallow lakes which later become firm ground. At the present there are four such stretches of water in the north of the Delta from east to west and in order of size Lakes Menzaleh, Burullus, Idku and Mariut.

Upstream from Cairo the Nile Valley is at first 6 to 10 miles in width and as the river tends to lie close to the eastern side much of the cultivated land and also most of the big towns and cities lie on the western bank. Towards the south the river valley gradually narrows until at about 250 miles from the frontier of the Sudan it is no more than 2 miles wide. Near Aswan there is an outcrop of resistant rock chiefly granite which the river has not been able to erode as quickly as the rest of the valley. This gives rise to a region of cascades and rapids which is known as the First Cataract. Four other similar regions occur on the Nile but only the First Cataract lies within Egypt. The cataracts form a barrier to human movement upstream and serve to isolate the Egyptian Nile from territories farther south. In Ancient Egypt, when river communications were of chief importance there was a traditional division of the Nile Valley into Lower Egypt (the Delta), Middle Egypt (the broader valley above the Delta) and Upper Egypt (the narrower valley as far as the cataracts). Nowadays it is usual to speak merely of Upper and Lower Egypt with the division occurring at Cairo.

The fertile strip of the Nile Valley is isolated on the south by the cataracts and by the deserts and swamps of the Sudan, on the north by the Mediterranean Sea and to east and west by desert plateaus about which a little more must be said. The land immediately to the east of the Nile Valley spoken of as the Eastern Highlands is a complex region with peaks that rise 6 000 to 7 000 ft. but also much broken up by deep valleys that make travel difficult. Owing to aridity the whole region is sparsely populated with a few partly nomadic shepherds, one or two monasteries and a number of small towns associated chiefly with the exploitation of minerals—petroleum, iron, manganese and granite—that occur in this region. Difficult landward communications mean that contact is mostly by sea except in the case of the ironfields. The Sinai, separated from the Eastern Highlands by the Gulf of Suez, is structurally very similar but the general plateau level is tilted giving the highest land (again nearly 7 000 ft. in elevation) in the extreme south where it rises in bold scarps from sea level. Towards the north the land gradually slopes down ultimately forming the low lying sandy plain of the Sinu desert which fringes the Mediterranean Sea. Because of its low altitude and accessibility the Sinai in spite of

its desert nature, has been for many centuries an important corridor linking Egypt with Asia, and is crossed by a railway (torn up 1968) and motor road. Since June 1967 it has been occupied by Israeli forces.

West of the Nile occur the vast expanses known as the Western Desert. Though by no means uniform in height, the land surface is much lower than that east of the Nile, and within Egypt rarely exceeds 1,000 ft. above sea-level. Parts are covered by extensive masses of light shifting sand that often form dunes; but in addition there are a number of large depressions, some with the lowest parts actually below sea-level. These depressions seem to have been hollowed out by wind action, breaking up rock strata that were weakened by the presence of underground water, and most hollows still contain supplies of artesian water. In some instances (as for example, the Qattara depression, and the Wadi Natrun, respectively south-west and south-east of Alexandria) the subterranean water is highly saline and consequently useless for agriculture; but in others—notably the oases of the Fayyum, Siwa, Dakhla, Bahariya, and Farafra—the water is sufficiently sweet to allow use for irrigation, and settlements have grown up within the desert.

CLIMATE

The main feature of Egyptian climate is the almost uniform aridity. Alexandria, the wettest part, receives only 8 inches of rain annually, and most of the south has 3 inches or less. In many districts rain may fall in quantity only once in two or three years, and it is apposite to recall that throughout most of Egypt, and even in Cairo itself, the majority of the people live in houses of unbaked, sun-dried brick. During the summer temperatures are extremely high, reaching 100–110°F. at times and even 120° in the southern and western deserts. The Mediterranean coast has cooler conditions, with 90° as a maximum; hence the wealthier classes move to Alexandria for the three months of summer. Winters are generally warm, with very occasional rain; but cold spells occur from time to time, and light snow is not unknown. Owing to the large extent of desert, hot dry sand-winds (called *khamisin*) are fairly frequent particularly in spring, and much damage can be caused to crops; it has been known for the temperature to rise by 35° in two hours, and the wind to reach 90 m.p.h. Another unusual condition is the occurrence of early morning fog in Lower Egypt during spring and early summer. This, on the other hand, has a beneficial effect on plant growth in that it supplies moisture and is a partial substitute for rainfall.

IRRIGATION

With a deficient rainfall over the entire country, human existence in Egypt depends closely on irrigation from the Nile; in consequence it is now necessary to consider the regime of the river in some detail. More detailed reference to conditions outside Egypt is made in the section on the geography of Sudan (above); but it may here be stated in summary that the river rises in the highlands of East Africa, with its main stream issuing from Lakes Victoria and Albert. In the southern Sudan it wanders sluggishly across a flat

open plain, where the fall in level is only 1:100,000. Here the shallow waters become a vast swamp, full of dense masses of papyrus vegetation, and this section of the Nile is called the Sudd (Arabic for "blockage"). Finally, in the north of the Sudan, the Nile flows in a well-defined channel and enters Egypt. In Upper Egypt the river is in process of cutting its bed deeper into the rock floor; but in the lower part of its course silt is deposited, and the level of the land is rising—in some places by as much as 4 inches per century.

The salient feature of the Nile is, of course, its regular annual flood, which is caused by the onset of summer rains in East Africa and Abyssinia. The flood travels northward, reaching Egypt during August, and within Egypt the normal rise in river-level used to be over 21 feet, but owing to irrigation works is now only 15 feet. By December the floods have subsided, and the lowest level occurs in May. This cycle has been maintained for several thousand years though the actual maximum of flood-level varies a little each season. However, the flooding had by 1969 become a feature of the past so far as Egypt is concerned (see the section on the Aswan High Dam below).

Originally, the flood waters were simply retained in specially prepared basins with earthen banks, and the water could then be used for three to four months after the flood. Within the last century, by the building of large barrages, water is now held all the year round, and so cultivation can take place at any season. With the old system of basin irrigation one or two crops could be obtained annually; with the newer, perennial system, three or even four; and whereas in the past barley and wheat were the main crops, maize and cotton, which can tolerate the great summer heat provided they are watered, now take first and second place. Basin irrigation still prevails in Upper Egypt, but the rest of the country now employs perennial methods.

This change-over has allowed a considerable increase in the population of Egypt, which has risen from about 2½ million in 1800 to 30 million at the present time. This rate of increase shows no sign of slackening—rather, in fact, the reverse—so that already a few districts of Egypt have a population density of over 6,000 per square mile; and as 99 per cent of all Egyptians live within the Nile Valley (only 4 per cent of its area) there is considerable overcrowding and pressure on the land.

With most Egyptians entirely dependent upon Nile water, the point has now been reached that almost all the water entering Egypt is fully utilized—the construction of one barrage now affects all the others downstream—and thus it is easy to see why Egyptian statesmen attach such importance to the unity of the Nile Valley. Undisputed possession of the Sudan would allow Egypt to have more control of Nile water, and possibly to undertake improvements in the Sudd area, thereby reducing the present enormous losses by evaporation which at present amount to some 70 per cent of the total flow. Another political problem is concerned with the effects due to devoting an increased area of the Nile Valley to the growing of commodities for export: cotton, rice and vegetables. Such a change

from agricultural self sufficiency to a cash economy involves the purchase abroad of fertilizers and even foodstuffs, and is inducing considerable social changes within the country. Moreover, so long as only one or two crops were taken per year, the silt laid down by the annual floods maintained soil fertility, but now that three or four crops are taken the import of fertilizer is essential. Hence Egypt has become increasingly sensitive to world trade prices. The position of the merchant and capitalist has greatly improved, often at the expense of the peasant farmer.

Difficulties and opportunities relating to the use of Nile water are exemplified in the High Dam scheme at Aswan. This involves creating a larger reservoir, some 350 miles in length, which has now gradually extended southwards across the Sudanese frontier thereby inundating the town of Wadi Halfa. Some 55-60 000 Sudanese are thus being displaced and these are in process of resettlement at Khashm el Girba, a district lying south east of Khartoum. Egyptians displaced by the scheme are being rehoused in 33 villages around Kom Ombo, total costs of resettlement will amount to £13.5 million. Prior to 1959 technical and political objections delayed the High Dam scheme, and as the cost of the dam (estimated at £345-400 million) could not be met by the Egyptian Government alone, application was made to the World Bank. America and Britain for a loan. This was refused (Sudanese opposition being one, but only one, factor in this refusal), whereupon Egyptian reaction was to expropriate the Suez Canal Company, in order to finance part of the Aswan scheme.

Soviet offers to assist were made and accepted, and in 1959 a first Soviet credit of £33 million allowed preliminary work to begin in December of the same year. In 1960 further agreement was reached by which the U.S.S.R. supplied credits up to £81 million (making a total of £114 million) together with technical and material assistance, and in 1964 further proposals for credit and loans were made by Mr. Khrushchev. Egypt must thus find at least £200 million in addition to repayments at a later stage of the Russian credits.

In May 1964 the first phase of the High Dam was inaugurated by President Nasser and Mr. Khrushchev. The High Dam is 3 600 metres across, with a girth of 980 metres at the river bed and 40 metres at the top. It holds back the largest artificial lake in the world, stretching 500 km. and finally crossing the Sudanese border. It is making possible the large scale stoning of water from year to year, thus evening out the effects of a bad (dry) season, and its irrigation potential is put at 2 million feddans in Lower Egypt, which, with local possibilities nearer Aswan will add about 30 per cent to the total cultivable area of Egypt. Besides this, twelve generator units are to be incorporated in the dam and these will give considerable quantities of electric power at extremely low cost—estimated as

below that obtaining in many parts of Europe, and about half of that of electricity in London. This will, it is expected, be a most important aid to industrialization. By December 1969 nine of the twelve generators had been installed and the remaining three were due to be installed by July 1970. Extensive deposits of iron ore near Aswan are already treated by hydro-electric power, and ultimately this cheap power will come into use in Lower Egypt including the developing coastal towns of the Suez Canal zone. By mid 1969 the basic structure of the dam had been completed, and the remaining subsidiary works are expected to be finished during 1971. The lake behind the dam had partially absorbed the flood waters since 1965 and now wholly does so.

Construction has also begun on a new barrage at Garga and the existing Aswan Dam is currently being raised from 120 to 122 feet in height.

RACE

The racial origins of the Egyptian people present certain problems. In the deserts to east and west of the Nile Valley the population is of unmixed Mediterranean strains, but within the Nile Valley itself there is a special native Egyptian type that would seem to have developed partly from intermixture. The Egyptian peasant is more heavily built and muscular than the nomadic Bedouin, and his colouring is intermediate between the lighter brown of Syrian and Palestinian Arabs and the dark skins of the negroid peoples of the Sudan and Abyssinia. Facial features show some resemblance to those of other Arabs, but despite this there is often more than a hint of the features depicted in ancient monuments. It might thus be reasonable to suggest that there seems to have developed within Egypt a special racial sub type, basically Mediterranean with smaller elements both from the south and the north but also greatly affected by local indigenous conditions which have given rise to a specific Egyptian racial type.

LANGUAGE

Arabic is the language of almost all Egyptians, though there are very small numbers of Berber-speaking villages in the western oases. Most educated Egyptians also speak either French or English, often with a preference for the former. This is a reflection of the traditional French interest in Egypt, which is reciprocated governmental decrees are sometimes published in French, as well as Arabic, and newspapers in French have an important circulation in Cairo and Alexandria. Small colonies of Greeks and Armenians are also a feature of the larger Egyptian towns. It should perhaps be noted that the Arabic name for Egypt, *Misr*, is always used within the country itself.

W B F

HISTORY

Geography has influenced the history of Egypt from the earliest times. The narrow strip of cultivable land along the banks of the Nile between the First Cataract and the Delta is distinct from the extensive and fertile plain of the Delta itself, but the resultant tendency to separatism has been counterbalanced by the dependence of the people on the annual Nile flood: the control and exploitation of the water and silt have necessitated co-operation and obedience to routine and authority. The eastern and western deserts seal off the lower reaches of the Nile Valley from the neighbouring territories in Africa and Asia. Until recent times communication with the outside world was largely restricted to the route up the river into Nubia, the sea route across the Mediterranean to Syria and the land route to Palestine across the northern fringe of Sinai. The effect of Egypt's relative isolation has been to produce a high degree of cultural individuality.

PHARAONIC EGYPT TO 671 B.C.

Traditionally Egyptian history begins with the semi-legendary Menes, the first ruler of the united kingdom of Upper and Lower Egypt at the end of the fourth millenium B.C. But the flowering of the Old Kingdom came in the third millenium under the IVth Dynasty, which had its capital at Memphis, near the apex of the Delta. The technical and engineering progress of this period is witnessed by the pyramids. These and other works indicate a powerful monarchy commanding great resources.

This efflorescence was followed by a decline. Not until the XIth and XIIth Dynasties (c. 2000 B.C.) does the resurgence of a united Egypt in the Middle Kingdom become clear. The powerful provincial nobles were slowly brought under royal control. Improved conditions were reflected in reclamation works in the Fayyum and temple building at numerous sites. Egyptian armies penetrated into Nubia, a land at that time rich in gold, and the conquest of the region to a point above the Second Cataract was accomplished.

Another obscure period followed and the course of Egyptian history was interrupted by the invasion from Palestine of the Hyksos who established themselves as rulers in the Delta. Although they adopted Egyptian customs, they were never assimilated. About 1620 B.C. a revolt began under a southern prince and ultimately the Hyksos were expelled and Egypt was reunited.

Under the XVIIIth Dynasty, ancient Egypt reached her zenith. This period of the New Kingdom has left its mark up and down the land especially around the capital, Thebes, near the modern Luxor. Abroad the name of the pharaoh was feared in western Asia. The greatest of the conquerors was Thothmes III who established an Egyptian empire in Syria. Egyptian rule was restored and extended in Nubia.

The empire decayed during the reign of Akhenaten (c. 1380–1362), whose religious innovations antagonized the powerful priesthood of Thebes. On his death the old polytheism was restored. The outstanding figure of the XIXth Dynasty was Rameses II (c 1300–1234). He fought the rising power of the Hittites in Syria for twenty years and was both a great builder and a usurper of other men's works.

After him Egypt passed into decline. The XXth Dynasty closed with a long series of insignificant pharaohs and under their successors Egypt was divided between a ruler in the Delta and a priest-king at Thebes. In the eighteenth century B.C. a dynasty originating from Nubia held Upper Egypt and even for a time the Delta. But Egypt was soon to pass under completely alien domination.

EGYPT UNDER FOREIGN RULERS: 671 B.C.-A.D. 640

In 671 the Assyrians conquered Egypt and drove out the Nubian pharaoh. The Assyrians, however, did not long maintain their hold and a native ruler succeeded in reuniting the country. The dynasty which he founded encouraged Greek traders and was supported by Greek mercenaries.

This last native dynasty came to an end in 525, when Persia conquered Egypt. The Persian kings patronized the religion of their subjects and were officially regarded as pharaohs. Darius I (522–485) completed the work of an Egyptian predecessor in cutting a canal linking the Nile and the Red Sea. His successors fought native pretenders to keep Egypt within their empire.

Under Alexander the Great another change of masters occurred. The Persian satrap surrendered in 332 and Alexander was recognized as pharaoh. His visit to the oracle at Siwa shows his fascinated interest in Egyptian religion, while by founding the city of Alexandria he conferred on Egypt a lasting benefit. After Alexander's death, Egypt fell to his general, Ptolemy. The Ptolemaic Dynasty was Greek in origin and outlook. Its capital was Alexandria, which was in effect a Greek rather than an Egyptian city. Egypt was the private estate of the Ptolemies, who taxed its people through a competent bureaucracy.

When Cleopatra committed suicide in 30 B.C., Egypt passed under Roman rule. Although the emperors were regarded as successors of the pharaohs the country sank into a mere province of a great Mediterranean empire. Egyptian Christianity had a distinctive doctrinal character and, by fostering monasticism, originated an important institution. In the dogmatic disputes of the Byzantine period, the adherence of the Coptic church of Egypt to mono-physite beliefs in face of the official theology was a form of national self-assertion.

ARAB EGYPT: 640-969

In the early seventh century two great powers dominated the Middle East: the Byzantine empire and the Sasanian empire of the Persians. In 616 the Sasanian army invaded Egypt but Byzantine supremacy was soon restored. Meanwhile a third power was arising: the Arabs, summoned by Muhammad to belief in Islam.

The Prophet's death in 632 was followed by wars against the Byzantines and Sasanians. Egypt the granary of the Byzantine Empire soon attracted the Muslim warriors. In the reign of the Caliph Umar I an Arab army under Amr ibn al As took the invasion route from Syria. The frontier towns fell after short sieges and in April 641 the key fortress near the head of the Delta was captured. Alexandria, the capital, surrendered and was evacuated by the Byzantine garrison. A camp-city at Al Fustat, again in the strategic position near the apex of the Delta, became the headquarters of the Muslim army.

For some centuries Egypt remained an occupied rather than a Muslim country. The Copts, who disliked Byzantine rule, had not opposed the conquest. Under the Arabs they found less oppression and paid lower taxes at first than under Constantinople. In course of time however Egypt became an Arabic speaking country, with a Muslim majority. But to this day the Coptic Christian minority remains and uses the ancient language in its liturgy.

For over two centuries Egypt was administered as a province of the Arab Empire. By the middle of the ninth century the remotest territories were slipping from the grasp of the Abbasid caliphs of Baghdad. Egypt was obviously well fitted to be the domain of an autonomous governor. Two short-lived Turkish dynasties, the Tulunids and the Ikhshidids, ruled in virtual independence of the caliph between 868 and 969. Each rapidly degenerated after the death of its founder. Ahmad ibn Tulun in 877 occupied Syria and thus once again created an empire based on Egypt.

THE FATIMIDS AND AYYUBIDS 969-1250

Ikhshidid rule was terminated in 969 by an invasion from Tunisia. Here the rival caliphate of the Fatimids had been set up by Muslims of the Shia sect who believed that the caliphate could only pass through the direct descendants of Ali, Muhammad's son in law. The fourth of these anti-caliphs, Al Mu'izz, was made the master of Egypt by his general Jawhar. Jawhar laid out a new capital which has developed into the modern city of Cairo, and was the founder of the mosque of Al Azhar, the greatest centre of Islamic theological learning.

Under the early Fatimids Egypt enjoyed a golden age. The country was a well-administered absolute monarchy and it formed the central portion of an empire which at its height included North Africa, Sicily, Syria and western Arabia. Agriculture and industry were encouraged. Trade with Europe and India brought prosperity to the land and wealth to the ruler.

Soon however Fatimid rule began to decay. Ali Hakim (996-1021) departed from the tolerant policy towards Christians and Jews which was normal in Muslim states. The long reign of Al Mustansir (1035-94) witnessed the break up of the Fatimid Empire and the growing insubordination of the slave-soldiery. After his death the six succeeding Fatimids were playthings in the hands of their ministers and their troops.

Meanwhile a new enemy was on the threshold—the Crusaders who after 1098 established feudal Christian states along the Syrian coast. Neither the Abbasids nor the Fatimids were capable of resisting them but in the later twelfth century the tide began to turn. The Muslim reconquest of Syria was largely due to the energy and ability of the Kurdish leader Salah al Din al Ayyubi, known in European history as Saladin. In 1169 he became minister to the Fatimid caliph. In 1171 the last Fatimid was quietly deposed and Egypt restored to Sunni orthodoxy. The remainder of Saladin's life was a struggle against the crusading states but when he died in 1193 he was sultan over Egypt and practically the whole of the former Crusader territory.

Saladin's Empire was divided amongst his heirs, one branch of which the Egyptian Ayyubids reigned in Cairo. Dynastic struggles weakened the family and the Crusaders were able to recover some lost ground. Louis IX of France led an attack directly on Egypt. Damietta was occupied in 1249 but the advance of the Crusaders through the difficult and pestilential Delta was stopped at the battle of Al Mansura in 1250. Louis was made prisoner but subsequently regained his liberty on paying a ransom and restoring Damietta.

THE MAMLUK SULTANATE 1250-1517

During this Crusade the Ayyubid sultan died. This was virtually the end of the dynasty. After a short confused period the commander of the forces, a certain Aybak, became the first of the Mamluk sultans who ruled Egypt from 1250 to 1517. These sultans were of slave origin. The Ayyubids had built up bodyguards of slave troops whose power increased as that of their masters declined. The earlier Mamluks until 1390 were mainly of Turkish and Mongol origin, while their successors originally the bodyguard of the former were mostly Circassians. The Mamluk sultans did not form a dynasty in the hereditary sense but a caste from which the successive rulers emerged after election or a struggle for power. The ranks of the Mamluks were replenished by fresh purchases.

The Mamluks were thus an alien element which was never fully assimilated in Egypt. They exploited the land for their own benefit and the Egyptians played a passive role under their domination. Nevertheless they protected Egypt and Syria against the Mongols and the Crusaders. The Mongol threat developed in the middle of the thirteenth century when Hulagu, the grandson of Jenghiz Khan, advanced through Persia. Baghdad was taken and the Abbasid caliphate extinguished in 1258. From Northern Syria the Mongol army advanced southwards until at Ain Jalut near Nazareth it was overwhelmed in 1260 by the Mamluk

Sultan, Baibars. Spared from the ravages of the Mongols, Egypt became the principal centre of Arab culture. The change in the centre of gravity of Islam was symbolized when Baibars brought to Cairo an 'Abbasid prince, who was formally recognized as titular caliph.

This victory also ensured that the Mamluk sultans would rule over a combined empire of Egypt and Syria. The remaining pockets of Crusader territory were regained by Baibars and his successors. Baibars also intervened in the affairs of the Christian kingdom of Nubia and virtually established a protectorate.

The numerous mosques and public works of the Mamluk period indicate the wealth of Egypt. But from the middle of the fourteenth century the condition of the country declined owing to plague and civil war, while heavy taxation oppressed all classes of the native Egyptians. Another Mongol invasion under Tamerlane in 1401 devastated Syria, although Egypt itself was again spared. The valuable transit trade through Egypt was subjected to a close monopoly, which diminished its flow. Finally Vasco da Gama's voyage to India around the Cape (1496-99) sounded the doom of Egyptian prosperity. European ships henceforward by-passed Egypt and traded directly with the east, while the Portuguese destroyed the Mamluk fleets and harried Arab shipping in the Indian Ocean, Red Sea and Persian Gulf.

OTTOMAN EGYPT: 1517-1798

At the beginning of the sixteenth century a powerful state was created in Persia under the Safavid dynasty, while Anatolia and the Balkan peninsula were ruled by the Ottomans. The Mamluks were by comparison a declining power and sought by a secret understanding with the Persian Shah to hold their own against the expansionist and militant Ottomans.

In 1516 at the battle of Marj Dabiq north of Aleppo the Ottoman Sultan, Selim I, defeated the Mamluks and advanced southwards. A second battle in January 1517, outside Cairo, resulted in the overthrow of the last Mamluk sultan. The whole of his empire fell into Selim's hands and Cairo sank to a provincial status. The Turkish conquest together with the change in international trade-routes marked the beginning of a period of political and economic insignificance. The great mosque of Al-Azhar retained its primacy among the theological schools of Islam but its teaching was set in a conservative tradition that remained unbroken until the nineteenth century.

Selim recognized the invidiousness of Egypt and his successors usually interfered but little with the administration. The Mamluk soldiery and their leaders, the beys, were allowed to continue receiving their revenues. A garrison of Turkish janissaries was stationed in Egypt but in the course of a few generations they became useless as a military force, while constant recruiting from the slave-markets kept the Mamluks in unimpaired vigour. Ottoman governors were appointed but for the most part they were utterly dependent on the Mamluk beys.

From time to time Mamluk grandees were virtually

sovereign in Egypt. The most famous of these was Ali Bey, who ruled from 1761 to 1766, was then driven into exile, but regained power from 1767 to 1772. He made an alliance with a Syrian Arab chief, and contacted a Russian squadron, which was then cruising in the eastern Mediterranean, during the course of hostilities against the Ottoman Empire. A Mamluk force attacked Damascus, and drove out the Ottoman governor, but Ali's general betrayed him, and returned to Egypt. Ali fled to his Syrian friend, but was defeated in an attempt to reconquer Egypt in 1773 and died a prisoner.

Ali Bey's career illustrated the weakness of the Mamluks. They had no roots in Egypt and the Egyptians viewed with indifference their struggles for mastery. Their power to achieve their ambitions was limited by the difficulty of financing their factions and they became unpopular by the extortions which they practised on the native Egyptians. At the end of the century a shock from Europe was to reveal the hollowness of their power.

THE FRENCH IN EGYPT: 1798-1801

During the eighteenth century, the British obtained the chief share of Eastern commerce. With the outbreak of the Revolutionary War between Britain and France, the French decided that the occupation of Egypt and the revival of the transit trade might lead to the disruption of British commerce and the overthrow of British rule in India. Bonaparte landed at Alexandria in July 1798.

His aim was to colonize Egypt, break the Mamluk hold and introduce Western ideas. Although he professed sympathy with Islam, his expedition was essentially inspired by the nationalist and secular ideology of the French Revolution. The Egyptians saw in it a new crusade and Bonaparte's attempts to win support by appeals to Muslim sentiment miscarried.

Defeated in the decisive "Battle of the Pyramids" on July 21st, the Mamluks fled and the sudden collapse of their administration was followed by disorder and pillage in Cairo until the entry of French troops. The following month, however, Bonaparte was cut off from France by the destruction of his fleet by Nelson in the "Battle of the Nile". In September the Ottoman Sultan declared war and news of this, combined with Mamluk intrigues and hostility towards the alien French, led in October to a serious revolt in Cairo, centred around Al-Azhar which was subjected to an artillery bombardment.

Early in 1799 Bonaparte invaded Syria to attack the combined forces of the Mamluks and the Ottomans under the governor of Acre. The latter was supported by a British naval squadron and after besieging Acre for two months Bonaparte withdrew to Egypt, his forces much reduced by fighting and disease. He repulsed a Turkish landing near Alexandria in July and succeeded in August in getting away to France with a few companions. His army held out until 1801 when a British force, subsequently joined by Ottoman troops, compelled them to capitulate.

The shock to Egypt of the French occupation was great. The Mamluk ruling caste was unseated, Egyptian Muslim leaders were associated with the administration and consulted on public matters and the Copts were placed on an equal footing with the Muslims. The immediate effect was to confuse and irritate Egyptian opinion, but the way to future developments had been opened.

The French did not abandon the idea of gaining control over Egypt and their interest in Egyptian affairs was maintained. French scholars who had accompanied Bonaparte produced monographs which became the basis of modern studies of the country. In the hands of Champollion, the Rosetta Stone was to be the key to the hieroglyphs.

MUHAMMAD ALI PASHA AND HIS SUCCESSORS: 1805-63

The expulsion of the French was followed by a struggle for power in which the victor was an Albanian officer in the Ottoman forces, Muhammad Ali. In 1803 he was recognized by the Sultan as Governor of Egypt. In 1807 he defeated a British force which had occupied Alexandria. In 1811 the Mamluk chiefs were massacred in Cairo. His prestige was increased by the success of his forces in a campaign in Arabia, undertaken between 1811 and 1818 at the request of the Sultan, against the Wahhabi conquerors of the Hijaz, led by the family of Saud, who threatened the Fertile Crescent. Between 1820 and 1822 his army conquered most of the northern Sudan, the source of gold and slaves.

The gaps in his army resulting from these campaigns were made up first by slaves, who were found unsuitable because of their high mortality, and then by the conscription—unprecedented, brutal and unpopular—of native Egyptians. The new army had Turks, Albanians and Circassians for officers and was trained by European military instructors.

In 1824 Muhammad Ali sent his son Ibrahim with an Egyptian force to assist the Sultan to suppress the Greek revolt, but European intervention in 1827 led to the destruction of the Turkish and Egyptian fleets at Navarino. On the rejection by the Sultan of Muhammad Ali's demand that Syria should be given to him in recompense, Ibrahim invaded that country in 1831. War with the Ottomans followed and Ibrahim advanced into Anatolia. A convention in 1833 gave Muhammad Ali the Syrian provinces which were ruled by Ibrahim for seven years as his viceroy. A second Ottoman war then broke out and international intervention once again resulted in Ibrahim's defeat. Muhammad Ali's dominions were restricted to Egypt and the Sudan but his governorship was made hereditary. He died in 1849, having been predeceased by Ibrahim.

Within Egypt Muhammad Ali reformed the administration and controlled the national wealth. An ambitious educational system was organized under European teachers and Egyptian students were sent abroad, especially to France. A press was set up, primarily for the production of textbooks and manuals. Towards the end of his reign a Western-

educated class was emerging and the ferment of ideas characteristic of modern Egyptian intellectual life had begun.

Muhammad Ali was succeeded by his grandson, Abbas I (1849-54), under whom the westernizing trend was reduced, and he by Said (1854-64), Muhammad Ali's surviving son.

THE MAKING OF THE SUEZ CANAL: 1854-69

During Muhammad Ali's reign, Egypt regained importance as a link between Europe and the East. The overland route via Alexandria, Cairo and Suez, which was improved with the construction of a railway by British enterprise, reduced the passage between England and India from five months to forty days. This route was used by passengers and mail but heavy merchandise continued to go by the Cape. The scheme for a maritime canal, regarded by the British Government as a threat to India, was backed by France but Muhammad Ali refused to grant the necessary concession, seeing a canal as a threat to the independence he sought.

Said proved more pliant and in 1854 granted a concession to de Lesseps which included an undertaking to supply labour but which required ratification by the Sultan. This was delayed owing to British opposition and work did not begin until 1859, in anticipation of ratification after de Lesseps had gained the support of Napoleon III.

Said was succeeded by Ismail, Ibrahim's son, who inherited something of his grandfather's imagination and his father's energy. At his insistence the concession (and particularly the clause concerning the provision of labour) was modified, but he was obliged to pay £3 million in compensation to the Suez Canal Company after the matter had been submitted to the arbitration of Napoleon III. The canal was opened with great festivities.

At first the British Government tried to ignore the canal and none of the 80,000 shares reserved for Britain (one fifth of the total) were bought. Ismail, who had originally been allotted 64,000 shares, took up these and others which remained unsubscribed, bringing his total holding to 182,023 shares. Said and Ismail had together paid about £11½ million in connection with the canal which cost approximately £16 million to cut. Ismail was to receive 15 per cent of the net profits in addition to the interest on his shares.

THE KHEDIVE ISMAIL AND INTERNATIONAL CONTROL: 1863-81

As part of the Ottoman Empire, Egypt was bound by the Capitulations—treaties with European powers giving European communities in Ottoman territories a considerable degree of autonomy under the jurisdiction of their consuls. Originally they had applied to small groups of merchants but with the growth of trade with Egypt in the nineteenth century consular protection came to be enjoyed by sizeable foreign communities who were exempt from Egyptian jurisdiction and largely free of Egyptian taxation. After

prolonged negotiations Mixed Courts, which reduced the scope of consular jurisdiction, were introduced in 1875; these, however, had a majority of European judges and were not insensitive to diplomatic pressures.

Ismail was to deliver Egypt into far greater international control. His ambitions made him careless of financial considerations, and high cotton prices during the American Civil War gave him a false idea of his country's wealth. In 1866 he obtained the title of Khedive. He extended his Sudanese dominions, cut canals, built railways and constructed telegraph lines. No distinction was drawn between the debts of the state and those of the ruler, whose personal expenses were high, and between 1863 and 1876 Egyptian indebtedness rose from £7 million to nearly £100 million. Much of this was in the form of loans from European financial houses at steep rates of interest.

In 1875 Ismail staved off a financial crisis by selling his Suez Canal shares to the British Government for nearly £4 million, a profitable investment by Disraeli who sought to prevent French control. The crisis came in 1876 when Ismail suspended payment of his treasury bills, a declaration of bankruptcy which led to international control. A khedival decree of May 1876 established the "Caisse de la Dette Publique", administered by four foreign members—British, French, Austrian and Italian—to provide for the service of Egyptian debts. When this arrangement proved unsuccessful the French insisted on reform of the fiscal system to provide for repayment of the debts and in 1878 Ismail was forced by France and Britain, in return for a new loan, to surrender his powers and revenues to a ministry, headed by Nubar Pasha, which included a British and a French minister. Ismail chafed under foreign control, aligned himself with Egyptian opposition to it and in May 1879 dismissed the ministry. The French and British Governments retaliated by securing his deposition by the Ottoman Sultan.

Ismail was succeeded by his son Tawfik, who, ostensibly, governed through a responsible Egyptian ministry. Strict financial control was exercised, however, by a French and a British controller, and under the law of liquidation of 1880 an international Debt Commission, consisting of two French and two British members together with one German, one Austrian and one Italian, administered 66 per cent of the country's revenue for the benefit of foreign creditors. Furthermore, a maximum was laid down for government expenditure and the Commissioners were empowered to draw on any surplus administrative revenue. Such was the burden laid upon the Egyptian people by Ismail's improvidence.

THE ARABI EPISODE: 1881-82

Meanwhile a nationalist outlook was developing among those classes who had been touched by Western influences, particularly the younger Egyptian army officers whose way to promotion was barred by Turks and Circassians. Liberal reformers led by Cherif Pasha resented Turkish overlordship and wanted a Western-style constitution. Moslem leaders were opposed to the spread of Christian influence.

The great landowners, many of whom were, like the ruling house, Turkish in origin, fought to retain their privileges which were threatened by foreign control. The peasantry, who had been squeezed to pay for Ismail's schemes were being squeezed again to pay his debts. The Khedive, Tawfik, was revealed as a puppet maintained by France and Britain.

By 1881 the country seethed with unrest and a climax was reached in February when, in protest against cuts imposed on the army, a group of officers led by Arabi Pasha forced Tawfik to dismiss his Circassian War Minister. In September, after surrounding his palace, they compelled him to agree to the formation of a new ministry, and to summon the Chamber of Notables, a consultative body originally set up by Ismail. France was opposed to any concession to moderate Egyptian opinion, Britain agreed rather than risk a split with France, and a Franco-British note was sent proclaiming the resolve to maintain the Khedive and the established order.

The effect of the note was to align the Chamber of Notables with Arabi against foreign intervention. In February 1882 Khedive was forced to dismiss the ministry led by Cherif Pasha and appoint a nationalist ministry with a supporter of Arabi as Prime Minister and Arabi himself Minister for War. The Dual Control ceased to exist and, although anxious to avoid sending an expedition to Egypt, the British and French Governments in May sent naval squadrons to Alexandria as a demonstration. On their arrival Egyptian opinion became so inflamed that in June fanaticism took control and riots broke out in Alexandria and other places in which numbers of Europeans were killed.

At a conference in Constantinople neither Germany nor Turkey would support the sending of an expeditionary force and the French Chamber of Deputies refused to sanction French intervention. On July 11th, the Egyptians having refused to cease work on the fortifications of Alexandria, the British squadron bombarded the forts. The town was evacuated by the Egyptian army, while the Khedive placed himself under British protection and subsequently proclaimed Arabi a rebel. The French ostentatiously dissociated themselves from the British action. A British expeditionary force landed at Ismailia and routed the Egyptian army at Tel el Kebir. Cairo was occupied and Tawfik's prerogatives were restored, to be subsequently exercised under British control.

THE RULE OF CROMER AND HIS SUCCESSORS: 1883-1914

The British Government hoped to set Egyptian affairs in order and then to withdraw, but the execution of this policy was frustrated. The Arabi episode had brought Egypt once again to the verge of bankruptcy. Difficulties were increased by a cholera epidemic, a poor Nile, the Mahdist revolt in the Sudan and the unremitting hostility of France. Evacuation was repeatedly deferred and the occupation gradually assumed the character of a veiled protectorate.

From 1883 to 1907 the Egyptian Government was dominated by the British Agent and Consul-General,

Sir Evelyn Baring, who in 1891 became Lord Cromer. He was in title only the equal of the other consuls general and British control was established with diplomatic care, German support being canvassed to counterbalance French obstruction. A policy of severe economy was necessary to satisfy foreign bondholders. In spite of the limitation on his freedom of action, Cromer obtained remarkable results. An international convention in 1885 eased the financial strain by permitting a further loan and modifying the rigidity with which Egyptian revenues were assigned. British financial advisers brought about increased revenues, solvency was restored and taxation reduced. Irrigation works were improved and paid labour replaced the corvée for the annual clearance of the canals. The Aswan dam was constructed. A new Egyptian army was trained by British officers.

In 1892 Tawfik died. He was succeeded by his son, Abbas II, who was barely eighteen at his accession and soon resented Cromer's authority. The possibility of a conjunction between Abbas and a new nationalist movement led by Mustafa Kamil, a young lawyer who had been trained in France, caused the British some anxiety but the Khedive's attempts to assert himself resulted in humiliation which further embittered him against Britain. A series of puppet governments preserved a façade of constitutionalism but educated youth turned increasingly to opposition.

At the turn of the century Britain gained a freer hand in Egypt. The Sudan was reconquered between 1896 and 1898. A clash between British and French at Fashoda on the Upper Nile was narrowly averted and the liquidation of this problem led ultimately to the Entente Cordiale of 1904 and the diminution of French opposition in Egypt. At the same time senior British officials, who had increased in number from about 100 in 1885 to over 1,000 in 1905, were out of touch with the growing strength of national feeling.

Cromer was succeeded in 1907 by Sir Eldon Gorst, who managed to establish better relations with the Khedive and adopted an attitude of informality which contrasted with Cromer's proconsular pomp. On his death in 1911 he was followed by Lord Kitchener, who, as conqueror of the Sudan, was treated with more deference than had been grudgingly accorded to Gorst and whose arrival marked a return to more autocratic methods. Nevertheless a Legislative Assembly was created in 1913 which provided a platform from which the voice of nationalism could make itself heard with constitutional propriety, and it is to the credit of British rule throughout this period that the press was uncensored and the expression of opinion free.

THE FIRST WORLD WAR AND ITS CONSEQUENCES: 1914-22

After Turkey entered the First World War in November 1914 on the side of Germany, Egypt, still nominally a province of the Ottoman Empire, was declared a British protectorate and Britain assumed responsibility for the defence of the Suez Canal. On December 20th Abbas II was deposed and the British

Government offered the title of Sultan to Husam Kamil, the brother of Tawfik. When Husam died in 1917 he was succeeded by his brother Fuad.

Under the protectorate the combination of British and Egyptian officials in the administration continued. Kitchener was succeeded by Sir Henry McMahon, the first High Commissioner, and he in turn was succeeded in 1917 by Sir Reginald Wingate, who had served in the Egyptian army under Kitchener and had since 1899 been Governor General of the Sudan.

The Constantinople Convention of 1888 provided that the Suez Canal should be "always free and open, in time of war as in time of peace, to every vessel of commerce or war without distinction of flag" but, by a blockade against enemy shipping outside the three mile limit covered by the Convention, Britain was able to deny the use of the Canal to enemy shipping.

The pressure of military necessity was increasingly felt by the Egyptians. Martial law, censorship, the dearth of officials of good quality, the forcible recruitment of labour and the requisition of animals for the advance into Palestine, rising prices and profiteering all combined to intensify opposition to the protectorate. The nationalist movement, antagonistic to both the British administration and the Sultan, fed on popular discontent and at the end of the war, in November 1918, a delegation, headed by Saad Zaghlul, presented Wingate with a demand for autonomy. The British Government's refusal to deal with the nationalists and the deportation of Zaghlul and three of his associates resulted in riots and murders early in 1919 and order had to be restored by military action.

Wingate, who had given warning of the danger, was superseded by Allenby fresh from his successful campaign against the Turks. Allenby made overtures to Egyptian opinion and Zaghlul and his friends were released, only to fail to get a hearing at the Peace Conference and to be rebuffed by the recognition of the British protectorate by the United States. Known now as the *Wafd* (i.e. Delegation), they set to work to organize support in Egypt and boycotted the British mission under Lord Milner, sent to report on the situation. Britain was prepared to negotiate a treaty in exchange for the abolition of the protectorate and discussion between Milner and Zaghlul subsequently took place in Paris. After inciting further unrest in Egypt, Zaghlul was again deported, however.

On February 28th, 1922 the British Government issued a declaration unilaterally announcing the abolition of the protectorate and the recognition of Egypt as an independent sovereign state. Four matters were absolutely reserved to the discretion of the British Government pending the conclusion of negotiated agreements. These were the security of the communications of the British Empire in Egypt, the defence of Egypt, the protection of foreign interests and of minorities in Egypt, and the Sudan.

In March 1922 the Sultan Fuad, took the title of King of Egypt and in April a committee was set up to draft a constitution.

THE TRIANGULAR STRUGGLE: 1922-39

The period after the declaration of independence saw a triangular struggle in Egypt between the King, the Wafd and the British Government. The Wafd was organized to carry out a revolution, not to direct affairs of state. The King owed his throne to the British and his presence guaranteed their interests, yet obvious subservience to them might have enabled the Wafd to rob him of his throne.

The new constitution, which made Egypt a parliamentary monarchy on the Belgian model, was promulgated in 1923. The Wafd triumphed in the elections which were then held and Saad Zaghlul became Prime Minister for a brief period in 1924. In the succeeding years political instability continued as the struggle for power between the Wafd and the throne went on. Elections usually gave the Wafd a majority but a Wafd ministry was unacceptable to King Fuad and in this he normally had the concurrence of the British Government. Hence Palace influence was predominant in the ministries appointed and at times legislation had to be enacted by decree. In 1928 the Parliament was suspended for three years, in 1930 modifications were made to the constitution which altered the electoral law, but in 1935 the original provisions were restored and in elections the following year the Wafd again obtained a majority. The month before the elections King Fuad had been succeeded by his son, Farouk, a minor. The new Prime Minister was Nahas Pasha, who had led the Wafd since Zaghlul's death in 1927.

Until 1936 negotiations for an Anglo-Egyptian treaty invariably broke down over questions of defence and the Sudan. The continued presence of British troops was regarded by Egyptians as denying the reality of independence. The Egyptians also felt that they had been ousted by Britain from dominion over the Sudan and control over their water supply. When the Governor-General of the Sudan was assassinated in Cairo in 1924, Allenby demanded the withdrawal of Egyptian troops from the Sudan, and also the unlimited extension of the irrigation of the Sudan Gezira. Although these demands were later modified, the Egyptian share in the Condominium was to remain nominal.

In 1929 the Nile Waters Agreement allotted the respective shares of Egypt and the Sudan, to Egypt's advantage. The deadlock over a treaty ended in 1936 when the rise of Italian power threatened British and Egyptian interests alike. On August 26th an Anglo-Egyptian treaty of twenty years duration was signed which formally terminated British occupation but empowered Britain to station forces in the Suez Canal zone until the Egyptian army was in a position to ensure the security of the Canal. The Sudan was to continue to be administered as in the past. The protection of foreign interests and of minorities in Egypt was recognized as the exclusive responsibility of the Egyptian Government. The abolition of the Capitulations was secured by the Convention of Montreux in May 1937. In the same month Egypt was admitted to the League of Nations.

THE SECOND WORLD WAR AND ITS CONSEQUENCES: 1939-52

In the Second World War Egypt was a vital strategic factor as the British base in the Middle East. Her treaty obligations were fulfilled but the ruling classes were by no means committed to the Allied cause and on occasions popular support for Germany became manifest. Nevertheless the presence of British forces ensured co-operation.

The young King Farouk, who had assumed full royal powers in 1937, was a popular national figure but as determined as his father to avoid domination by the Wafd. Although still the dominant political party, the Wafd was losing its revolutionary fervour and its appeal to youth was diminishing. Fascist influence appeared in the Greenshirt organization, while the Muslim Brotherhood, a puritanical religious body, developed a terrorist wing and threatened the established authorities.

The critical year was 1942. Alamein had not yet been fought, the King was disposed to appease the Axis powers and the government was under Palace influence. The Wafd, however, favoured co-operation with Britain. In February the British Ambassador, supported by an armed escort, entered the Palace and insisted on the formation of a Wafdist government. Threatened with deposition, Farouk acquiesced and Nahas Pasha became Prime Minister and Military Governor of Egypt.

Nahas held office until 1944. During this period Nuri al-Said, the Prime Minister of Iraq, and King Abdulla of Transjordan separately put forward proposals for a union of Arab states in the Fertile Crescent. These were opposed by Egypt as they seemed to favour Iraqi hegemony. Nahas took the initiative, proposing a broader league of Arab states, and a conference was held which in October 1944 produced the Alexandria Protocol. On this the Arab League was founded the following year. From the beginning Egypt held a position of leadership in the League, which was bitterly hostile to the idea of establishing a Jewish state in Palestine. Previously, preoccupied with her own national problems, Egypt had shown little interest in the Palestine problem.

By 1944 the danger to Egypt had passed. Nahas was no longer indispensable and his government fell, discredited by co-operation with the British and by the corruption which had flourished during its tenure of office. The struggle between the Wafd and the Palace revived. Communism, made attractive, especially among students, by the Russian successes in the war, gained new adherents, and the Muslim Brotherhood continued its subversive activities.

Negotiations in the immediate post-war years for a new treaty with Britain broke down over the questions of the British occupation of the Canal Zone and the future of the Sudan. A provisional agreement concluded between Ernest Bevin and Sidki Pasha in 1946 proved abortive owing to Sudanese resentment at a reference to "the unity between the Sudan and Egypt under the common crown of Egypt". The British

Government affirmed its intention that the Sudanese should freely decide their own future status. In 1949 Nokrashi Pasha submitted the Egyptian case to the United Nations where the problem was shelved.

In Palestine Britain's renunciation of the Mandate on May 14th, 1948, was followed immediately by the declaration of the State of Israel and military action by Egypt, Iraq, Syria and Jordan. The Egyptian army was badly defeated. Although the fact was long concealed from the Egyptian public, it eventually recoiled on the ruling classes. The King's early popularity had vanished, military failure and the scandal of the supply of faulty arms, in which members of the Palace clique were implicated, undermined the loyalty of the army, which was his last support.

The fall of the discredited regime did not come immediately. The Communists, although widespread, lacked the means to capture the administration. A terrorist campaign by the Muslim Brotherhood was suppressed and the organization driven underground. In 1949 Nahas, again in power, made a last bid for royal and popular support in 1951 by abrogating the Treaty of 1936 and the Condominium Agreement and proclaiming Farouk "King of Egypt and Sudan". New British proposals on the Sudan were rejected, as also were proposals on defence, involving the creation of an Allied Middle East Command with Egyptian participation, put forward jointly by Britain, France, Turkey and the United States. Terrorism and economic sanctions were then employed in an attempt to force the withdrawal of British forces from the Canal Zone. Clashes occurred resulting in many deaths, and on January 26th, 1952, an anti British demonstration in Cairo developed into rioting, looting and a conflagration, brought to an end only by army intervention.

THE REVOLUTION: 1952-56

On July 23rd, 1952, a group of young army officers, the "Free Officers", who had long been planning a *coup d'état*, seized power in Cairo. They invited the veteran politician, Ali Maher, to form a government under their control, and secured the abdication of King Farouk in favour of his infant son, Ahmed Fuad II, on July 26th. Farouk sailed to exile.

General Muhammad Neguib, an associate of the Free Officers who had incurred the enmity of King Farouk and who had earlier made himself popular by his condemnation of the British action in 1942, was made Commander in Chief of the armed forces and head of the military junta. A Council of Regency was formed in August. On September 7th, after an attempt by the Wafd and other parties to resume the political battle on their own terms, a new cabinet with General Neguib as Prime Minister was substituted for that of Ali Maher. Real power, however, lay with the nine officers who formed the Revolutionary Command Council.

The Revolution soon gained momentum. In September 1952 land ownership was limited to 300 acres in any one family and the power of the feudal class which had for so long dominated Egyptian political life was destroyed. Land owned by the royal family was con-

fiscated. On December 10th the constitution was abolished and on January 16th, 1953, all political parties were dissolved. It was announced that there would be a three-year transition period before representative government was restored. On June 18th the monarchy was abolished and Egypt declared a republic, with Neguib as President and Prime Minister as well as Chairman of the Revolutionary Command Council. Colonel Gamal Abdel Nasser, who, although leader of the Free Officers, had hitherto remained in the background, became Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of the Interior, and Abdel Hakim Amer was appointed Commander in Chief of the armed forces.

A revolutionary court was set up and a number of persons, including the old politicians most identified with the failure of the Palestine campaign, were tried amid much publicity, on charges of corruption and opposition to the new regime. Action was taken involving widespread arrests and detentions to suppress two potential sources of opposition to the revolutionary government: the Communists and the Muslim Brotherhood.

A struggle for power soon developed between General Neguib, whose personal tendencies were Islamic and conservative, and Colonel Nasser. On February 25th, 1954, Neguib was relieved of his posts as President, Prime Minister and Chairman of the Revolutionary Command Council and accused of having attempted to concentrate power in his own hands. Nasser became Prime Minister and Chairman of the Revolutionary Command Council in his place for a few days but Neguib was restored as President and took back both the other posts. He announced that elections would be held for a constituent assembly, martial law and press censorship were abolished and freedom for political parties was restored. Opponents of the regime, including Nahas and Al Hudaibi, the leader of the Muslim Brotherhood, were released from prison. Nasser, however, supported by both the army and newly formed workers' organizations, was able to regain the premiership and the chairmanship of the Revolutionary Command Council in April. Neguib had suffered a defeat and his liberal measures were rescinded. When in October a member of the Muslim Brotherhood attempted to assassinate Nasser, its leaders and several thousand alleged supporters were arrested and in subsequent trials a number of death sentences were passed. On November 14th, 1954 General Neguib was relieved of the office of President and accused of being involved in a Muslim Brotherhood conspiracy against the regime. He was placed under house arrest and Colonel Nasser became acting head of state.

A settlement of the Sudan and Suez problems had been facilitated by the expulsion of King Farouk. The claim to the joint monarchy of Egypt and the Sudan was dropped and negotiations with Sudanese leaders were helped by the fact that Neguib himself was half-Sudanese and popular in the Sudan. An Anglo-Egyptian agreement, signed on February 12th, 1953, ended the Condominium and offered the Sudanese the choice of independence or union with Egypt. Egyptian

expectation that they would choose the latter was disappointed; the overthrow of Neguib and the suppression of the Muslim Brotherhood fed the century-old suspicion of Egyptian motives.

An Anglo-Egyptian agreement on Suez was signed on October 19th, 1954; this provided for the withdrawal of British troops from the Canal Zone within twenty months. Certain installations were to be maintained by British civilian technicians and the Egyptian Government would assume responsibility for the remainder of the base. The base might be reactivated by Britain in the event of an armed attack by an outside power on any of the Arab League states or Turkey. The agreement recognized the international importance of the Suez Canal (which was described as "an integral part of Egypt") and expressed the determination of both parties to uphold the 1888 convention.

Under Nasser Egypt began to assert her importance in world affairs. He sought influence in three circles: the Islamic, the African and the Arab, and his visit to the Bandung conference in 1955 added a fourth: the "non-aligned". Egypt led the opposition among certain Arab states to the Baghdad Pact (on which was founded the Central Treaty Organization). In October 1955 Egypt concluded defence agreements with Syria and with Saudi Arabia and in April 1956 a military pact was signed between Egypt, Saudi Arabia and the Yemen. Tension with Israel remained high, and raids and counter-raids across the border of the Gaza Strip called for unceasing vigilance on the part of the United Nations observers stationed on the frontier. In September 1955 Nasser announced an arms deal with Czechoslovakia which was to supply large quantities of military equipment, including Soviet tanks and aircraft, in return for cotton and rice. In July 1956 he had talks with Marshal Tito of Yugoslavia and Pandit Nehru of India and subsequently maintained close relations with these two countries.

In 1956 a constitutional basis for Colonel Nasser's authority was established. A new constitution providing for a strong presidency was proclaimed in January and on June 23rd approved in a plebiscite in which the citizens of the Egyptian Republic also elected Nasser as President.

THE SUEZ CRISIS AND ITS CONSEQUENCES: 1956-57

President Nasser's policy of non-alignment, which implied willingness to deal with both power blocs, was followed in the Egyptian attempt to obtain funds for the ambitious High Dam project at Aswan. By this project the Egyptian Government aimed to increase cultivable land and generate electricity for industrialization, which was seen as the main solution to Egypt's increasing population problem. Following offers of assistance from the United States and Britain and, separately, by the U.S.S.R., the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development offered a loan of \$200 million in February 1956, on condition that the United States and Britain lent a total of \$70 million and that the agreement of the riparian states

to the scheme was obtained; Egypt was to provide local services and material.

The last British troops were withdrawn from Egypt in June 1956, in accordance with the 1954 agreement. Relations with the West were not helped, however, by Egyptian opposition to the Baghdad Pact and strong propaganda attacks on Britain, France and the United States. On July 20th the United States and Britain withdrew their offers of finance for the High Dam, pointing out that agreement between the riparian states had not been achieved and that Egypt's ability to devote adequate resources to the scheme was doubtful. The U.S.S.R. made no compensating move. On July 26th President Nasser announced that the Suez Canal Company had been nationalized and that revenue from the Canal would be used to finance the High Dam.

Britain, France and the United States protested strongly at this action and after an international conference had met in London in August a committee under the chairmanship of Mr. Menzies, the Prime Minister of Australia, went to Cairo to submit proposals for the operation of the Canal under an international system. These were rejected by the Egyptian Government. At a second London conference, in September, a Suez Canal Users' Association took shape and was later joined by sixteen states. On October 13th the UN Security Council voted on an Anglo-French resolution embodying basic principles for a settlement agreed earlier between the British, French and Egyptian Foreign Ministers in the presence of the UN Secretary-General. The first part of this, setting out the agreed principles, was adopted unanimously; the second, endorsing the proposals of the first London conference and inviting Egypt to make prompt proposals providing no less effective guarantees to users, was vetoed by the U.S.S.R.

Britain and France, thus frustrated in their attempts to retain some measure of control over the Suez Canal, at this state reached a secret understanding with Israel involving military action. Following the disclosure on October 24th that a unified military command had been formed by Egypt, Jordan and Syria, Israeli forces on October 29th crossed into Sinai, ostensibly to attack Egyptian *fedayeen* bases, and advanced towards the Suez Canal. On October 30th France and Britain called on Israel and Egypt to cease warlike action and withdraw their forces from either side of the Canal; Egypt was requested to agree to an Anglo-French force moving temporarily into key positions at Port Said, Ismailia and Suez. Israel agreed but Egypt refused. The same day in the UN Security Council Britain and France vetoed United States and Soviet resolutions calling for an immediate Israeli withdrawal and calling on all UN members to refrain from the use of force or the threat of force.

Anglo-French air operations against Egypt began on October 31st but paratroops and seaborne forces landed in the Port Said area only on November 5th. Meanwhile, on November 2nd, the UN General Assembly called for a cease-fire and two days later adopted a Canadian proposal to create a United Nations Emergency Force to supervise the ending of

the hostilities On November 6th, following heavy United States pressure, the British Prime Minister, Sir Anthony Eden, announced that, subject to confirmation that Egypt and Israel had accepted an unconditional cease fire, the armed conflict would end at midnight

The organization of the UN force was rapidly put in hand by the Secretary General, Mr Hammarskjöld, and the first units reached Egypt on November 15th The withdrawal of the Anglo-French forces was completed the following month The Israelis who had occupied the entire Sinai peninsula withdrew from all areas except the Gaza strip, which they wished to prevent becoming a base for more raids and Sharm el Sheikh at the entrance to the Gulf of Aqaba, which commanded the seaway to the port of Eilat These areas were returned to Egyptian control in March 1957 after pressure on the Government of Israel by the United States

The Suez Canal, which had been blocked by the Egyptians was cleared by a UN salvage fleet and reopened at the end of March 1957 The Egyptian Government rejected in February a plan proposed by Britain France, Norway and the United States, for the Canal to be operated by Egypt but the tolls collected by an outside agency The Egyptian terms, announced on March 18th, which users of the Canal were subsequently obliged to accept, were full control by the Egyptian Canal Authority and respect for the Constantinople Convention of 1888 Disputes would be settled in accordance with the UN Charter or referred to the International Court of Justice

UNION OF EGYPT AND SYRIA

Elections to the Egyptian National Assembly, provided for in the 1956 constitution, were held in July 1957 Only candidates approved by President Nasser and his colleagues were permitted to stand and it was clear that the 350 members elected (who included women) were not expected to exert much influence on the government The first sitting of the assembly was held on July 22nd against the background of the disclosure of an alleged plot to assassinate President Nasser in April In a speech to the assembly the President mentioned with favour the idea of a federation between Egypt and Syria

Following the defence agreement in 1955 discussions had been held the following year and in 1957 on union between the two states Both countries were aligned against the West and looked to the U S S R and other Communist states for support, and in Syria pro-Egyptian elements were in the ascendant On February 1st, 1958, following a visit to Cairo by President Quwatly and other Syrian leaders, the union of Egypt and Syria under the title of the United Arab Republic (U.A.R.) was announced Both parliaments formally approved the union on February 5th and seventeen principles on which the constitution of the U.A.R. would be based were proclaimed A plebiscite, held in both countries on February 21st, confirmed the union and made Nasser the first President of the United Arab Republic

Under the provisional constitution issued on

March 5th the President was head of state and supreme commander of the armed forces He was authorized to appoint four Vice-Presidents, a Cabinet and an Assembly of 400 members, at least half of whom were to be drawn from the parliaments at Cairo and Damascus The President could convene and dissolve the Assembly, the chief functions of which were to approve government laws and decisions, and he could himself legislate when it was not sitting The two Regions of Egypt and Syria were each to have an Executive Council, appointed by the President A National Union to be formed on lines laid down by the President, was to replace existing political parties and to mobilize efforts to build the nation on a sound basis

The implementation of the union took time The four Vice-Presidents and the two Executive Councils were appointed in March 1958 A central government, consisting of fourteen Egyptians and seven Syrians, was established in Cairo in October 1958 Four committees, dealing with legislative, executive, economic and public service matters were set up to advise the President In October 1959 President Nasser appointed one of the two Egyptian Vice Presidents, Field-Marshal Abdel Hakim Amer, as supervisor of general policy in the Syrian region, all Ministers of the Syrian Executive Council were made responsible to him and he was to preside over the council

Elections for the local committees of the National Union were held in both Egypt and Syria in July 1959 one representative being returned for every 500 electors The Union was a pyramidal organization, with committees at various levels headed by President Nasser Newspapers and publishing houses were placed under its control by a decree issued by President Nasser in May 1960, journalists being obliged to obtain licences from it In June 1960 separate congresses of the National Union were held simultaneously in Egypt and Syria at which deputies to the National Assembly were nominated They were followed by the first general congress of the National Union in Cairo at which over 500 policy resolutions were debated

The first National Assembly of the U.A.R. was opened in Cairo by President Nasser on July 21st, 1960 It consisted of 400 deputies from Egypt and 200 from Syria appointed by him from candidates nominated by the National Union Over half the deputies were former members of the dissolved national assemblies of Egypt and Syria Early in 1961 the President entrusted the National Assembly with the task of drawing up a permanent constitution for the U.A.R.

EXTERNAL RELATIONS: 1958-61

During this period President Nasser was actively concerned with changes in the rest of the Arab world

An invitation was extended to other Arab states to join the new Union and in March 1958 the U.A.R. and the Yemen entered into a loose association referred to as the United Arab States under which separate governments were to be maintained but policies co-ordinated through a supreme council This association

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did not prosper, however, and was terminated by the U.A.R. in December 1961.

The reaction of the Hashemite monarchies of Iraq and Jordan to the new relationship between Egypt and Syria (both of which had been accused of complicity in an attempted *coup d'état* in Jordan in 1957) was immediately to form a federation themselves, styled the Arab Union. This was subjected to U.A.R. propaganda attacks which stigmatized its formation as a hostile move inspired by the West. It did not survive the revolution in Iraq in July 1958.

In the Lebanon, where the government of President Chamoun was attacked by U.A.R. propaganda for pro-Western policies but where popular opinion was sympathetic to the U.A.R., a serious insurrection occurred in May 1958. The government alleged infiltration of arms and men from Syria into rebel-controlled areas and appealed to the UN Security Council which sent observers.

The military revolution in Iraq in July, in which the royal family and the Prime Minister, Nuri al-Said, were murdered, destroyed the only Arab regime in the Middle East to have identified itself explicitly with the West. The immediate dispatch of American troops to the Lebanon and British forces to Jordan drew strong protests from the U.A.R. which were echoed by the U.S.S.R. The U.S.A. and Britain gave warning of the grave consequences of any conflict between their forces and those under the control of Egypt and Syria. President Nasser visited Moscow and on his return received in Damascus a delegation from the new republican regime in Baghdad. A joint communiqué on July 19th declared that the U.A.R. and Iraq would assist each other to repel any foreign aggression. A United Nations resolution sponsored by Arab states in August, which welcomed assurances that they would refrain from action calculated to change each other's system of government, prepared the way for the withdrawal of the British and American forces.

A conference at Damascus in February 1959, attended by Jordan, the Lebanon, the U.A.R. and Saudi Arabia, led to the settlement of differences between Syria and the Lebanon, where the neutralist General Chehab had succeeded President Chamoun.

U.A.R. propaganda voiced support for a revolt which broke out at Mosul in Iraq in March 1959, and there were mass demonstrations in Cairo and Damascus in sympathy with the rebels. The Iraqi Government of General Kassem countered with the accusation that the revolt had been engineered from Syria. The political committee of the Arab League met at Beirut in April in an attempt to reduce the prevailing tension but Iraq took no part in the principal activities of the League until 1960 when relations with the U.A.R. improved.

Diplomatic relations between the U.A.R. and Jordan, severed at the time of the Iraqi revolution, were resumed in August 1959, but there were further violent propaganda exchanges in 1960, the U.A.R. criticizing Jordan for continuing to accept aid from Britain and the United States and Jordan accusing

the U.A.R. of complicity in the assassination of the Jordanian Prime Minister in Amman.

Agreement between Egypt and the Sudan on the sharing of the Nile waters after the completion of the Aswan High Dam was reached in November 1959 and a trade and customs convention was also signed.

President Nasser's hostility to the West found favour with the U.S.S.R., with which the U.A.R. established closer ties during these years. He made a state visit to Moscow in the spring of 1958 and in a joint communiqué on May 15th endorsed the broad objectives of Soviet policy whilst the U.S.S.R. declared support for Arab unity. Purchases of arms, military aircraft and industrial equipment were made from the Soviet Union at favourable prices and three submarines were bought from Poland. Soviet aid for the construction of five airfields and for industrial projects in Egypt was announced in December 1958 and the same month an agreement was concluded which ensured Soviet assistance for the building of the Aswan High Dam. Nevertheless, President Nasser was not inhibited from denouncing Communist activities in the Syrian region and from taking measures to circumscribe them. Work on the first stage of the High Dam began in January 1960 and it was announced that the U.S.S.R. had agreed to participate in the second stage, due to begin in 1962. Soviet assistance for shipyard construction at Alexandria and for industrial projects, including steel and engineering plants, irrigation schemes, and oil, chemical, food and textile enterprises, was announced early in 1960.

Relations with the West improved during 1959 and 1960. Through the mediation of the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development an agreement with Britain was signed on March 1st, 1959, providing for the payment by the U.A.R. of £27½ million as compensation for British private property taken over at the time of the Suez crisis in 1956. Diplomatic relations with Britain were resumed at chargé d'affaires level in December 1959 and raised to ambassadorial level early in 1961. A \$56.5 million loan from the International Bank was announced in December 1959 for improvement to the Suez Canal. Financial aid agreements between the U.A.R. and the U.S.A. were signed in March 1960, providing for the supply of surplus U.S. farm products and loans totalling \$32.5 million for economic development.

SYRIAN WITHDRAWAL FROM U.A.R.

President Nasser replaced the two Regional Executive Councils and the Central Cabinet of the U.A.R. with a single Central Government in August 1961. By this time, however, the increasing subordination of Syria was breeding resentment and the issue of decrees in July of that year nationalizing most large-scale industrial and commercial concerns had provoked further Syrian discontent. Colonel Seraj, a Syrian Vice-President of the U.A.R., resigned on September 26th and on September 28th the Syrian army seized control in Damascus and Syria withdrew from the U.A.R. President Nasser at first called for resistance to the Syrian *coup d'état* but, when the rebels were seen to be in firm control, said on October

5th that he would not oppose recognition of Syria's independence

The loss of Syria was a bitter blow to President Nasser and his Egyptian colleagues who now set about a re-examination of their policies. In a speech on October 16th Nasser spoke of the illusion that "reconciliation with reaction on a patriotic basis" was possible. "Reaction" had infiltrated into the National Union which must be converted into "a revolutionary means for the national masses alone", the machinery of the state must be reorganized. Measures against "reactionaries", including arrests and the sequestration of property, were announced three days later. Expropriations by the end of the year affected nearly 1,000 persons who included Syrians and Lebanese.

The U.A.R. Government (Egypt retained the full title) was re-formed on October 18th and a National Congress of Popular Forces, consisting of 1,750 delegates, representing not geographical areas but economic and professional interests and other social groups, met in Cairo on May 21st, 1962. President Nasser presented the National Congress with a draft National Charter outlining his programme for developing the U.A.R. on Arab socialist lines. The Charter states that imperialists must be evicted, the power of feudalists destroyed and state control of finance and industry established. A new democratic system of government was proposed, based on the Arab Socialist Union (replacing the National Union) and including popular councils at least half the members of which would be workers of *jellahin*. The President emphasized the need to increase the national income and stressed the importance of birth control to contain the alarming growth in the population. As for inter-Arab relations, the Charter placed "unity of objectives before unity of ranks". The National Congress approved the Charter on June 30th and then dispersed.

MORE ATTEMPTS AT UNION

Syrian complaints of Egyptian interference in her internal affairs provoked angry exchanges at a meeting of the Arab League Council in August 1962, as a result of which the U.A.R. boycotted all League activities and withdrew financial support until the downfall in March 1963 of the regime which had brought about Syria's secession. Normal relations were then resumed.

The Syrian *coup d'état* had been preceded by the overthrow in February 1963 of the regime of General Kassem in Iraq. These changes in power brought Syria and Iraq into closer alignment with Egypt and it was announced on April 17th that agreement had been reached on the formation of a federation of the three countries under the name of the United Arab Republic. During the first two years government was to be in the hands of a President and a Presidential Council of six members from each country. It was widely expected that a referendum to be held with five months would give Colonel Nasser the post of President with wide powers. Rivalries, however, arose in both Baghdad and Damascus between supporters of the Baath Party and "Nasserists" and by August President Nasser had withdrawn from the agreement,

claiming that the Baathists had set up one-party dictatorships in Syria and Iraq and ignored his insistence on wider nationalist representation.

A month later President Arif of Iraq called for a Baathist union of the three countries, but after the expulsion of Baath leaders from Iraq in November 1963 and the consolidation of power in Arif's hands the unity movement between Iraq and Syria fell apart and Iraq and Egypt again moved closer together. An agreement was concluded on May 25th, 1964, to establish a joint Presidency Council, consisting of the two Presidents and six members from each country, with a secretariat and committees in Cairo. A Unified Political Command was set up in December 1964 to bring about political unity and co-ordinate foreign policy, the armed forces, national security, economic planning and education.

The first meeting of the United Political Command was held in Cairo in May 1965 but the succeeding year saw little progress towards unity. In Iraq an attempted *coup* against President Arif, by the Prime Minister, Abdul Razzaq (who subsequently took refuge in Cairo), and elements favouring immediate and complete union with Egypt, failed. Visits to Cairo were made by the new Iraqi Prime Minister, Dr. Bazzaz, in October 1965 and by President Arif the following February, but the United Political Command did not meet again until March 1966. There were signs that this Iraqi Government preferred a looser relationship with Egypt to the integration favoured by Iraqi "Nasserists". Suspicions of Egyptian intentions were strengthened in June 1966 when Abdul Razzaq attempted a second *coup*, which also failed but which provided evidence of Egyptian complicity.

President Nasser took an important initiative in Arab League affairs following the announcement by Israel in 1963 of her intention to take water for irrigation purposes from the River Jordan where it runs through Lake Tiberias. Neighbouring Arab states had for a number of years refused to agree, on political grounds, to the planned use of the Jordan waters and Israel had proceeded unilaterally with a major irrigation project. At President Nasser's invitation a conference of Arab heads of state met in Cairo in January 1964 to discuss what should be done to counter the Israeli move. This Arab summit conference recommended Arab diversion of the Jordan headwaters, and at the same time agreed that Arab states should follow a policy of "live and let live" among themselves.

A second Arab summit meeting, held in Alexandria in September 1964, decided that a dam should be built on the Yarmuk River, a tributary of the Jordan forming the border between Jordan and Syria, and an irrigation scheme developed in Jordan. A fund would be established to strengthen the *armies of Syria, the Lebanon and Jordan* over the next five years against possible Israeli reprisals. The U.A.R., Saudi Arabia, Libya, Morocco and the Yemen were to make annual financial contributions for this purpose and the three armies were to have a unified command under the Egyptian General Ali Amer, although movement across the frontiers of friendly states was not to be an

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automatic right. A further £1 million was set aside for the formation of a Palestine Liberation Organization.

The Arab reconciliation and presentation of a united front lasted until the spring of 1965. Iraq, Kuwait, Yemen (Republic), Algeria and the Lebanon continued to follow President Nasser's lead, only Syrian critics complaining that U.A.R. policy was not sufficiently anti-Israeli. U.A.R. relations with Jordan improved strikingly and, after a conference of heads of Arab governments in Cairo in January 1965 to discuss co-ordination of Arab policies, King Hussein, previously the object of U.A.R. attacks and derision, himself paid a visit to Cairo. State visits to Cairo were made by President Bourguiba of Tunisia in February and King Hassan of Morocco in March. Only King Faisal of Saudi Arabia remained aloof, seeing the presence of Egyptian troops in the Yemen, in support of the republicans in the civil war which had begun in 1962, as evidence of U.A.R. expansionism and a threat to the Saudi position as the dominant power in the Arabian peninsula.

The general atmosphere of cordiality was shattered in April 1965 by President Bourguiba who criticized Arab policy on Israel as unrealistic and suggested negotiation with Israel on the basis of the 1947 UN partition plan (which would have involved Arab recognition of Israel, Israeli withdrawal to the borders proposed in the plan and the return of the Palestinian Arab refugees). This was attacked by the U.A.R. as a betrayal of the agreement at Alexandria in 1964 that the Arabs should work in concert. Further statements by President Bourguiba, who was not supported on this issue by any other Arab state, were followed by riots in Cairo and Tunis and the breaking of diplomatic relations with U.A.R.

At the third Arab summit conference, at Casablanca in September 1965, President Nasser found himself on the defensive, in the face of charges made by President Bourguiba (who did not attend the conference) of attempting to dominate the Arab world and interfering in the internal affairs of other Arab states. The conference re-emphasized the need for Arab solidarity and called upon Arab countries not to interfere in each other's domestic affairs by encouraging subversive movements or by attacks in the press.

In the Yemen, despite Egyptian support, the republican regime seemed no closer to victory over the royalists, who held the mountainous regions of the north-east and were assisted by Saudi Arabian finance and supplies of arms. This military stalemate and the financial burden of maintaining some 50,000 troops in the Yemen moved President Nasser to attempt to disengage. On August 24th, 1965, after a two-day conference at Jeddah, he and King Faisal reached agreement on a peace plan to end the civil war. A cease-fire was to be declared immediately, a national conference of Yemeni leaders was to meet to form a provisional government, Saudi Arabia was to cease supplying arms to the royalist forces, and Egyptian troops were to be withdrawn by November 1966.

The conference of republicans and royalists at

Haradh in November 1965 ended in deadlock, however, owing to republican intransigence, and the Egyptian troops remained in the Yemen. On February 22nd, 1966, the day the British Government announced that British forces would leave Aden and South Arabia when that territory became independent in 1968, President Nasser stated that Egyptian troops would not be withdrawn until the revolution in the Yemen could "defend itself against the conspiracies of imperialism and reactionaries".

CHANGES OF INTERNATIONAL ALIGNMENT

The years 1964 and 1965 saw a deterioration of U.A.R. relations with the West and increasing dependence on the Soviet Union.

Relations with the United States were adversely affected by U.A.R. support for the Stanleyville rebels in the Congo during the winter of 1964-65, and following the airlift of Belgian paratroops in U.S. aircraft in the Stanleyville rescue operation the U.S.I.S. library in Cairo was burned down. This led to an embargo by the U.S. Government on supplies of surplus wheat, badly needed by the U.A.R., from December until 1965. Diplomatic relations with Britain, already worsened by Egyptian encouragement of dissident elements in South Arabia, were severed by the U.A.R. in December 1965 over the Rhodesia issue, in common with eight other members of the Organization of African Unity. The new elasticity of Gaullist policy led to improved relations between the U.A.R. and France, however, and in 1965 official visits were exchanged and French financial aid was made available.

With West Germany relations deteriorated after the discovery of an arms agreement between that country and Israel. When in February 1965 the East German Premier, Herr Ulbricht, visited the U.A.R., where he was accorded full honours, West Germany reacted by stopping further economic aid to the U.A.R. and entering into diplomatic relations with Israel. In retaliation the U.A.R. broke off diplomatic relations with West Germany, as did the other Arab states except Libya, Morocco, and Tunisia, and in May 1965 agreed to establish diplomatic relations at consular level with East Germany. In June 1969 the relationship was elevated to full ambassadorial status.

Relations with the U.S.S.R. had been strengthened in May 1964 when the Soviet Premier, Nikita Khrushchev, made a sixteen-day visit to Egypt. The Egyptian and Soviet leaders, accompanied by President Arif of Iraq, attended the ceremony marking the completion of the first stage of the Aswan High Dam, being built with Soviet aid. President Nasser paid his third visit to the U.S.S.R. in August 1965 and (Khrushchev having been overthrown) the new Soviet Premier, Alexei Kosygin, visited the U.A.R. in May 1966, expressing support for U.A.R. policies and again demonstrating Soviet interest in the Middle East.

DOMESTIC TROUBLES

Although President Nasser obtained over 99 per cent of the votes cast in the presidential referendum

in March 1965, there were subsequently more signs of discontent in the U.A.R. than at any time since he had come to power. In a speech to Arab students during his visit to Moscow in August 1965 he disclosed that a plot against his life had been discovered. Widespread arrests were later made and changes in the Ministry of the Interior were announced. In the trials which followed, in which the accused included about 200 members of the banned Muslim Brotherhood, seven persons were sentenced to death, and many others to long terms of imprisonment, for plotting to assassinate Nasser and overthrow his government.

In September 1965 a new government headed by Zakaria Mohieddin replaced that of Ali Sabri, who became Secretary General of the Arab Socialist Union. Thereafter, administrative changes were made and the security system was tightened up. Taxation was increased and measures of retrenchment were introduced because of increasing economic difficulties, particularly the acute shortage of foreign exchange. United States wheat supplies were continued, credits from France, Japan and Italy and a loan from Kuwait were obtained and there were increased drawings from the International Monetary Fund. Nevertheless the level of imports, particularly food to feed the growing population, and the debt service burden resulting from the first five-year plan caused a continuing drain on foreign exchange reserves and the U.A.R. faced a balance of payments crisis. A mission from the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, which visited Cairo in January 1966, subsequently made recommendations for stabilization and missions of Egyptian bankers and finance officials visited Western countries including Britain, to discuss credits and debt repayment. The second five year plan was revised and extended over seven years and President Nasser gave public warnings that sacrifices were necessary in every field as Egypt lacked the foreign currency to pay for imports. He refused, however, to abandon the expensive commitment in the Yemen. Zakaria Mohieddin's replacement in September 1966 by Sidki Soliman (a technocrat who retained his post as Minister of the High Dam) was seen as the outcome of disagreement over retrenchment measures. When the U.A.R. defaulted on repayments due to the International Monetary Fund in December 1966, the country was seen to be on the verge of bankruptcy.

WIDENING RIFT WITH SAUDI ARABIA

The year 1966 saw a rapprochement between the U.A.R. and Syria. A trade, payments and technical co-operation agreement was concluded in July and on November 4th a five-year joint defence agreement was signed. This provided for a joint defence council and a joint command, military operations being under the overall control of the U.A.R. Chief of Army General Staff and stated that armed aggression against either country would be considered as aggression against both.

The rift between the U.A.R. and Saudi Arabia widened. President Nasser in February 1966 expressed opposition to an Islamic grouping which King Faisal

was promoting and in the succeeding months propaganda warfare between the two countries was intensified. In the middle of the year the President gave notice that he would not attend an Arab summit conference with Saudi Arabia and Jordan, both of whom he stigmatized for obtaining British and United States military aid, and called for the indefinite postponement of the conference planned for September. A majority of Arab states agreed, but in October Tunisia broke off relations with the U.A.R. over continued differences on Arab League policies.

In the Yemen Egyptian forces had been withdrawn from northern and eastern areas and concentrated in the triangle between Sana'a, Hodeida and Taiz. Egyptian control over the republican armed forces and administration was increased and when in September 1966, after President Salal had returned to the Yemen from a year's absence in Cairo, the republican Prime Minister, Hassan al-Amri, and seven senior members of his cabinet visited Egypt to make a plea for greater independence, they were arrested and detained there. The following month about 100 senior Yemen officials were dismissed and arrests and executions were carried out.

In November 1966 Egyptian aircraft carried out raids on Saudi Arabian villages near the Yemen border. In January 1967, after air attacks with bombs and rockets on royalist-held areas in the Yemen, the village of Kitaf was bombed and over 100 deaths caused, allegedly, by poison gas.

February 1967 saw the closing of two Egyptian banks in Saudi Arabia and the seizure of Saudi property (including King Faisal's) in the U.A.R. In the same month, following President Nasser's accusation that Jordan and Saudi Arabia were "lackey and reactionary regimes" serving the interests of imperialism and allied with the Muslim Brotherhood in Egypt, the Jordanian ambassador was withdrawn from Cairo.

WAR WITH ISRAEL

The events of May 1967 were to transform the Middle East scene. There had been an increase of Syrian guerrilla activities in Israel during the previous six months and on April 7th the tension had led to fighting in the Tiberias area in which six Syrian aircraft had been shot down. Israeli warnings to the Syrian Government culminating on May 12th in the threat by Premier Eshkol of severe reprisals if terrorist activities were not controlled, evoked Syrian allegations that Israel was about to mount a large scale attack on Syria. President Nasser, who had been reproached for not aiding Syria in the April fighting in accordance with the mutual defence agreement, responded immediately, moving large numbers of troops to the Israel border. He secured the dissolution of the UN Emergency Force, whose presence on the Egyptian side of the frontier depended on Egyptian permission and re-occupied the gun emplacement at Sharm el Sheikh on the Straits of Tiran. He later justified these steps by claiming that he had received Syrian and Soviet warnings that Israeli troops were concentrated on the Syrian border (an allegation

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subsequently disproved by reports of UN truce observers) and an invasion of Syria was imminent.

When on May 23rd President Nasser closed the Straits of Tiran to Israeli shipping, thereby effectively blockading the Israeli port of Eilat, his prestige in the Arab world reached an unparalleled height. Britain and the United States protested that the Gulf of Aqaba was an international waterway; Israel regarded the blockade of the Straits as an unambiguous act of war. A British attempt to produce a declaration by the maritime powers on freedom of passage through the Straits met with little enthusiasm when it became clear that only by force would the blockade be lifted. As tension increased, with frequent belligerent pronouncements from Arab leaders and the threat by President Nasser that any aggressive act by Israel would lead to an all-out battle in which the Arab aim would be Israel's destruction, King Hussein of Jordan concluded a mutual defence pact with the U.A.R. which was immediately joined by Iraq. Gestures of support were made to Nasser by all Arab leaders, including President Bourguiba and King Faisal.

On the morning of June 5th Israel launched large-scale air attacks on Egyptian, Jordanian, Syrian and Iraqi airfields and Israeli ground forces made rapid advances into the Gaza Strip, Sinai and western Jordan; there was also fighting on the Israeli-Syrian border. The outcome was decided within hours by the air strikes, which destroyed the bulk of the Arab air forces, and the Israeli ground forces were everywhere successful. By June 10th, when all participants had accepted the UN Security Council's call for a cease-fire, Israeli troops were in control of the Sinai peninsula as far as the Suez Canal (including Sharm el Sheikh), the west bank of the Jordan (including the Old City of Jerusalem), the Gaza Strip and Syrian territory extending twelve miles from the Israel border. The Suez Canal was blocked by Egypt in the course of the fighting, and Britain and the United States were falsely accused by President Nasser and King Hussein of giving air support to Israel. The allegation was withdrawn by King Hussein a few days later but not before an embargo had been applied by the oil-producing Arab states against Britain and the United States, and also the Federal Republic of Germany.

On June 9th, the day after he had accepted the cease-fire, President Nasser announced his resignation in a speech in which he assumed full responsibility for the nation's plight, but the following day, in response to huge street demonstrations of popular support, he agreed to continue in office. A number of senior army officers were immediately replaced and on June 19th Nasser took over the duties of Prime Minister and Secretary-General of the Arab Socialist Union.

The implications of the catastrophe were only gradually realized. It was estimated that the loss of revenue from the Suez Canal, from oil produced in Sinai and from tourism amounted to some £12.5 million a month, or almost half Egypt's foreign currency earnings. Also, the withdrawal of a large part of the Egyptian force in the Yemen reduced Nasser's ability to influence affairs both in that

country and in Aden and South Arabia (which became independent as the Republic of Southern Yemen on November 30th, 1967, after the withdrawal of British troops).

The Soviet Union, which had given the Arab cause strong verbal support throughout the crisis, continued to take a strong pro-Arab stand at the United Nations and President Podgorny paid a lengthy visit to Cairo to discuss future Egyptian policy. Although the Soviet resolutions were rejected in both the Security Council and the General Assembly, Soviet assistance took the more concrete form of quickly replacing about half the lost Egyptian aircraft and providing other military supplies. By the end of October it was estimated that about 2,500 Russian military instructors had been sent to Egypt. Despite this military aid, Soviet leaders seemed anxious to discourage hopes of a resumption of hostilities, however. Further economic assistance was also offered by the Soviet Union and in May 1968 an agreement was announced for the construction of a steel complex at Helwan.

Israel demanded direct negotiations with the Arab states for a peace settlement but the fourth conference of Arab heads of state, held in Khartoum at the end of August 1967, decided against recognition or negotiation with Israel. At this conference, in which Syria did not participate, it was agreed that the embargo on oil supplies to Western countries should be lifted, that the Suez Canal should remain closed until Israeli forces were withdrawn, and that Saudi Arabia, Kuwait and Libya should give special aid of £95 million a year to the U.A.R. (and also £40 million a year to Jordan) until the "effects of the aggression" were eliminated. King Faisal and President Nasser announced their agreement on a peace plan for the Yemen under which Egyptian troops were to be withdrawn within three months and Saudi Arabia was to stop supplying the royalists; the withdrawal was subsequently completed by December (and President Sallal was deposed by republican leaders in November).

In October, following repeated violations of the cease-fire by both Egyptian and Israeli forces in the Suez Canal area, Egyptian patrol boats sank the Israeli destroyer *Eilat* off the Sinai coast; Israel replied with an artillery bombardment of Egyptian oil refineries and other installations at Suez, causing such extensive damage that Egyptian oil had to be sent to Aden to be refined. The Security Council condemned all violations of the cease-fire and on November 22nd adopted a British resolution laying down principles for a just and lasting peace in the Middle East and authorizing the appointment of a special UN representative to assist in bringing about a settlement. Mr. Gunnar Jarring was appointed the following day and subsequently had separate discussions with Israeli and Arab leaders, including President Nasser, which continued at various times throughout 1968 and into 1969.

U.A.R. AFTER THE JUNE WAR

Meanwhile President Nasser faced daunting economic difficulties and a disturbed political situation in

Egypt An austerity budget had been framed in July 1967. The cost of re-equipping the armed forces forced a cut in investment, in spite of Soviet aid and assistance from other Arab governments. Socialist policies were still followed, as was shown by the decision to nationalize the wholesale trade, announced in October. The continuing shortage of foreign exchange made desirable an improvement in the U.A.R.'s relations with the West and in December diplomatic relations with Britain were resumed. A bridging loan from British, West German and Italian banks, obtained in February 1968, enabled the U.A.R. to make the repayments to the International Monetary Fund which had been due since the end of 1966, and in March the IMF approved further drawings. Another hopeful development was the increased production of oil from Egyptian oilfields, which made up for the loss of Sinai.

As a result of the military débâcle the Egyptian army was subjected to major reorganization, involving the dismissal of large numbers of officers. The reaction of Field-Marshal Abdel Hakim Amer was to plan a *coup d'état*, but his intentions became known. His arrest, together with other senior army officers, on August 30th was followed by the arrests of a former Minister of the Interior, Abbas Radwan and the chief of the central intelligence department. The suicide of Amer was announced by the U.A.R. Government on September 15th. At the end of October senior officers of the air force were put on trial and in February 1968 the former air force commander was imprisoned for fifteen years, other senior air force officers also received prison sentences. In January 1968 the armed forces supreme command was reorganized.

Widespread demonstrations of students and workers took place in Cairo, Helwan and other main centres, towards the end of February. Initially, in protest at the leniency of sentences on air force officers, they revealed widespread popular disillusion and discontent to a degree unprecedented since the revolution of 1952. A number of persons were killed in clashes with police and the universities were closed, nevertheless President Nasser realized the need for immediate conciliatory action. Retrials were ordered and sweeping cabinet changes announced, a number of civilian experts in various fields being brought in. Ali Sabry, who had been reinstated as Secretary-General of the Arab Socialist Union in January, was also included but Zakaria Mohieddin left the government. President Nasser continued to exercise the functions of Prime Minister.

On March 30th President Nasser announced a new plan for building a modern state in Egypt based on democracy, science and technology. The single party would remain but there would be free elections from top to bottom of the Arab Socialist Union and changes were promised among leaders in all spheres. An announcement of the distribution to the people of land taken over by the state or reclaimed was made on April 6th. In a plebiscite on May 2nd the "Declaration of March 30th" was overwhelmingly approved. The first Arab Socialist Union elections were held in June, the 75 000 persons chosen then elected a national

congress in July, this in turn chose a central committee which then chose the party's higher executive. These proceedings however, did not appear to arouse much public interest. President Nasser dissolved the U.A.R. National Assembly on November 14th and elections for a new Assembly were held on January 8th 1969.

November 1968 saw further student riots, resulting in many injuries and some deaths, in Alexandria and Mansoura. The universities were again closed. Although these disturbances were officially attributed to the activities of an Israeli agent arrested by the police and to indignation at the continued occupation of Sinai by Israeli forces, they were seen by many observers as further evidence of frustration with the restrictions imposed by President Nasser's government and of disillusion with its performance, particularly in relation to Israel. Moreover, in uncertain health, his popularity diminished, the President appeared in 1968 to be increasingly isolated and exposed.

Deprived of foreign exchange by the continued closure of the Canal and the drop in the tourist trade, the U.A.R. remained dependent on the regular aid payments from Saudi Arabia, Kuwait and Libya and on Soviet assistance, both humiliating to a people strongly nationalist in outlook. There were signs that the civilian economic ministers favoured some relaxation of over-rigid state control in industry and more encouragement of private enterprise and foreign investment. Military expenditure in 1968 and 1969 remained high. Soviet arms deliveries continued, as also did the presence of about 3 000 Russian military advisers and instructors.

Two heavy exchanges of artillery fire across the Suez Canal in September and October 1968, reportedly begun by U.A.R. forces in an effort to raise Egyptian morale, were followed by an Israeli airborne commando raid some 230 kilometres north of Aswan in which a bridge over the Nile and an important transformer station at Nagh Hammadi were seriously damaged. The oil refinery at Suez, shelled by Israeli guns in October 1967, remained out of action and the greater part of the population of Suez, Ismailia and Port Said were evacuated. Despite these reverses the U.A.R. Government showed little sign of changing its stance on the Arab-Israeli question. Even if it had wished to do so it would have been hampered by the popular support shown in Egypt and elsewhere in the Arab world for the Palestinian guerrillas, the fedayeen, whose activities against Israel were attracting much publicity. In fact, in a speech to the National Assembly on January 20th, 1969, President Nasser said that the U.A.R. unconditionally placed its resources at the disposal of the fedayeen.

The efforts of Dr. Jarring, the representative of the UN Secretary-General, to bring Israel, the U.A.R. and Jordan closer together had, by the end of 1968, yielded little success. In April 1969, following initiatives by the U.S.S.R. and France, those two countries together with Britain and the United States, as permanent members of the Security Council, began talks at the United Nations in New York in an attempt to promote a settlement. These talks, after a recess

between July and December 1969, were resumed in December 1969, but no settlement was reached.

In December 1969 President Nasser attended an Arab Summit meeting at Rabat, the capital of Morocco. Differences between the Arab leaders hindered collaboration and the meeting ended without any communiqué being issued. After the ending of the summit meeting President Nasser met the leaders of Libya and the Sudan in Tripoli, and at later talks in Cairo produced plans for military and economic co-operation between the three countries. In February 1970 President Nasser met with the leaders of Jordan, Syria, Sudan and Iraq in Cairo, where they affirmed anew "their determination to liberate violated Arab territories".

Against the background of these developments, artillery exchanges across the Suez Canal began again in March and April 1969. Two Egyptian commando raids on Israeli positions were made in April and were followed by another, less successful, Israeli raid on bridges, the barrage and transmission lines in the Nagh Hammadi area. This pattern of sporadic action involving artillery duels, commando raids and also air combat continued throughout 1969 and into 1970, with growing Soviet involvement in Egypt's defence. In the summer of 1970 the U.S. Secretary of State, Mr. William Rogers, put forward a set of proposals for solving the continuing Middle East crisis. After lengthy negotiations and a visit by President Nasser to Moscow, both Egypt and Israel agreed to a 90 day cease-fire in August, 1970. Talks between the U.A.R. and Jordan on the one hand and Israel on the other began later in August in New York under the guidance of the UN mediator Gunnar Jarring. They soon broke down following accusations from both sides of violations of the cease-fire agreement, but despite this the cease-fire was renewed, on its expiry, for another three months. In February it was renewed for only thirty days, and at the beginning of March the U.A.R. allowed it to lapse altogether. But fighting did not break out again. Although Egypt began preparing for war, and, for example, formed a military union with Syria, she also maintained her diplomatic efforts to secure a basis for peace negotiations, which in the spring and summer of 1971 centred on various proposals for reopening the Suez Canal as a first step to a settlement.

By then a number of important political changes had taken place in the U.A.R. and Palestine. The

Palestinian guerrilla movements had been subdued in Jordan in September. Although President Nasser had had his differences with them over their rejection of the U.S. peace proposals and the hijackings of the western airliners at the beginning of September, one of his last acts was to secure agreement in Cairo between King Hussein and Yassir Arafat for an end to the fighting between the Jordanian army and the guerrillas. Nasser's death made it easier for the Jordanian Government to proceed with crushing the remaining commando bases throughout the rest of 1970 and the first half of 1971.

By mid-1971 also President Sadat was firmly in control of the government of Egypt, and had gone some way to filling the enormous gap which the death of President Nasser on September 28th, 1970 inevitably created in the leadership of the Arab world. A close associate of Nasser and Vice-President at the time, Anwar Sadat was immediately appointed provisional President by the Cabinet and Party, and was later elected President in a national referendum. In November President Sadat (whose mother is Sudanese) agreed to the federation of the U.A.R. with Sudan and Libya. Sudan, however, later postponed her membership of a union, and it was Syria who in April became the third member of the federation. The terms initially proposed for the federation were subjected to lengthy debate by the Arab Socialist Union Central Committee and had later in the month to be amended with the approval of the other two states. The federation proposals together with Sadat's plan for the reopening of the canal precipitated a crisis in the leadership which led to a comprehensive purge by Sadat of opponents at all levels of the government. Ali Sabri, one of the two Vice-Presidents, was the first to go, on May 2nd, just before U.S. Secretary of State, William Rogers, arrived in Cairo. Sabri had strong pro-Moscow leanings, and apparently opposed the reopening of the canal. On May 13th President Sadat, convinced of an impending coup, dismissed six other ministers. Important party and National Assembly members were also dismissed. In July new elections were held not only for all levels of the party, but also for trade unions and professional bodies. In addition a committee set up to draft a permanent state constitution was due to submit proposals to a national referendum during August.

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ECONOMIC SURVEY

The Egyptian economy has been functioning under war conditions since 1967. Temporary measures taken to deal with the emergency have gradually turned into permanent fixtures. The Suez Canal remains closed. Sinai, with its oil fields, remains under enemy occupation. The important urban centres of Port Said, Ismailia, Suez, Port Fuad and Port Tewfik have had to be evacuated after suffering much damage from enemy shelling. Vital economic targets such as the refineries and petro-chemical complex at Suez and power transmission lines have been hit. An internal refugee problem has developed in the Canal area. Tourism is at a low ebb and expenditure on the war effort constrains that on development.

The new difficulties coming on top of chronic economic ills would have crippled the economy were it not for the emergence of a number of unforeseen factors. These include generous aid from communist countries with whom trade ties have strengthened still further. Some promising oil discoveries made in co-operation with western interests. Direct financial assistance from the oil-rich countries of Kuwait, Libya and Saudi Arabia and perhaps also higher efficiency inspired by the atmosphere of emergency.

In normal circumstances official data about the economy tended to lag one or two years behind events and for obvious reasons the lag has been growing wider. However, in spite of the present unsettled conditions the U.A.R. economy shows many structural features which are unlikely to undergo fundamental change except over the long run and these receive special attention in the present survey.

GENERAL

The total area of the U.A.R. is about 1 000 000 square km, but 96 per cent of the country is desert. With no forested land and hardly any permanent meadows or pastures the arable land available is greatly over-crowded. Relating the population numbering 33.3 million in 1970 to the uninhabited area, a density of 956 persons per square km emerges (nearly 5.5 persons per acre of arable land) representing one of the highest man/land ratios in the world. At the root of Egypt's poverty lies its expanding population which advances at about 2.6 per cent annually. (Only recently did the government decide to launch a major campaign for birth control.) In 1966, according to figures published by the IMF, income per head was £E82 equivalent to \$189.

Despite this low level of income, certain aspects of the Egyptian economy indicate a relative state of advance but over population still tends somewhat to neutralize the effects of social and economic progress. Among the comparatively advanced areas of the Egyptan economy are the infra structure of communications, the irrigation system, public administration and education. Although the illiteracy rate remains high (the 1960 population census showed an illiteracy rate of 69.7 per cent among people of over

ten years of age) both secondary and higher education are quite developed and Egypt is a net exporter of skills especially to other Arab countries. The diet of the average Egyptian is poor and contains little animal protein but average calorie intake exceeds requirements by a comfortable margin. During the 1978-39 period when the Egyptian pound was tied to sterling and a fairly free trade policy was being pursued, manufacturing industry had little chance of developing and agricultural production though expanding could not keep up with the rapidly rising population. A gradual deterioration of living standards set in. This trend did not change direction until the immediate post war period when cotton prices improved. These reached their greatest heights during the Korean boom of 1951-52 when soft currency cotton including Egyptian cotton enjoyed high premia over dollar-cotton. But the collapse of the boom, the easing up of the world dollar scarcity and the beginning of American subsidization of cotton exports in the mid fifties marked a turning point in raw cotton terms of trade which until quite recently showed a declining trend.

The regime which assumed power in 1952 and ended the monarchy gave urgent attention to Egypt's economic problems. Its policies included measures of agrarian reform, land reclamation, the High Dam and a programme of industrialization which was accelerated in 1960 by the formation of a comprehensive social and economic development plan.

Egypt's first five year plan aimed at increasing real national income by 40 per cent between 1960 and 1965, this being advertised as the first lap of a ten year programme to double real national income by 1970. The five-year growth target was virtually fulfilled so that the second lap was initially replaced by a more ambitious plan to double real income in seven years (i.e. by 1972). Lack of finance however frustrated this new plan and after two years of uncertainty a three year accomplishment plan beginning July 1967 was proclaimed. This was to aim at a target growth rate of 5 per cent per annum (compared with 7.2 per cent under the first five year plan) with a total investment of £E1 085 million (against £E1 513 million in 1960-65) and would concentrate on completing projects already started rather than initiating new ones. This plan was dropped as a result of the 1967 war and has been substituted by annual development appropriations (£E320 million in 1968-69 and £E350 million in 1969-70). Apart from a few select new projects the whole emphasis of Egyptian planning has turned towards rationalizing the existing industries and introducing incentives to improve their performance. Late in 1969 however a five year plan covering the period 1970-75 was outlined with total investments of £E2 500 million.

The development budget for 1971-72 was set at £E345 million and was presented as a means to raise GDP in real terms by 5 per cent. At the time it was announced that £E1 462.8 million had been allocated

for the development of manufacturing industry in the public sector during the period 1970-75.

In the present conditions of warfare it is difficult to forecast the future development of the Egyptian economy (or indeed of the economies of the whole Middle East). Without the Palestinian conflict, the Egyptian economy, which has often shown unexpected resilience in the past, would have come very near to realizing self-sustained growth by the end of the present decade. Besides the large scale waste of resources, the conflict may well lead to the development of a new ideology in the entire area.

AGRICULTURE

Under the impact of industrialization the structure of the Egyptian Economy has been changing, and the relative contribution of agriculture to the domestic product, once predominant has been declining. According to the Egyptian Ministry of Planning, in 1965-66 agriculture generated 29.5 per cent of GDP, industry and mining 22.3 per cent, electricity and construction 5.6 per cent, communications and storage 9.5 per cent, and other services 33.1 per cent. In some respects, however, agriculture remains the leading sector of the economy, employing about 60 per cent of the labour force and earning, through cotton exports, most of the country's foreign exchange.

The entire arable land available is just under 6 million feddans (one feddan=1.038 acres). The extension of this area through reclamation has been slow difficult and costly. The increasing pressure of people on the land has led to an intensification of cultivation almost without parallel anywhere. Dams, barrages, pumps and an intricate network of canals and drains (in 1960 there were 25,000 km. of canals and 13,000 km. of drains) bring perennial irrigation to almost the whole area. The strict pursuit of crop rotation, lavish use of commercial fertilizer and pesticides, and the patient application of manual labour, not only make multiple cropping possible, but also raise land yields to exceptionally high levels. In 1969 the IBRD agreed to provide a long-period low-interest loan of \$25 million to finance the construction of 15 new draining stations sustaining a system of covered drains to serve an area of 40,000 feddans in the delta.

As the yields of land are already very high, increased use of manual labour, or practically any other means of production with the exception of land, encounters rapidly diminishing returns. Since the expanding industrial sector, with its use of modern capital intensive techniques, can offer relatively few opportunities for increased employment, the incidence of both unemployment and under-employment in the economy at large is likely to grow as the economy advances, at least for some time. In spite of the steady flow of workers from agriculture to the cities (where 40 per cent of the population lived in 1966, and where employment is far from full), agriculture is still suffering from a surfeit of unnecessary labour. In 1959-60 the Planning Commission estimated that out

of a total of 4,220,000 persons engaged in agriculture (excluding dependent female labour), no less than 975,000 were completely redundant. The growth of redundant labour is a constant threat to labour productivity, not only in agriculture, but also in manufacturing industry and service activity. Emigration out of Egypt has recently intensified, but the number of people involved (several thousands every year) is relatively small. The emigrants, however, tend to be highly qualified professionals whom the economy can ill afford to lose.

The bulk of agricultural production is intended for the market place and not for subsistence. Nearly three-quarters of agricultural income comes from field crops, the remainder deriving from fruit, vegetables, livestock and dairy products. Long-staple cotton is the most important field crop; it absorbs a great deal of the available labour, occupies about a quarter of the arable land and provides up to 40 per cent of the value of field crops and 50-60 per cent of the proceeds of visible exports. Rice is another important crop which occupies an increasing area (1.3 million feddans or 546,000 hectares in 1968) with improving yields. In 1968 2,586 million tons of rice were cropped and 546,000 tons exported at a value of £E44.9 million. By 1969 Egypt had become the world's fourth largest rice exporter with exports amounting to 772,300 tons valued at £E55.3 million or 17 per cent of all exports. Other grain crops grown include wheat, maize, millet and barley, of which in 1969 production amounted to 1.3 million tons, 2.4 million tons, 0.8 million tons and 0.1 million tons, respectively. Population pressure has resulted in Egypt becoming a net importer of cereals, mostly wheat, cereals and milling products imported in 1969 cost £E39.8 million.

Another high-yielding crop is sugar-cane (6.1 million tons were produced on an area of 155,000 feddans in 1968), which feeds an expanding sugar industry, supplying the bulk of the national requirements. Other crops include lucerne, a nitrogen-fixing fodder, beans, potatoes and onions. The last two crops, in particular, have become significant export items (onions and garlic brought in £E9.5 million in export proceeds in 1969). The many kinds of fruits, vegetables and horticultural products grown are capable of great expansion and are potentially important as exports. (In 1968 nearly 600,000 tons of citrus fruits were produced.) Recently attention has been given to animal breeding in an attempt to raise dairy and meat production. Egypt has become a net importer of meats, and since June 1967 meat consumption has been restricted.

Egypt is the world's principal producer of long-staple cotton, followed by Sudan and Peru. Many factors combine to give the high yields and excellent quality of Egyptian cotton. Among these should be mentioned climatic, soil and labour conditions, and a long experience with careful planting, watering and picking. Government assistance, which has increased of late, has always been important. The development of new varieties, seed distribution, area selection, timing of farm operations and marketing are all carried out

under strict government supervision. Fertilizers and pesticides have long been distributed through the government sponsored Agricultural Credit Bank, lately converted into a public organization, more recently this task has been undertaken by government administered agricultural co-operatives which are multiplying and expanding their area of activity. By 1963 all the cotton ginning industry and the cotton exporting business had been nationalized. The cotton exchanges were closed and the government guarantees prices to regulate internal trade. A public organization for cotton has been set up to regulate all aspects of cotton growing, marketing and manufacturing. Total cotton exports in 1969-70 (season beginning August) were 1,469,000 bales (of 478 lb net each), and the value of raw cotton exports in 1969 was £E130.7 million, equivalent to some 43 per cent of total export proceeds. Estimated production in 1970-71 is 2.35 million bales—the same as in the previous season—equivalent to about 43 per cent of world production. Yields per acre 709 lb in 1969-70 compared with 441 in the United States.

Egypt produces about 40 per cent of the world crop of long-staple cotton (1½ in and longer) although this latter percentage fell to 33 in 1969-70. Demand for this type of cotton has been shifting away towards man made fibres, a fact which has tended to weaken Egypt's previous position of pre-eminence, and consequently the premium Egyptian cotton commanded over rival cottons. In the past the government attempted to reduce cotton production to gain monopoly profits in the export markets but the result was a drastic loss in market shares. Consequently all restrictions on cotton cultivation have been abandoned save for rotational purposes and for safeguarding food supplies. For many years the government has operated a system of price supports and the farmers find cotton cultivation highly profitable. The shortage of land, however, together with the increasing requirements of the domestic textile industry (190,000 tons in 1968-69 or 44 per cent of production) set a limit on the quantity available for export. It is noteworthy that average annual exports of raw cotton from Egypt have remained roughly constant over the trend since the turn of the century when population was less than a third of its present level.

About half of Egypt's cotton exports has gone to Communist countries in recent years under various bilateral agreements. This proportion dropped suddenly in 1967/68 (to 38 per cent) possibly to allow Egypt to earn foreign exchange in the West, but went back to 47.4 per cent in 1968-69. Egyptian preference for trading with the Western countries with which Egypt has a balance of payments deficit has tended to be frustrated by a number of factors, including U.S. trade restrictions (on raw cotton imports), the decline of the high grade sections of the European cotton industries, political considerations and shortage of finance. The availability of credits (to finance imports) from the Communist countries and the flexibility with which these countries conduct their relations with the U.A.R., have also tended to divert Egyptian foreign trade eastward.

AGRARIAN REFORM

Immediately after the Egyptian Revolution of 1952 an experiment was started of land reform which has been quite successful. Among other measures, a limit of 200 feddans was imposed on individual ownership of land. This limit was lowered to 100 feddans in 1961 and again to 50 feddans in 1969. The primary aim of this reform was the destruction of the feudal power of the old politicians, an aim which was easily realized. In 1952, 58 per cent of all landowners held 64.5 per cent of the total area, but only a quarter of the national acreage (some 1.5 million feddans) was in plots of over 100 acres each. By 1961, however, this area had dwindled to about 1 million feddans, nearly all of which has been appropriated by the Ministry of Agrarian Reform and redistributed to landless peasants. The 1969 land reform has affected a further 1.13 million feddans owned by some 16,000 landowners. All three stages of land reform therefore have caused the redistribution of 40 per cent of all land, leaving unchanged the main ownership structure of the remaining 60 per cent. Other measures of agrarian reform included rent control, the regulation of land tenure, consolidation of fragmented holdings for production purposes, and the drive to build co-operatives. Under government supervision both the number and activities of agricultural co-operatives increased. By 1963 there were 4,897 such co-operatives (compared with 1,727 in 1952) which offered more than £E46 millions in loans to 920,000 borrowers. The value of services provided by the agrarian reform co-operatives (set up to help the recipients of land under the land reform programme) increased more than fivefold between 1958 and 1965 and the activities provided covered the supply of seeds, sacks, fertilizer, insecticides and pest control machinery. However, co-operatives have not been a complete success since they readily lent themselves to corruption. Also in the process of dispossessing the large landowners and promoting co-operatives, the authorities unwittingly helped to eliminate many highly efficient medium-sized farmers. On balance, however, the redistribution of land was accompanied by improved land productivity and not the reverse. It is necessary to bear in mind the fact that since land reform affected only about one-sixth of the total land, the main structure of land-ownership remained unaffected, in 1965 54 per cent of the owners still held 49.3 per cent of the land while 94.6 per cent of the owners shared the other half. But the average ownership of the first group was only 18.05 feddans, and the national average, 1.95 feddans. The fundamental land tenure problem was not so much one of distribution but an overall scarcity.

With this picture of obvious land shortage, it was natural that special attention be paid to increasing the arable area. In view of the fact that the land to be reclaimed is often arid desert, reclamation is a costly process requiring substantial capital outlays and the question has to be asked whether new investment should not be directed to the development of manu-

facturing industry instead, where returns to the scarce capital may well be higher.

THE HIGH DAM

The decision to invest more than £E400 million in the High Dam project (including initial Russian credits of £E113 million, supported more recently by another loan of £E81 million for the later stages) was, therefore, taken with an eye also on the development of cheap hydro-electric energy for industry. The project was started in January 1960, completed in July 1970, and officially inaugurated in January 1971. From 1964 onwards various parts of the project matured, but all work ceased when the last of the twelve turbines in the dam's power station had been installed. The station's generating capacity, at 10,000 million kWh., exceeds by a considerable margin the 6,012 million kWh. produced in all Egypt in 1967 mostly from thermal stations with some hydro-electric energy from the old Aswan dam. Transmission lines carry the current from the Dam site to Cairo and further north, and a major scheme aiming at the complete electrification of Egypt's villages has already started. The storage lake behind the dam, which is 500 km. long and 10 km. wide, is the centre of a developing fishing industry which is expected to replace the sardine catch in the Mediterranean, lost as a result of building the dam.

As much as 1,44,000 feddans were reclaimed annually in the period 1960-65; by 1972 another 1.2 million feddans are planned to be reclaimed and 700,000 feddans have already been converted from basin (i.e. cultivated once a year) to perennial irrigation. By 1980 a total of 465,000 feddans will have been reclaimed in the Nubariyya region including 300,000 feddans with Russian assistance. The Public Organisation for Desert Development is also carrying out an ambitious programme of land reclamation in the Western Desert with the help of underground water. Despite all these activities the man/land ratio is unlikely to improve in the foreseeable future in view of the rapid growth of population.

MANUFACTURING INDUSTRY

Excluding the early 19th century attempts at industrialization, the history of Egypt's manufacturing industry may be said to begin with World War I. Isolation and increased demand gave rise then to a number of small-scale industries, but many of these had to close down in the face of foreign competition during the 1920s when international trade was resumed. When the commercial treaties holding Egypt to a virtually free-trade policy came to an end in 1930, a protective tariff was established to give shelter to a widening spectrum of nascent industry. The establishment of Bank Misr, and the group of companies it supported in the twenties, coincided with a rising tide of Egyptian nationalism and it became patriotic to buy Egyptian industrial products. A number of manufacturing industries, mainly catering for domestic consumption and with cotton textiles at their head, came to be established and grew rapidly.

On the eve of World War II local industry satisfied a substantial part of the domestic demand for textiles, cement, sugar, edible oils, soap and other consumer products. In 1937 industrial employment in establishments employing 10 persons and over totalled 155,000; two years later, however, the contribution of mining, manufacturing and public utilities to the national product was still only about 8 per cent.

The war greatly stimulated Egyptian industry which, in conditions of acute shortages, especially of equipment and raw materials, strove to meet the expanded demand. A wide variety of goods came to be produced and sometimes exported to neighbouring countries. Considerable expansion took place in the production of textiles, chemicals, building materials and processed foods, while entirely new industries sprang up, including rubber and pharmaceutical manufacturing. By 1947, and in spite of some decline in activity, industrial employment in establishments employing 10 persons and over had risen to 278,000. Industrial growth slowed down after the war owing to a period of relatively free trade, although industry was immensely encouraged by the opening up of foreign sources of machinery. Industrial production continued to expand, however, and in 1951 it reached about 140 per cent of its level in 1938. Throughout the decade of the fifties industrial production grew steadily at an average rate of about 7 per cent per annum, helped by the chronic deficit which developed in the balance of external payments. The exchange controls that have ruled during most of the post-war period have given Egyptian industry added protection. A great drive toward self-sufficiency after the Suez war resulted in an intensive industrialization programme which began tentatively in 1957, but was later incorporated in the first five-year economic and social development plan, 1960-65. In the six years from 1959-60 to 1965-66, gross value added by industry and mining rose, at constant prices, at an average rate of 9.5 per cent per annum.

In recent years manufacturing industry has been held back by lack of foreign exchange, and some excess capacity has resulted from shortages of spare parts and raw materials. An acute recess hit the industrial sector in the latter half of 1967, but recovery has been rapid since then. According to the Federation of Egyptian Industries the total value of industrial production (including mining and electricity) advanced from £E1,245 million in 1967 to £E1,383 million in 1968 and again to £E1,511 million in 1969 (current values throughout). On the basis of these figures the industrial sector grew at an average annual rate of over 10 per cent—probably the same in real terms as the wholesale price index actually fell—between 1967 and 1969. In 1969 34.1 per cent of the value of manufactured output was contributed by spinning and weaving, 32.3 per cent by food processing, 12.5 per cent by chemicals, 17.7 per cent by engineering industries and 3.4 per cent by building materials industries. In the second quarter of 1967 there were 2,288 industrial establishments employing 50 workers or more (about three times the number of these establishments in 1964) and their personnel totalled 524,400. The value added in these establishments

represented 94 per cent of all value added by manufacturing industry at the time. Official data for employment in 1967/68 indicate a work force of 866 700 in manufacturing industry 18 500 in electricity and 259 800 in construction. Employment in industrial activities in 1967/68 represented 14.9 per cent of total employment and 22.8 per cent of employment in commodity production. In terms of value added the industrial sector is roughly of the same order as the leading sector agriculture. In 1968/69 value added by agriculture amounted to £644.4 million whilst value added in the industrial sector was £598.4 million (£488.9 million manufacturing industry £27.8 million electricity and £81.7 million construction).

Under a long term agreement signed with the U.S.S.R. in 1964 the Russians are helping with the development of heavy industry and a new agreement was signed in early 1971 involving new finance of £160 million. These agreements cover an iron and steel complex at Helwan (to cost £300 million) a series of power based industries to utilise the electricity generated by the High Dam and the electrification of all 5 500 villages in Egypt by connecting them to the Dam's transmission network. A 200 000 ton/year ammonium nitrate fertilizer plant was inaugurated in May 1971 using gases generated in the coking unit of the steel mill.

OIL AND GAS

More than 60 per cent of the 130 000 barrels per day of crude petroleum produced in Egypt in 1966 originated in Sinai (mainly from the Belai on onshore and offshore fields) now under enemy occupation and said to be producing 90 000 b/d. Total Egyptian production outside Sinai in early 1971 had reached 420 000 b/d and was expected to rise to 480 000 b/d by early 1972. About 90 per cent of this production comes from the rich offshore field of Morgan in the Gulf of Suez operated by Gulf of Suez Petroleum Company (50 per cent Egyptian General Petroleum Corporation and 50 per cent Amoco UAR—a subsidiary of Standard Oil of Indiana). Some 30 000 b/d are produced by the General Petroleum Company from a number of small fields located on the western coast of the Gulf of Suez including Ras Gharib, Bahr Karim and Um el Yusr. A promising discovery late in 1966 the Alamein field has been developed by WEPCO (an equal partnership between Phillips and EGPC) but production which reached 43 000 b/d in early 1970 declined to about 30 000 b/d a year later. Near the Libyan border drilling continues mainly by Phillips which discovered the Umbaraka field. The latter which looked promising turned out to be a disappointment but a new discovery, Abu Gharadiq (which could be connected to the Alamein-Sidi Abdul Rahman pipeline) is believed to be potentially quite significant. Intensive search for oil continues with a production target of 1 million b/d by 1975 supported by a budget of £400 million in the period 1970-75. The search covers practically all of Egypt. Active drilling is taking place near the Siwa oasis with the help of Russian seismic tests and in the Gulf of

Suez in partnership with the Japanese. Trans World Petroleum has also acquired 20 000 sq km onshore and offshore in the Gulf of Suez and Amoco is exploring areas between Asyout and Minya in Upper Egypt.

The destruction of Egypt's main refineries at Suez has upset the balance between crude supply and products demand. The two defunct refineries with a total capacity of 144 000 b/d or 7.2 million tons/year were located where the bulk of crude was produced. With the Suez Canal closed the Morgan oil is too far from the Mex (near Alexandria) refinery with a capacity of only 65 000 b/d (3.25 million tons/year). In the last few years a two-way trade has developed with Egypt exporting crude and importing products although crude has also been imported (from Libya and the U.S.S.R.) to supplement Alamein production for use by the Mex refinery. Some products also are being exported.

Exploration for oil has revealed promising sources of gas. Associated gas at the Morgan fields is estimated to amount to 300 million cubic feet a day and this will be used either to make LPG or as an input for a petro-chemical complex. Natural gas has been discovered in various parts of the delta notably in the Abu Qir area (offshore as well as onshore) by Phillips (wells yielding 27 million and 7.8 million cubic feet a day respectively together with condensates). A joint ENI Egyptian gas strike near Abu Madi in 1970 is being developed for use as fuel by the large industrial centres in the north and west delta and a 750 000 tons a year fertilizer plant is also projected to make use of this gas.

The closure of the Suez Canal and the development of super tankers have led to the decision to construct a crude oil pipeline linking Suez to the Mediterranean near Alexandria. A consortium of European contractors led by the French company Batignolles have won the bidding for this \$210 million project which has been backed by offers of finance from Germany, France, Britain, Italy, Spain, the Netherlands and others. Discussions were held in mid 1971 in Cairo with the Samed contributors with the object of raising the capacity of the pipeline above the original 60 million tons/year either by doubling the line or enlarging the diameter from 42 to 48 inches.

FINANCE

Until World War I Egypt operated a kind of gold standard which was replaced by a sterling exchange standard in 1916. British Treasury bills came to be used as a cover to the Egyptian currency issued by the National Bank of Egypt then the bank of issue. The sterling connection was severed completely in 1947 and special arrangements were devised to liquidate Egypt's holdings of British securities representing wartime debts which had accumulated in Egypt's favour to the amount of £400 million. During most of the period when Egypt was on the sterling exchange standard and when most of Egypt's external trade was conducted in that currency movements of sterling in and out of the country corresponded with the state of the balance of trade and the whole level of internal

activity followed these movements. From July 1948 onwards, Egyptian government securities have complemented the gold reserves as currency backing, and Egypt has followed a policy of money management based on a separation between the balance of payments and domestic money supply. On the whole, however, the National Bank of Egypt pursued a rather conservative monetary policy which, together with running down foreign reserves to finance a continuous balance of payments deficit, resulted in relatively stable prices prevailing from the late forties until the early sixties. In 1960 the issue Department of the National Bank of Egypt was converted into the Central Bank of Egypt, which assumed all the functions of a central bank; the banking department under the name of the National Bank of Egypt became a commercial bank. All banks operating in Egypt were nationalized in 1961, and apart from the Central Bank, the Government sponsored Industrial Bank, three mortgage banks, and the *Crédit Agricole*, all other banks were amalgamated into five, and brought under the control of the Central Bank and a Public Organization for Banking which, however, was later abolished. In March 1964 the *Crédit Agricole* itself became a public organization: the Public Organization for Agricultural Credit and Co-operatives, and put under the supervision of the Ministry of Agriculture.

At mid-1967, according to a publication of the Central Bank of Egypt, there existed 455 branches of banks (including the *Crédit Agricole*) located throughout Egypt. The latter had 118 branches, the five commercial banks, between them, had 325 branches, the three mortgage banks 9 branches, and the industrial Bank 3.

Compared with an average rate of growth for the real economy of 5-7 per cent a year since the early 'sixties, money supply has been increasing on average by about 9 per cent a year. This has been coupled by a growing share in the economic life of the community of the public sector which has proved to be a great user of means of exchange. Many controls, public subsidies and an import surplus helped to keep the prices of essentials in check, however. In 1962, at the request of the IMF, the Egyptian pound was devalued (from a parity of \$2.838 prevailing since the September 1949 devaluation, along with sterling) to \$2.30; at the same time the bank rate was raised from 3 to 5 per cent. These traditional anti-inflationary devices, however, had little effect on effective demand and hence the balance of payments disequilibrium, since most of the credit created by the banking system was (and still is) for use by the public sector. At the end of 1963 the share of the public sector in the use of credit facilities amounted to 75.2 per cent of the total created in the entire economy. By the end of April 1971 this share had fallen to 68.0 per cent. As at the end of 1963, 43.3 per cent of total credit facilities granted, went to industry, 32.7 per cent to trade, 12.3 per cent to agriculture and 11.7 per cent to other activity. Spinning and weaving obtained 28.2 per cent of the credit used by industry, followed by construction and building at 17.2 per cent. Four years later the share of industry in total credit was 53.1 per cent, that of

trade 27.8 per cent, agriculture 7.6 per cent and other activities 11.5 per cent. Spinning and weaving obtained about a quarter of the credit used by industry, iron and steel and other metals about a fifth and each of construction and chemicals about a sixth. Since then money supply has accelerated, with much of the increase being in the form of a rise in currency in circulation.

Following the June War, a drastic curtailment in economic activity ensued, coupled with severe limitations on imports and the money issue. In the fiscal year July 1967 to June 1968 money supply retreated by about 3 per cent, and net currency in circulation by about 4 per cent, but both quantities resumed their upward trend afterwards, though less speedily than before. All this has been reflected in the movements of the price indices, which, as officially calculated, tend to underestimate price rises. Marked rises in prices occurred in the course of 1965 and 1966. During 1967 there was a decline in the rate of increase of wholesale prices and a fairly stable level of consumer prices. During 1968, wholesale prices actually declined but consumer prices registered a significant advance. Wholesale prices fell again by about 2 per cent in the course of 1969, but rose by 6 per cent in 1970. Consumer prices, on the other hand, rose by about 3 per cent in 1969 and by 8 per cent in 1970.

Egypt's national debt continues to mount, and its servicing has become a burden on current finance. In mid-1964 total internal debts amounted to £E927.4 million (of which £E232.0 million national and development loans, £E335.0 Treasury bills, £E100.0 loans for financing external debts) in addition to £E28.0 being government guaranteed bonds. In 1963-64 government budgetary allocations for servicing the Public Debt, both internal and external, totalled £E48.8 million. At mid-1966 Egypt's foreign debt was estimated at \$1,300 million. No later information on the national debt, its cost of servicing or an estimate of foreign indebtedness has been published since, but there are indications that all these magnitudes have risen over the past few years.

Beginning with the 1962-63 budget, a link was established between government finance and the development plan. Previously two annual budgets were drawn: a current budget and a development budget. With the growth of the public sector operations, the system introduced in 1962 sought to present the budgetary inter-relationships between the "Services Sector" (including health, education, defence etc.) and the "Business Sector", comprising public enterprises. With the 1968-69 budget, yet another new budgetary system was devised. The new system is claimed to present six separate budgets:

1. Current Services Budget.
2. Public Authorities Current Budget.
3. Economic Organisations Current Budget.
4. Special Finance Fund's Current Budget.
5. Investment Budget.
6. Capital Transfers Budget.

All these budgets, however, can be grouped together under two headings: recurrent and investment, with

the recurrent items covering (1) Services (2) Local Authorities and (3) Public Enterprises and the investment items classified as between (1), (2) and (3). Finally an account showing the sources of financing expenditure can show these as originating from 'Special Finance Fund (Arab support mainly), domestic and foreign loans taxes and surpluses of enterprises etc. In 1967/68 total public revenue was ££1 317.8 million (££763.4 million business budget and ££554.4 million services budget) and total public expenditure ££1 376.3 million (££702.4 million business and ££673.9 million services budget). Total current public expenditure in 1968-69 amounted to ££1 469.3 million and investment expenditure to ££298.2 million. In 1970-71 total current expenditure was set at ££1 285 million and investment expenditure at ££330 million. Included in that budget was ££350 million allocated for defence and civil defence.

FOREIGN TRADE AND PAYMENTS

Until quite recently when a limited degree of free-dom was allowed to private business all imports and exports have been carried out by or through the public sector and all earnings and disbursements of foreign exchange are subject to strict control. Nevertheless imports continued to outstrip exports until after the June 1967 war when a drastic reduction of the trade gap was achieved through a heroic effort. It should be mentioned that the external trade deficit has persisted without interruption for almost the whole of the past two decades. It was showing signs of increasing over time until approximately 1966. The deficit is significant of the fact that Egypt requires more from the outside world both for investment and current consumption than it can pay for by current exports and no practicable rate of exchange for the Egyptian pound is likely to restore long term equilibrium to the recent improvement of the trade balance will probably not last. The unusual surplus of ££17.4 million achieved in 1969 gave way to a deficit however small in 1970. The government keeps a constant vigil on all external payments permitting only the most essential imports but the pressure of population on resources helps to keep the balance of external payments in a critical state. The problem is unlikely to be solved without a breakthrough in the pattern of imports and exports which may be brought about by the development of the petroleum sector.

An official classification of the 1969 imports (which added up to ££277.3 million compared with ££289.6 million in 1968) shows that these were ££66.2 million foodstuffs (mainly cereals and milling products), ££26.0 million other consumer goods (largely tobacco textiles paper and pharmaceuticals) and ££185.0 million raw materials and capital goods (about a quarter mineral products a fifth chemical products 33 per cent machinery equipment and transport equipment).

Nearly 43 per cent of the total value of exports (££323.9 million in 1969) was made up of raw cotton (££130.7 million). Rice exports amounted to ££35.3

million and exports of cotton yarn and fabrics to ££32.3 million. Proceeds from exports of mineral and chemical products (cement petroleum products and crude phosphates and others) added up to ££23.8 million and the remainder of exports was largely agricultural produce.

Nearly half of the imports and a third of the exports are traded with communist countries. Trade with the Arab countries is small but growing under official encouragement. In 1968 U.A.R. exports to these countries reached ££27.3 million—about 10 per cent of total exports. There is normally a surplus on the current account of invisible trade which helps to reduce part of the deficit on merchandise trade. This surplus has turned into a deficit since the closure of the Suez Canal in June 1967 and the decline in tourist revenue. Canal dues received were ££86.2 million in 1965 ££95.3 million in 1966 and ££17.0 million in (the first five months of) 1967. Payments and receipts for shipping and insurance have been furiously balanced at about ££10 million each way. Interest and dividends acquired were ££7.1 million in 1969. In 1968 the servicing of foreign loans cost ££21.2 million compared with ££14.3 million in 1966. A considerable part of invisible earnings used to be spent by Egypt's over-extended embassies and offices abroad but this has been checked lately. Government expenditure abroad was ££35.5 million in 1965 ££32.3 million in 1966 ££29.0 million in 1967 and ££28.8 million in 1968. According to the Central Bank of Egypt the overall deficit on current transaction was ££125.5 million in 1967 compared with ££73.6 million in 1966 and ££110.0 million in 1965. In 1969 this became ££13.3 million.

Significant transfer payments on government account appeared on the credit side of the balance of payments in 1967 representing financial assistance contributed by the oil producing countries as agreed at the Arab summit conference in Khartoum. In September of that year. As figuring in the balance of payments this item was \$6 million in 1966 \$122 million in 1967 and \$251 million in 1968 and \$38 million in 1969. The total balance of current transactions and transfer payments was still negative in 1969 and this together with a small deficit on capital account was financed by small adjustments in reserves and IMF accounts.

For a long period previously little capital movement appeared in the Egyptian balance of payments but since the financial settlements with the Suez Canal Company the French and British Governments (in respect of nationalized property and war damage claims) the Sudan (regarding the redemption of Egyptian banknotes and coins circulating there and the flooding of land on building the High Dam) and other foreign countries large outgoing capital transfers have figured prominently. On the other hand credits obtained from Communist countries and to a lesser extent and for shorter terms from some Western countries and Japan have in recent years except for 1969 flowed inward and helped to finance much of the gap in current external payments. This can be seen from the capital movements in the next table.

BALANCE OF PAYMENTS ESTIMATES

(million U.S.\$)

	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969
<i>Balance of Goods and Services:</i>					
Trade balance	—392	—356	—360	—185	—226
Transportation (incl. Suez Canal)	205	217	106	— 3	— 6
Government	— 74	— 69	— 45	— 51	— 50
Other	— 1	23	1	— 9	— 21
	—262	—185	—298	—248	—303
<i>Transfers and Capital Movements:</i>					
Transfers: Private	10	6	12	3	8
Government	10	6	122	251	288
Capital movements: Private	— 16	— 13	— 14	— 17	— 10
Government	147	128	108	19	— 73
	151	127	228	256	213
<i>Changes in Assets and Liabilities:</i>					
Commercial banks	12	60	— 12	— 4	34
Monetary gold	7	46	—	—	—
IMF accounts	— 14	— 25	4	— 2	— 26
Other assets and liabilities	100	— 24	81	— 14	80
Net errors and omissions	6	— 1	— 3	12	2
	111	58	70	— 8	90

Source: International Monetary Fund. (Revised figures).

ECONOMIC POLICY

According to the provisional constitution of 1964, the economy of the United Arab Republic is one based on socialism with the people controlling all means of production. In practice this means that the government owns or controls practically every economic unit in the economy worth controlling. Although the doctrine of socialism has been invoked since the first land reform in 1952, the economy remained largely in private hands until 1961, except for the nationalization of the Suez Canal company in 1956 and that of British and French property during the Suez attack. In June and July 1961, all cotton exporting firms were nationalized, and the Alexandria futures market was closed; 275 industrial and trading concerns were taken over by the state in whole or in part; taxation was made so progressive that individual income was virtually limited to the official maximum of £E 5,000; the maximum limit on land ownership was reduced from 200 to 100 feddans (before it was reduced again in 1969); individual share-holding was limited to £E10,000; 25 per cent of the net profits of industrial companies was to be distributed to the workers, who were to be represented on the boards of directors, and to work only a 42-hour week. More measures of

nationalization and control followed the break-up of the union with Syria in September 1961; and more measures have been added, with and without an occasion, since.

It is no longer possible to give a comprehensive description of government intervention in so short a space. It is more convenient to state that the only sectors of the economy remaining outside complete government ownership are agriculture and urban real estate, but even these are overwhelmingly regulated by laws and decrees. Concerns are grouped under boards, and boards under chairmen and ministers, and a constant stream of directives helps to bring the activities of all the controlled units in line with government policies.

Since 1967 the government has introduced yet more restricting measures aiming at curbing consumer demand. These have included a variety of taxes, forced savings and compulsory contributions out of wages and salaries. There have been some recent moves, however, to give encouragement to the private sector, particularly with regard to the export trade.

S.S.

STATISTICAL SURVEY

AREA AND POPULATION

AREA (sq km)		POPULATION (1966 census)				
Total	Inhabited	Total	Cairo	Alexandria	Port Said	Suez
1 002 000	36 158	30 075 858	4 219 853	1 801 056	282 977	264 098

Total Population (1970 estimate) 33 329 000

GOVERNORATES

(1965)

GOVERNORATE	AREA (sq km)	CAPITAL	GOVERNORATE	AREA (sq km)	CAPITAL
Cairo	214 2	Cairo	Munufia	1 532 1	Shibin el Kom
Alexandria	2 679 4	Alexandria	Behera	4 589 5	Damanhur
Port Said	71 0	Port Said	Giza	1 078 5	Giza
Ismailia	1 442 6	Ismailia	Beni Suef	1 321 7	Beni Suef
Suez	17 840 4	Suez	Fayum	1 827 2	Fayum
Damietta	589 1	Damietta	Menia	2 261 7	Menia
Dakahlia	3 470 9	Mansura	Asyut	1 553 0	Asyut
Sharkia	4 179 6	Zagazig	Subag	1 547 2	Subag
Kalyubia	1 001 1	Benha	Kena	1 850 7	Kena
Kafr el Sheikh	3 437 12	Kafr el-Sheikh	Aswan	678 5	Aswan
Gharbia	1 942 2	Tanta			

AGRICULTURE

PRINCIPAL CROPS

	AREA (ooo feddans*)				PRODUCTION (ooo metric tons)			
	1966	1967	1968	1969†	1966	1967	1968	1969†
Wheat	1 303	1 251	1 413	1 246	1 465	1 291	1 518	1 269
Maize	1 583	1 508	1 554	1 484	2 376	2 163	2 297	2 366
Millet	518	523	533	474	859	881	906	813
Barley	101	120	117	103	102	100	121	105
Rice	844	1 105	1 204	1 191	1 678	2 279	2 586	3 557
Clover	2 532	2 741	2 679	2 726	34	31	38	44 224
Beans	399	301	306	338	381	188	238	297
Lentils	75	66	51	46	44	34	35	24
Onions	62	48	44	65	703	587	444	567
Sugar Cane	133	137	155	170	5 189	5 257	6 083	6 867

* 1 Feddan = 1 038 acres

† Preliminary

Area (1969) Barley 103 000 Lentils 46 000 Onions 56 000 Production (1969) Barley 87 000 Lentils 15 000

UNITED ARAB REPUBLIC—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

Livestock: (1969 estimates—'000) Cattle 2,036, Buffaloes 2,015, Camels 136, Goats 1,119, Sheep 1,906, Horses 41, Donkeys 1,272.

Eggs: Production (1968) 1,302 million.

Honey: Production (1968) 4,832 tons.

AREA AND PRODUCTION OF COTTON

	1966-67		1967-68		1968-69	
	'000 feddans*	'000 kantars†	'000 feddans*	'000 kantars†	'000 feddans*	'000 kantars†
Menoufi . . .	584	2,328	436	1,783	339	1,783
Dandara . . .	67	235	56	242	170	705
Ashmouni . . .	524	2,637	398	1,773	187	979
Others . . .	684	2,985	736	3,872	924	5,927
TOTAL . . .	1,859	8,185	1,626	7,670	1,622	9,394

* 1 Feddan=1.038 acres. † 1 Kantar=99.05 lbs.

MINING AND INDUSTRY

('000 tons)

COMMODITY	1966	1967	1968	1969
Crude oil ('000 cu. metres) .	6,884	6,288	9,890	14,245
Benzine ('000 cu. metres) .	849	736	767	443
Kerosene ('000 cu. metres) .	923	822	629	411
Mazout ('000 cu. metres) .	4,196	3,237	3,045	1,428
Asphalt . . .	134	98	143	41
Phosphate . . .	661	683	1,441	660
Manganese . . .	186	75	4	4
Common salt . . .	627	584	622	385
Iron ore . . .	440	423	447	460
Refined sugar . . .	357	366	380	487
Cottonseed oil . . .	132	84	92	125
Super phosphate . . .	277	265	306	344
Caustic soda . . .	19	19	20	20
Cement . . .	2,636	2,754	3,146.8	3,613
Woollen fabrics . . .	4	4	3	n.a.
Cotton yarn . . .	142	157	157	162
Cotton cloth . . .	97	93	102	n.a.
Electricity (million kWh.) .	5,895	6,009	6,735	n.a.

PRODUCTION CO-OPERATIVES

	1966	1967	1968
Agriculture . . .	4,822	4,865	4,902
Sea Food . . .	57	56	53

UNITED ARAB REPUBLIC—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

FINANCE

1 Egyptian Pound (£E) = 100 piastres

£E1 04 = £1 sterling £E0 435 = U S \$1

£E100 = £96 sterling = U S \$231

BUDGET 1968-69

(£E million)

REVENUE 1 479 2

EXPENDITURE

	CURRENT EXPENDITURE	%	INVESTMENT EXPENDITURE	%
Agriculture and Irrigation	102 1	6 9	58 0	19 5
Electricity and High Dam	31 8	2 2	49 4	16 6
Industry Petroleum and Mineral Wealth	221 2	15 0	114 2	38 3
Transport and Commerce	134 1	9 1	35 0	11 7
Trade and Supply	204 8	14 0	7 2	2 4
Housing and Utilities	13 9	0 9	7 8	2 6
Health Social and Religious Services	67 5	4 7	3 0	1 0
Education Culture and National Guidance	141 3	9 6	11 2	3 7
Defence Security and Justice	228 6	15 6	1 1	0 4
Others	324 0	22 0	11 2	3 7
TOTAL	1 469 3	100 0	298 2	100 0

Revenue and Expenditure (1969-70) £E1 786 6 million (1970-71 estimate) £E1 911 million

SEVEN YEAR PLAN 1966-72

(£E million)

Industry and Power	1 667
Transport Communications Suez Canal	1 086
Agriculture	685
Housing and Services	624
Miscellaneous	90
TOTAL	4 152

RESERVES AND CURRENCY IN CIRCULATION

(mill on £E at year end)

	1966	1967	1968
Gold Reserves	40 6	40 6	40 6
Currency in Circulation	464 0	464 0	489 0

UNITED ARAB REPUBLIC—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

BALANCE OF PAYMENTS ESTIMATES—ALL FOREIGN COUNTRIES (U.S.\$ million)

	1967			1968		
	Credit	Debit	Balance	Credit	Debit	Balance
<i>Goods and Services:</i>						
Merchandise	595	955	-360	664	849	-185
Transport (including Suez Canal dues)	127	21	106	8	11	-3
Investment income	22	47	-25	30	53	-23
Government n.e.s.	22	67	-45	15	66	-51
Other services (including tourism)	96	70	26	93	79	14
Transfer Payments	134	—	134	254	—	254
CURRENT BALANCE	996	1,160	-164	1,064	1,058	6
<i>Capital Account:</i>						
Private transactions	—	14	-14	—	17	-17
Central government n.e.s.	190	82	108	199	180	19
Commercial banks	24	36	-12	1	5	-4
Central institutions	85	—	85	34	50	-16
CAPITAL BALANCE	299	132	167	234	252	-18
Net Errors and Omissions	—	3	-3	12	—	12

EXTERNAL TRADE (£ million)

	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969
Total Imports	414.4	405.9	465.5	344.4	300.9	277.3
Total Exports	234.4	263.1	263.1	246.1	270.3	323.9

PRINCIPAL COMMODITIES

IMPORTS	£ MILLION			
	1966	1967	1968	1969
Cereals and Milling Products	70.2	84.4	62.8	39.8
Animal and Vegetable Oils	10.0	18.5	12.3	12.4
General Grocery	16.2	16.0	7.1	3.3
Tobacco	8.3	7.6	7.0	7.4
Textiles	19.3	13.0	12.1	16.7
Paper and Paper Products	15.8	12.8	11.3	10.8
Pottery and Glassware	3.9	2.3	2.6	3.5
Clocks, Watches, Scientific Apparatus	3.4	2.1	2.2	2.7
Mineral Products	37.7†	27.2†	25.4	27.1
Chemical Products	56.5	29.0	32.9	41.0
Wood, Hides and Rubber	29.7	18.6	9.6	12.5
Machinery	83.5	49.7	42.2	40.9
Transport and Equipment	34.8	18.8	27.8	25.6
Crude Petroleum	24.6	16.4	8.6	6.7
Iron and Steel	33.4	18.1	16.9	15.6

† Includes crude oil.

UNITED ARAB REPUBLIC—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

EXPORTS	1967		1968		1969	
	ooo tons	£E million	ooo tons	£E million	ooo tons	£E million
Cotton raw	296	121 6	264	120 0	253	130 7
Cotton Yarn	38	30 2	39	29 6	48	36 3
Cotton Piece Goods	17	12 6	20	14 5	22	16 0
Rice	435	29 8	569	44 9	772	55 3
Potatoes	42	1 4	29	1 0	81	2 5
Onions	124	9 0	97	6 1	142	7 8
Edible Fruits	16	1 0	36	2 2	101	1 7
Manganese and Phosphates	535	2 3	451	2 0	410	7 4
Crude Oil	511	2 0	755	3 3	1 574	0 8
Benzine Kerosene and Marout	1,185	7 1	596	4 2	140	4 2
Cement	353	1 9	876	5 1	820	

PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES (£E million)

IMPORTS	1966	1967	1968	1969
Saudi Arabia	13 0	5 9	0 2	0 1
U S S R	40 7	71 8	46 2	37 6
Czechoslovakia	13 9	10 6	10 4	8 9
German Democratic Republic	16 7	14 3	14 1	12 8
Yugoslavia	11 9	11 6	7 0	6 2
United Kingdom	23 2	13 0	8 8	12 1
German Federal Republic	38 1	24 0	19 1	19 3
Italy	19 3	12 1	14 5	16 3
Japan	11 6	3 9	4 5	2 5
India	21 4	18 4	11 3	16 1
U S A	92 3	30 2	16 2	19 6
Poland	6 9	7 6	7 6	6 0
Romania	7 4	18 7	18 6	5 5
France	22 9	15 7	33 2	28 5
China People's Republic	17 5	10 1	8 9	5 6

EXPORTS	1966	1967	1968	1969
U S S R	62 0	60 2	75 9	107 0
Czechoslovakia	26 2	18 3	14 2	15 3
German Democratic Republic	10 5	11 3	9 8	14 6
Yugoslavia	8 8	6 3	5 1	9 8
United Kingdom	7 4	7 0	6 3	6 7
German Federal Republic	10 4	6 9	10 5	13 3
Italy	10 5	9 3	9 1	12 7
Japan	6 3	8 1	9 9	12 2
India	17 8	13 4	20 3	16 7
U S A	6 8	5 6	5 8	4 8
Saudi Arabia	2 0	0 5	2 9	2 2
Poland	5 6	5 6	8 7	12 3
Romania	8 0	6 1	7 7	6 0
France	5 1	6 3	5 4	7 5
China People's Republic	14 2	8 2	7 2	6 1

UNITED ARAB REPUBLIC—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

EXPORTS OF COTTON (^{'000} kantars) (kantar=99.05 lbs.)

COUNTRIES	EXPORTS FOR WHOLE SEASON			
	1938-39	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69
Austria	—	56	71	54
Belgium	91	39	40	34
China (People's Republic)	192	414	172	131
Czechoslovakia	—	545	375	265
France	948	199	211	210
German Dem. Republic	1,014	166	101	52
German Fed. Republic		182	253	290
Hungary	118	137	85	42
India	414	619	530	436
Italy	537	372	322	290
Japan	758	415	458	496
Poland	217	223	140	116
Romania	245	209	247	181
Spain	98	209	353	274
Switzerland	404	118	104	96
United Kingdom	2,706	107	124	99
U.S.S.R.	—	1,599	856	1,171
U.S.A.	190	123	142	12
Yugoslavia	34	264	202	156
Other countries	403	331	269	378
TOTAL	8,484	6,327	5,055	4,783
VARIETIES:				
Ashmouni	3,544	183	3	—
Zagora	1,664	—	—	—
Giza 31 "Dandara"	—	389	210	40
Giza 30	—	—	—	—
Karnak	—	—	—	—
Menoufi	—	2,314	1,622	1,545
Others	3,276	3,441	3,220	3,198
TOTAL	8,484	6,327	5,055	4,783

TRANSPORT

RAILWAYS

	1968-69	1969-70
Total Freight (million ton km.)	2,670	3,314
Total Passengers (million passenger km.)	5,796	5,678
Track Length (km.)	4,234	4,234

ROADS

(Licences issued at end of each year)

	1967	1968	1969
Buses	5,897	5,707	6,129
Lorries	21,164	21,019	21,976
Cars	108,348	113,586	122,155
Motor Cycles	18,092	19,645	21,968

UNITED ARAB REPUBLIC (STATISTICAL SURVEY)

SHIPPING SUZ CANAL TRAFFIC

YEAR	NO OF VESSELS	NET TONNAGE (000)	NO OF PASSENGERS (000)	RECEIPTS (£1. 000)
1954	13 215	102 494	537	30 554
1955	14 666	115 756	521	32 234
1956				
Jan -Oct	13 291	107 006	320	29 369
1957				
April-Dec	10 958	89 911	188	24 480
1958	17 842	154 479	342	42 157
1959	17 731	163 386	326	44 536
1960	18 734	185 322	367	50 408
1961	18 148	187 059	323	51 089
1962	18 518	197 837	270	53 958
1963	19 146	210 498	298	71 294
1964	19 943	227 991	270	77 697
1965	20 289	246 817	291	85 792
1966	21 250	274 250	300	95 187
1967				
Jan -May	9 652	127 825	139	44 000

CIVIL AVIATION (tons)

	1966	1967	1968	1969
Cargo	9 640	10 064	12 110	14 512
Mail	1 404	1 216	1 266	1 379

TOURISM

	TOTAL VISITORS	ARABS	EUROPEANS	AMERICANS	OTHERS	TOTAL (guest nights) (000)
1967	344 954	167 412	111 846	31 451	34 245	6 370
1968	317 601	184 420	82 077	22 446	28 674	4 376
1969	345 343	193 977	85 463	32 769	33 134	4 395
1970	357 661	230 803	55 985	25 427	35 446	4 574

Tourist Accommodation (1969) 17 730 hotel beds in 232 hotels under the supervision of the Ministry of Tourism. **Other Tourist Accommodation (1969)** 25 733 hotel beds in 725 hotels

EDUCATION

(1968-69)

	SCHOOLS	PUPILS
Primary . . .	7,829	3,553,100
Intermediate:		
General . . .	1,297	775,511
Technical . . .	14	5,531
Secondary:		
General . . .	319	276,339
Technical . . .	213	197,054
Teacher Training . . .	63	29,457
University . . .	5	142,975

FOREIGN STUDENTS IN
U.A.R. UNIVERSITIES

(1969-70)

Arab World . . .	13,755
Africa . . .	801
Asia . . .	703
Europe . . .	220
America . . .	42
Others . . .	10
TOTAL . . .	15,531

Sources: Central Agency for Public Mobilization and Statistics, Cairo;
Research Department, National Bank of Egypt, Cairo; International Monetary Fund.

THE CONSTITUTION

Summary of the new Interim Constitution issued in Cairo on March 25th, 1964.

CHAPTER I

The State

The United Arab Republic is a democratic socialist State based on the alliance of the working powers of the people.

The Egyptian people is part of the Arab nation. Islam is the religion of the State and Arabic is its official language.

CHAPTER 2

The Fundamental Elements of Society

Social solidarity is the basis of Egyptian society. The family is the foundation of society. The State ensures equality of opportunity for all Egyptians. The economy of the State is based on the socialist system, which prohibits any form of exploitation, thus securing the building of a socialist society based on sufficiency and justice. The entire national economy will be guided in accordance with the development plan set by the State. Natural wealth contained in the subsoil and the territorial waters and all its resources and substance belongs to the State which undertakes its proper exploitation. The people control all means of production and dispose of the surplus production according to the development plan set by the State to increase wealth and realise a constant rise in the living standard. Ownership takes one of the following forms:

- State Ownership: which is the ownership of the people and is achieved by creating a strong and effective public sector leading to progress in all fields and shouldering the main responsibility in the development plan.
- Co-operative Ownership: which is the ownership of all those participating in co-operatives.
- Private Ownership: which implies the private sector partaking in development within the framework of the development plan without exploitation. All three sectors should be under the people's control.

Private ownership is protected; its social function is to be stipulated by law. Ownership is not to be expropriated except for public interest and in return for an equitable compensation as stipulated by the law. The law defines the maximum limit of land ownership and determines means of protecting small land holdings. The State encourages co-operation and looks after all co-operative organizations

in all their forms. The State ensures, in conformity with the law, the protection of the family. The State ensures all social insurance services. Egyptians have a right to aid in old age, sickness, incapacity for work or unemployment.

Work in the U.A.R. is the right, duty and honour of every able-bodied citizen. Public posts are an obligation for those holding them. Government officials in the performance of their work should have the service of the people as their aim. The Armed Forces of the U.A.R. belong to the people. Their mission is to protect the socialist gains of the people's struggle, to protect the country, the safety of its land and its security.

CHAPTER 3

Public Rights and Duties

Egyptians are equal before the law, being equal with regard to rights and public obligations without any distinction in that respect with regard to race, origin, language, religion or belief. No criminal indictment or punishment is valid except in conformity with the provisions of the law, nor is punishment permissible except for offences committed after the issue of the law incriminating such acts. No person shall be liable to arrest or imprisonment except in conformity with the provisions of the Law. The right of defence by the person himself or by proxy is guaranteed by law. An Egyptian shall not be deported from the country or banned from returning thereto. An Egyptian shall not be forbidden residence in any locality or forced to live in any specific place except in respect of conditions set forth by the law. The extradition of political refugees is prohibited. The sanctity of a home is inviolable nor can it be entered except in the circumstances specified by law and in the manner specified thereby.

Freedom of belief is absolute, the State ensuring the free practice of religious rites, in conformity with establishing customs, provided such practice does not violate public order or morals. Freedom of opinion and of scientific research is guaranteed, every individual having the right to express his opinion and diffuse it by written, oral or any other means within the limits of the law. The freedom of the Press, printing and publicity is guaranteed within the limits of the law. Egyptians have the right of assembly

UNITED ARAB REPUBLIC—(THE CONSTITUTION)

without giving advance notice provided they observe calm and carry no firearms

All Egyptians are entitled to education to be provided by the State, establishing all categories of schools, universities, cultural and educational organizations and expanding them and attaching particular importance to the physical mental and moral development of the country's youth. The State shall exercise control over public education, to be regulated by law and to be free in all its stages in schools and universities. The State ensures Egyptians equitable treatment in accordance with the work they perform, fixes working hours and rates of wages, providing social insurance, health insurance, insurance against unemployment and leaves of absence. The establishment of professional and labour unions is a guaranteed right and they are to be considered bodies corporate under the terms stipulated by law. Medical care is a right to be enjoyed by all Egyptians, through state action by the establishment and expansion of all kinds of hospitals and sanatoria. Defence of the homeland is a sacred duty and military service is an honour for all Egyptians being also compulsory in conformity with the provisions of the law. Payment of taxes and fulfilment of public obligations is a duty in accordance with the law. Voting is a right for all Egyptians in the manner specified by law and their participation in public life is a patriotic duty incumbent upon them.

CHAPTER 4

System of Government

Section I—Head of the State

The Head of the State is the President of the Republic and exercises his prerogatives in the manner prescribed in this Constitution.

Section II—The Legislative Authority

The National Assembly is the authority which exercises the legislative authority in the manner prescribed in this Constitution. It shall exercise control over the activities of the executive authority in the manner prescribed in this Constitution. It shall be formed of members to be chosen by general secret elections. The number of elected members and conditions of membership as well as the method of election and its rules shall be fixed by law. The President of the Republic has the right to appoint a number of members not exceeding ten. It is stipulated that at least half of the number of members of the National Assembly should be workers and farmers. The age of a member of the National Assembly on the date of election should not be less than 30 calendar years. The term of the National Assembly shall be five years from the date of its first meeting. Elections for the renewal of the Assembly shall take place during the 60 days preceding the end of its term. Should the seat of a member fall vacant before the end of his term a successor is to be chosen in the manner specified in the Constitution within 60 days from the date of the notification of the National Assembly of the seat falling vacant. The term of the new member lasts only until the end of his predecessor's term. The President of the Republic shall convene the National Assembly and terminate its session. The National Assembly shall be situated in the City of Cairo. In exceptional circumstances it may be convened in another locality at the request of the President of the Republic. The National Assembly shall be invited to convene for its annual session before the second Thursday in November. If it is not invited it shall convene by force of law on the date mentioned. The ordinary session shall be seven months at least. It cannot be terminated before approving the Budget. The President of the Republic shall convene the National Assembly to an extraordinary session in case of necessity or on a request

to this effect signed by a majority of the members of the National Assembly. Every member of the National Assembly shall take the following oath before the Assembly at an open sitting before performing his duty:

"I swear by Almighty God to sincerely safeguard the Republican regime, look after the interests of the people and the safety of the nation and respect the Constitution and law."

It shall be the duty of the National Assembly to decide on the validity of the membership of its members. A Supreme Court to be appointed by law shall be concerned with making investigation into the authenticity of the protests submitted to the National Assembly upon the request of its Speaker. The result of the investigation is to be submitted to the National Assembly for it to take a definite decision on the protest. Membership shall not be invalid except by a decision declared taken by a majority of two thirds of the number of members of the National Assembly. The sittings of National Assembly shall be open sittings. However, it will be possible to hold meetings in camera upon the request of the President of the Republic, the Government, the Speaker of the Assembly, or 20 of the members of the National Assembly. It remains to the Assembly to decide whether the subject of the debate should be debated in an open meeting or in camera.

The National Assembly shall not take any decisions unless the meeting is attended by the majority of its members or in cases where no particular majority is required. The decisions shall be issued according to the absolute majority of those present. When votes are equal, the subject of the debate shall be considered as rejected. Every draft law shall be referred to one of the Assembly's committees for examination and submission of a report on it. No law shall be issued unless it is approved by the National Assembly. No draft law shall be approved unless each of its articles are voted for one by one. No draft law, proposed by a member and rejected by the National Assembly, shall be submitted again at the same session of the Assembly.

The levying of general taxes, the amendment or the cancellation of such taxes, shall only be effected by means of a law. Nobody shall be exempted from paying taxes except in the cases indicated in the law. No one shall be asked to pay additional taxes and duties except within the limits of the law.

The Government shall not conclude any agreement for loans and shall not commit itself to any project entailing the expenditure of State funds in a future year or years, without the approval of the National Assembly.

The general budget estimates shall be submitted to the National Assembly at least two months prior to the end of the fiscal year for discussion and approval. Each item of the budget estimates shall be approved one after the other. The National Assembly shall not make any amendment to the budget estimates except by the approval of the Government. In case the approval of the new budget is not obtained before the beginning of the fiscal year, the old budget will be effective until the new one is approved. Separate budgets, supplementary budgets and their accounts shall be subject to the rules and regulations related to the general State Budget and its estimates.

After its appointment, the Government shall submit its programme to the National Assembly for approval. The National Assembly shall supervise the work performed by the Government. The Government and its members shall be held responsible for their work to the National Assembly. The National Assembly shall discuss the political reports of the members of the Government.

The National Assembly shall have the right to withdraw confidence from the Government or any of its members.

UNITED ARAB REPUBLIC—(THE CONSTITUTION)

The Prime Minister and the Ministers shall have the right to address the National Assembly or its committees whenever they wish to do so. They may seek the help of any of the leading civil servants whom they may also delegate to talk on their behalf. The vote of any Minister shall not be counted when any subject is put to the vote, unless the Minister is a member. Every member of the National Assembly shall have the right to direct questions or interpellations to the Prime Minister or the Ministers with regard to any question within their jurisdiction. The Prime Minister and the Ministers must give answers to members' questions. Any interpellation shall be debated at least seven days after the date of its submission except in urgent cases and with the agreement of the Government. Twenty members of the National Assembly shall have the right to ask for a debate on a general subject with a view to clarifying the Government's policy towards it, and to compare notes regarding it. The Prime Minister shall have the right to ask the National Assembly for a vote of confidence in the Government on the occasion of submitting his programme, or on the occasion of submitting any Government statement dealing with the general policy of the country. The Prime Minister shall have to submit the resignation of the Government to the President of the Republic in case the National Assembly withdraws confidence from it. If the National Assembly decides to withdraw confidence from any Minister, he shall have to resign.

The President of the Republic shall have the right to dissolve the Assembly. Any decision in this respect shall call the electors to hold new elections within a maximum period of 60 days, and shall fix a date for the meeting of the new Assembly within the ten days following the completion of the elections.

Except in the case of *flagrante delicto*, no criminal action may be taken against any member of the Assembly, when it is in session, except with permission of the Assembly. If any such action is taken when the Assembly is not in session, it should be notified to it. No action may be taken against members of the National Assembly for the views and opinions they express while carrying out their duties in the Assembly or in its committees. Membership can be withdrawn only by a decision of a two-thirds majority and at the request of 20 members if a member has lost the confidence of the Assembly or his civil status, has failed to carry out the duties of his membership, has lost the status of worker or farmer on the basis of which he was elected, or has not attended regularly the meetings of the National Assembly or its committees.

No member of the National Assembly may at the same time assume a public position in the Government or the units of local administration. Other posts which may not be occupied by a member of the Assembly may be defined by law. No member of the National Assembly may be appointed to an organization or a company during the term of his membership except in the cases defined by law. No member of the National Assembly, during the term of his membership, may buy or rent any State property or sell, lease or barter to the State any of his property.

Sub-Section I—President of the Republic

It is stipulated that the person who is to be elected President of the Republic should be Egyptian of Egyptian parents, enjoying his civil and political rights and of an age not less than 35 calendar years. The National Assembly shall nominate the President of the Republic and the nomination shall be submitted to the country for referendum. The referendum shall be held in the National Assembly for the position of the President of the Republic upon the proposal of a third of its members at least. The

candidate obtaining the majority of two-thirds of the members of the Assembly shall be introduced to the country for a referendum. Should no candidate obtain the majority referred to the nomination is to be repeated after two days from the date of the first voting. The candidate shall be considered President of the Republic by obtaining the absolute majority of those who cast their votes in the referendum. If the candidate has not obtained this majority another candidate is to be nominated by the Assembly and the same method is to be adopted in this respect.

The term of the Presidency is six calendar years beginning from the date of the announcement of the result of the referendum. The President shall take the following oath before exercising duties of his position:

"I swear by Almighty God to safeguard sincerely the Republican system, respect the Constitution and the law, look fully after the interests of the people and safeguard the independence of the nation and the safety of its territories."

The law shall fix the salary of the President of the Republic. An amendment of the salary during the Presidential term in which the amendment is made shall not apply. The President of the Republic is not to receive any other salary or remuneration. During his term of presidency, the President of the Republic shall not be allowed to exercise any liberal profession, any commercial, financial or industrial work, purchase or hire any State property, or rent, sell or barter such property to the State.

The President of the Republic shall have the right to appoint one or more Vice-Presidents, and also to dismiss them.

The measures for the election of a new President of the Republic shall be started 60 days before the expiration of the term of the President of the Republic. The election of the new President will have to be made at least a week before the expiration of the term of the President. If the term expires before the election of the new President for one reason or another, the former President shall continue to exercise the duties of his post until a successor is elected. If any temporary bar should prevent the President of the Republic from exercising his duties, he shall delegate the Vice-President to assume his jurisdiction. In case of the resignation of the President, his permanent disability or death, the first Vice-President of the Republic shall take over temporarily. The National Assembly, by the majority of two-thirds of its members, shall decide that the post of the President is vacant. The choice of the new President of the Republic shall be completed within a maximum period of 60 days from the date when the post falls vacant. In case the President resigns his post, he should submit his resignation to the National Assembly.

Charging the President of the Republic with high treason or disloyalty to the Republican system shall be effected in accordance with a proposal submitted by at least one-third of the members of the National Assembly. The bill of indictment shall only be issued by the majority of votes of the members of the Assembly. The President shall cease to perform his duties immediately after the issuance of the bill of indictment. The first Vice-President of the Republic shall take over temporarily. The President shall be referred for trial before a special court appointed by law. If he should be condemned, the President shall be dismissed without prejudice to other punishments.

The President of the Republic in collaboration with the Government draws up the general policy of the State as regards all the political, economic, social and administrative aspects, and supervises its execution. The President appoints and relieves the Prime Minister of his office. The President also appoints and relieves Cabinet Ministers of

their office. The same rules apply to the appointment of Deputy Prime Ministers, Ministers of State and Deputy Ministers. The President of the Republic has the right to call for the meeting of the Cabinet to attend its meetings and preside over the meetings he attends. Also he has the right to ask for reports to be submitted by the Government and Cabinet Ministers.

The President of the Republic has the right to suggest issue and protest against laws. If the President of the Republic objects to a bill he returns it to the National Assembly within 30 days from the date of its notification to him. If the bill is not returned within that period the bill is considered law and is promulgated. If the bill is returned to the Assembly within the above mentioned period and is again supported by two-thirds of the members it is considered law and is issued.

If during the recess of the National Assembly or when it is dissolved anything happens that necessitates immediate action the President of the Republic is allowed to issue decisions having the force of law. These decisions must be submitted to the National Assembly within 15 days of their issue if the Assembly still stands or at its first meeting if the Assembly has been dissolved. If these decisions are not submitted to the Assembly they shall retroactively lose their power as law without the need for a further decision to be taken. In the event of the decisions being submitted to and rejected by the Assembly they shall lose their power as law with effect from the date of their rejection. The President of the Republic in exceptional circumstances upon the mandate of the National Assembly has the right to issue decisions having the force of law. The mandate should be for a limited period, the subjects and bases of these decisions have to be determined.

The President of the Republic issues all security regulations and the procedure for enforcing the laws. The President of the Republic is *ex officio* the Supreme Commander of the Armed Forces. The President of the Republic declares war after approval by the National Assembly. The President of the Republic ratifies treaties and refers them to the National Assembly with any appropriate comment. They shall have the power of law after their adoption, ratification and publication in conformity with established usage. However, treaties of peace, alliance, trade, navigation as well as all treaties involving modification in the territory of the State relating to sovereignty rights or entailing financial expenditure not allocated by the State budget shall not be valid if not adopted by the National Assembly.

The President of the Republic has the right to commute a penalty or reduce it but a full pardon is not granted except by the issue of a law.

The President of the Republic appoints members of the Civil Service and officers of the Armed Forces and discharges them; he also accredits the foreign diplomatic envoys.

The President may order a plebiscite in order to consult the people on important issues involving the higher interests of the State, the manner in which the plebiscite is to be carried out shall be determined by the law.

Sub-Section II—The Government

The Government consists of the Prime Minister, the Deputy Premiers and the Ministers. The Prime Minister administers Government affairs and presides at the meetings of the Council of Ministers. The Government exercises the following functions:

- 1 Guiding co-ordinating and revising the Ministers work as well as that of the general organizations and authorities

- 2 Issuing the administrative and executive decisions according to the laws and decrees and checking their implementation
- 3 Preparing draft laws and resolutions.
- 4 Appointing and dismissing employees according to the law
- 5 Preparing the draft of the general budget of the State
- 6 Preparing the draft of the State's general plan for the development of the national economy and taking all necessary measures to ensure its execution
- 7 Supervising the organization and administration of the currency and credit systems and of insurance operations
- 8 Contracting and extending loans within the limits of the State's general policy
- 9 Supervising all the general organizations
- 10 Supervising the enforcement of laws preserving the security of the State and protecting the rights of the citizens and the interests of the State

The Government controls the work of the Ministries as well as that of the local and general departments and authorities. It has the right to cancel or modify decisions which prove to be unsuitable in the light of the law. The control and inspection authorities are directly responsible to the Prime Minister.

Anyone who is to be appointed as Minister must be an Egyptian who is at least 30 years of age and who enjoys all civil and political rights.

The President and the National Assembly have the right to put a Minister on trial for any offences he may commit while conducting his duties. A National Assembly decision to level an accusation against a Minister should be at the request of at least five members. The accusation decision is not to be passed unless it obtains the support of two-thirds of the Assembly's members. The accused Minister will be suspended until his case is decided. The law appoints the authority which would undertake the trial of Ministers. It also provides for the accusation and trial procedures.

The Cabinet Ministers and the Deputy Ministers may be members of the National Assembly. Members of the National Assembly may be appointed Under Secretaries of State for National Assembly Affairs. The law defines the rules relating to them.

Sub-Section III—National Defence

(a) *Council of National Defence* A Council shall be set up to be called Council of National Defence. The President of the Republic shall assume its command. The Council of National Defence is concerned with considering affairs relating to the means of safeguarding the country and its safety. The other jurisdiction is prescribed by the law.

(b) *The Armed Forces* It is the State that raises the Armed Forces. No body or group is permitted to form any military or quasi military formations. The State in compliance with the law organises the military training of youth and regulates the National Guard. General mobilization will be organised in compliance with the law.

Sub-Section IV—Local Administration

The United Arab Republic is divided into administrative units. It is permissible for each or some of them to have corporate personality in compliance with the law.

The bodies representing the administrative units participate in the implementation of the general plan of the State. They are entitled to establish and administer public utilities and economic social and health projects as prescribed by the law.

UNITED ARAB REPUBLIC—(THE CONSTITUTION, THE GOVERNMENT)

CHAPTER 5

The Judicial Authority

Judges are independent, with no power above them in making judgments except the law. It is not permissible for any authority to interfere in cases or in the affairs of justice. The court sittings are public unless the court decides to make them closed in the interests of public order and morality.

Judges are not subject to dismissal except as prescribed in the law. The law organizes the function and jurisdiction of the Public Prosecution and its relation with the judiciary. The appointment of members of the Public Prosecution department, taking any disciplinary action against them or their dismissal are effected in compliance with the conditions approved by the law. The law organizes the arrangement of the State Security Courts, and determines their jurisdiction and the qualifications of those who sit in judgment in these courts.

CHAPTER 6

General Provisions

The City of Cairo is the capital of the United Arab Republic.

The law prescribes the national flag and the provisions relative thereto.

The provisions of laws shall be applicable from the dates of their enforcement, and shall not be effective with respect to acts having taken place prior to these dates. However, in non-criminal provisions, laws may stipulate otherwise with the approval of the majority of the National Assembly

members. Laws shall be published in the "Official Journal" within a fortnight from the day of their promulgation.

The President of the Republic and the National Assembly shall have the power to demand the amendment of one or more articles of the Constitution. The demand for amendment must show the articles required to be amended and the reasons for such amendments. In the case of the demand for amendment being made by the National Assembly, it shall be signed by at least one-third of the members of the Assembly. In all cases, the Assembly shall debate the principle of the amendment, passing its decision by a majority of votes. If the demand is rejected, another demand for the amendment of the same articles may not be put forward before the lapse of one year following the rejection. If the National Assembly approves the principle of the amendment, it shall, after two months of the approval, debate the articles required to be amended. The amendment shall become effective if two-thirds of the members of the Assembly approve it.

All provisions contained in laws, decrees, orders and regulations prior to the issue of this Constitution shall remain in force. Notwithstanding such laws, decrees, orders and regulations may be rescinded or amended in accordance with the principles and procedures laid down by this Constitution.

Note: A constitutional committee is to submit proposals for a new permanent constitution for approval by national referendum before the end of August 1971.

THE GOVERNMENT

THE PRESIDENCY

President: ANWAR SADAT.

Vice-President: HUSAIN SHAFEL.

COUNCIL OF MINISTERS

(May 1970)

Prime Minister: MAHMOUD FAUZI.

Deputy Premier for Production and Trade and Minister of Industry, Petroleum and Mining: Dr. AZIZ SIDQI.

Deputy Premier for Agriculture and Irrigation and Minister of Agriculture and Agrarian Reform: SAYID MAREI.

Deputy Premier and Foreign Minister: Dr. MAHMOUD RIYAD.

Deputy Premier and Minister of Information: Dr. MOHAMED ABDEL KADER HATEM.

Minister of the Interior: MAMDOUH SALEM.

Minister of Communications: ABDEL MALIK SAAB.

Minister of War: MOHAMED AHMED SADEK.

Acting Minister of Supply and Minister of Economy and Foreign Trade: MUHAMMAD MARZIBAN.

Minister of Irrigation: MOHAMED ABDEL RAKIB.

Minister of Transport: SOLIMAN ABDEL HAI.

Minister of Scientific Research: Dr. ABDEL WAHAB ELBOROLIOSSY.

Minister of Planning: SAYID GABALLAH EL SAYID.

Treasurer and Minister of Finance: ABD-AL-AZIZ-HIGAZI.

Minister of Education: MUHAMMAD GHANIM.

Minister of Youth: MUSTAFA KAMAL POLBA.

Minister of Waqfs: Dr. ABD-AL-AZIZ KAMIL.

Minister of Higher Education: Dr. MOHAMED MORSY.

Minister of Social Affairs: FATHALLAH EL KHATIB.

Minister of State for People's Assembly Affairs: MOHAMED ABDEL SALEM.

Minister of Health: Dr. ABDUH SALAM.

Minister of Housing and Utilities: ALY EL SAYED.

Minister of Presidential Affairs: MOHAMED AHMED.

Minister of Power: AHMED SULTAN.

Minister of State for Foreign Affairs: MUHAMMAD HAFIZ ISMAIL.

Minister of Local Government: MOHAMED HAMDY ASHUR.

Minister of Justice: HASAN FAHMI EL BADAY.

Minister of State for Petroleum and Mining: ALY WALY.

Minister of Tourism: Dr. AHMED DARWISH.

Minister of Culture: Dr. ISMAIL GHANEM.

Minister of Labour: ABD-AL-LATIF BULTIYA.

Deputy Minister of Planning: ISMAIL SABRY ABDULLAH.

Minister of State for Civil Aviation Affairs: AHMED NUH.

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Albania: GAMAL THABET, Tirana (A)
Algeria: NAGUIB EL SADR, Algiers (A)
Argentina: SALEH MAHMOUD Buenos Aires (A)
Australia: K A R. AL AYOUBY, Canberra (A)
Austria: ISMAEL FAHMY, Vienna (A)
Belgium: ALY HAMDY HUSSAIN, Brussels (A) (also accredited to EEC)
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Brazil: (vacant) Rio de Janeiro (A)
Bulgaria: AHMAD TALAAT, Sofia (A)
Burma: SALAH HASSAN Rangoon (A)
Burundi, Bujumbura (CA)
Cambodia: BOUTROS ABADIR, Phnom Penh (A)
Cameroon: FAITH ABDEL HALIM KANDIL Yaoundé (A)
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Ceylon: KHALIFA ABDEL AZIZ, Colombo (A)
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Gabon: Libreville (CA)
German Democratic Republic: SAAD EL FATATRY, Berlin (A)
Ghana: ADEL AZIM MORSI Accra (A)
Greece: HASSAN KAMEL Athens (A)
Guinea: OSMAN ASSAL, Conakry (A)
Haiti: (see Venezuela)
Honduras: (see El Salvador)
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Mauntania: MAHMOUD MUHAMMAD TOHANY, Nouakchott (A)
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Sudan: MUHAMMAD KAMAL KHALIL, Khartoum (A)
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Tanzania: FOUAD EL BADAWI, Dar-es Salaam (A)
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Pakistan: 22 Sh. Mansour Muhammad (Zamalek) (E); *Ambassador:* A. I. A. AKHUND.

Panama: Villa No. 20 Sh. 75 (Maadi) (E); *Ambassador:* M. GUILLEN.

Peru: 9 Sh. El Kamel Muhammad (Zamalek) (E); *Ambassador:* MARIO SOSA PARDO DE ZELA.

Philippines: 5 Sh. Ibn El-Walid (Dokki) (E); *Ambassador:* YUSUP ABUBAKAR.

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Romania: 6 Sh El Kamel Muhammad (Zamalek) (E), *Ambassador* TITUS SINV
Saudi Arabia: Villa 12 Sh El Kamel Mohamed (Zamalek) (E) *Ambassador* MUHAMMAD A ALIREZA
Senegal: 2 Sh Ahmed Ragheb (Garden City) (E), *Ambassador* DJIME M GUEYE
Sierra Leone: 56 Sh Amman (Dokki) (E), *Ambassador* (vacant)
Singapore: 6 Sh Nawal (Dokki) (E) *Ambassador* Dr HAJI AHMED BIN MUHAMMAD IBRAHIM
Somalia: 9 Sh Rawakeh (Engineer's City) (E) *Ambassador* ABDULLAH ADAN AHMED
Southern Yemen: Sh Hassanain Higazi (Dokki) (E), *Ambassador* MUHAMMAD ABDEL KADER BAFQI
Spain: 28 Ahmed Hechmat St (Zamalek) (E) *Ambassador* ANGEL SAGAZ
Sudan: 3 Sh. El Ibrahim (Garden City) (E), *Ambassador* MUHAMMAD SULEIMAN AHMED
Sweden: 4 Sh. Sadd El Aali (Dokki) (E), *Ambassador* TORD HAGEN
Switzerland: 10 Sh Abdel Khalek Saroit (E), *Ambassador* ANDRE PARODI
Syria: 17 Sh. Ahmad Sabry (Zamalek) (E), *Ambassador* Dr SAMI DROUBI
Tanzania: 18 Sh. Ahmed Hechmat (Zamalek) (E), *Ambassador* AHMED DIRIA HASSAN

Thailand: 2 Sh El Malek El Afdal (Zamalek) (E), *Ambassador* SONCHAI ANUMAN RAJADHON
Trinidad and Tobago: Addis Ababa Ethiopia (E)
Tunisia: 26 Sh El Guezira (Zamalek) (E), *Chargé d'Affaires* MUHAMMAD IBN FADL
Turkey: Avenue El Nil (Giza) (E), *Ambassador* SEMIH GUNVER
Uganda: 9 Midan El Missaha (Dokki) (E), *Ambassador* POLYCARPE MARK ORONO
U S S R: 95 Sh El Giza (Giza) (E) *Ambassador* VLADIMIR VINOGRADOV
United Kingdom: Kasrah El Dubara (Garden City) (E), *Ambassador* Sir RICHARD BEAUMONT
Uruguay: 6 Sh Loutfallah (Zamalek) (E), *Ambassador* Dr CARLOS MARIA ROMERO
Vatican City: 5 Sh Muhammad Mazhar (Zamalek) (Apostolic Nunciature) *Nuncio* Mgr BRUNA HEIM
Venezuela: 5 Sh Mansour Muhammad (Zamalek) (E), *Ambassador* M SPINETTI
Democratic Republic of Viet-Nam: 21 Sh Giza (Giza) (E), *Ambassador* NGUYEN XUAN
Yemen: 28 Sh Amin El Rafai (Dokki) (E), *Ambassador* MOUSTAFA AHMED YACOB
Yugoslavia: 33 Sh El Mansour Muhammad (Zamalek) (E), *Ambassador* MIHALO JAVORSKI
Zambia: 30 Sh Montazah (Zamalek) (E) *Ambassador* MATIYA NEALANDE

The U A R also recognizes The Central African Republic Guatemala Korea (D P R) Madagascar Mauritius and Rwanda

PEOPLE'S ASSEMBLY

Elections to a new National Assembly were held on January 8th, 1969 and the first session began at the end of the month. Three hundred and fifty members two from each of the 175 electoral districts were elected for a five-year term. One half of the members must be workers or farmers, or of comparable status. Only members of the Arab Socialist Union can stand for election, but more than two candidates may contest each district. In 1969 there were about 850 candidates. Since May 1971 the Assembly has been referred to in the U A R. as the People's Assembly.

President of the Assembly: Dr MUHAMMAD LABIS SHOKEIR.

POLITICAL PARTY

Arab Socialist Union: Cairo, f. 1957 as the *National Union* renamed 1961 the sole political party. Chair President SADAT Sec. ABDUL MORSIN ABUL NUR the Higher Executive Cttee has 9 members the Central Cttee 150 members and the Nat Congress 1 701

JUDICIAL SYSTEM

The Courts of Law in the United Arab Republic are basically divided into four categories as follows

- 1 *The Supreme Court* (called *The Court of Cassation*)
- 2 *The Courts of Appeal*
- 3 *The Primary Tribunals*
- 4 *The Summary Tribunals*

Each Court contains criminal and civil chambers

1. The Supreme Court

The highest Court of Law in the United Arab Republic its sessions are held at Cairo and its jurisdiction covers the whole United Arab Republic territory

Final judgements rendered in criminal and civil matters may be referred to the Supreme Court—by the accused or

the Public Prosecution in criminal matters and by any of the litigants in civil matters—in cases of misapplications or misinterpretations of the law as applied by the competent court in final judgement as well as in case of irregularity in the form of the judgement or the procedures having effect on that judgement

The Supreme Court is composed of the Chief Justice, four Deputy-Chief Justices and thirty six Justices

2. Courts of Appeal

There are six Courts of Appeal situated in the more important Governorates of the United Arab Republic Cairo Alexandria, Asyut Mansura Tanta, and Beni Suef Each of these courts contains a criminal chamber *The Assize Court* to try cases of felonies and a civil chamber to hear appeals filed by any of the litigants in

UNITED ARAB REPUBLIC—(JUDICIAL SYSTEM, RELIGION)

civil matters against a judgement rendered by the primary tribunal, where the law so permits.

President in Cairo: M. MAHMOUD ABD-EL-LATIF.

3. Primary Tribunals

In each Governorate, there is a Primary Tribunal, each of which contains several chambers. Each chamber is composed of three Judges. Some of these chambers try criminal cases, whilst others hear civil litigations.

Primary Tribunals sit as Courts of Appeal in certain cases, according to circumstances.

4. Summary Tribunals

Summary Tribunals are branches of the Primary Tribunals and are situated in the different districts of the Republic. Each of these tribunals is composed of a single Judge.

Summary Tribunals hear civil and criminal matters of minor importance according to certain details.

The *Sharia Courts* or courts of Islamic Law, and the religious courts maintained by non-Muslim minorities have been abolished since 1955.

The Public Prosecution

The Public Prosecution is headed by the Attorney-

General and consists of a large number of Attorneys, Chief Prosecutors and Prosecutors, who are distributed among the various districts of the Republic. The Public Prosecution is represented at all criminal Courts and also at litigation in certain civil matters. Furthermore, the enforcement of judgement rendered in criminal cases is controlled and supervised by the Public Prosecution.

Attorney-General: AHMAD MUSA.

The Supreme Judicial Council

This Council exists to guarantee the independence of the judicial system from outside interference. Under the presidency of the Chief Justice, the Supreme Judicial Council contains the following members:

- the Chief Justice
- two Deputy Chief Justices
- the Under-Secretary of State for the Ministry of Justice
- the Attorney-General
- the President of the Court of Appeal in Cairo
- the President of the Primary Tribunal in Cairo.

All matters concerning the promotion, discipline or otherwise of the members of the judicial system are referred to this Council.

An Arbitration Bureau was set up in 1966 to investigate cases between state and public sector organizations.

RELIGION

Over 94 per cent of Egyptians are Muslims, and almost all of these follow Sunni tenets. The four tenets are represented in the Republic and all follow the Holy Koran and the Sunna. Villagers adhere strictly to Islamic rites and teachings. Since the Fatimide dynasty, Egyptians have attached great importance to the decoration of their mosques. St. Mark is considered to be the first founder of the Coptic Church after Jesus. The Coptic Church is known historically as the Church of Alexandria or the Egyptian Coptic Orthodox Church, and is still considered the main Eastern church. There are over a million Copts in Egypt forming the largest religious minority, there is no discrimination of any kind against them, and they have contributed greatly to the cultural life of Egypt. Besides the Copts there are other Christian minorities numbering about a quarter of a million and consisting of Greek Orthodox, Roman Catholics, Armenians and Protestants. There is also a small Jewish minority.

Sheikh of Al Azhar: MUHAMMAD EL FAHHAM.

Grand Mufti of Egypt: Sheikh KHATIR MUHAM MUHAMMAD.

Coptic Orthodox Church: Azbakia, Cairo; f. 61 A.D.

Coptic Catholic Church: Patriarch Cardinal STEPHANOS I. SIDAROUS, 34 Sh. Ibn Sandar, Koubbeh Bridge, Cairo; 4 dioceses; 120,000 mems.; publ. *Al Salah*.

Greek Catholic Patriarchate: 16 rue Daher, Cairo; Patriarch of Antioch, of Alexandria and of Jerusalem His Beatitude MAXIMOS V HAKIM; 440,000 mems.

Greek Orthodox Church: Patriarch CHRISTOPHOROS II.

Armenian Apostolic Church: 179 Ramses Ave., Cairo, P.O.B. 48-Faggala; Archbishop MAMPRE SIROUNIAN.

Armenian Catholic Patriarchate: 36 Mohammed Sabri Abou Alam Street, Cairo; Archbishop RAPHAEL BAYAN.

Maronite Church: Archbishop PIERRE DIB.

Jewish Community: Office of the Chief Rabbi, Rabbi HAIM DOUEK; 13 Sebil-el-Khazindar St., Abbassia, Cairo.

THE PRESS

The press of Egypt is far more advanced than that of any other country in the Arab Middle East. Circulation of the leading newspapers such as *al-Ahram*, *Akhbar al-Yom* and *al-Akhar* reach figures of 250 000 and more, whereas even the bigger newspapers in other Arab countries sell no more than about 20 000 per issue.

Several of the Cairo newspapers and magazines have important circulations in other Arab countries although entry in Saudi Arabia, Jordan and Tunisia is at present either restricted or altogether banned for political reasons.

Newspapers were placed under the control of the National Union (later reformed as the Arab Socialist Union) by a decree issued by President Nasser in May 1960. Journalists were obliged to obtain licences from the National Union and publishing houses, hitherto free, were placed under its control. All the important newspapers and magazines are now owned and controlled by the Government although the four big publishing houses of *al-Ahram*, *Dar al-Hilal*, *Dar Akhbar al-Yom* and *Dar al-Gomhouriya* operate as separate entities and compete with each other commercially. The Government allows the publishing houses a considerable amount of freedom in dealing with domestic affairs but comment on foreign affairs entirely reflects the views of the Government. *Dar al-Hilal* is concerned only with magazines and publishes *al-Mussawwar*, *Hawa'a* and *al-Kawakeb*. *Dar Akhbar al-Yom* publishes the daily newspaper *al-Akhar* and the weekly newspaper *Akhbar al-Yom*, the weekly magazines *Akher Saa* and *El Goul el Gedid*.

Dar al-Gomhouriya publishes the daily *al-Gomhouriya*, the daily English language paper *Egyptian Gazette*, the daily French newspaper *Le Progrès Egyptien* and the afternoon paper *al-Misra*.

The most authoritative daily newspaper is the very old established *al-Ahram*. Other popular large circulation magazines are *Rose al-Youssef*, *Sabah al-Kheir* and *al-Isaa' wal Television*. Minority language groups are catered for by the Greek language papers *Tachydromor* and *Phos* and the Armenian language papers *Arev* and *Houssaper*.

DAILIES

ALEXANDRIA

Barré al-Chamkat: P.O.B. 833, f 1951, Arabic, evening, commerce finance insurance and marine affairs etc., Editor S. BENEDECCI, circ 15 000.

al-Ihtihad al-Misri: 13 Sharia Sidi Abdel Razzak, f 1871, Arabic, evening, Propr. ANWAR MAHER FARAG, Dir. HASSAN MAHER FARAG.

Journal d'Alexandrie, Le: 1 Sharia Rolo, French, evening, Editor CHARLES ARCADE.

Phare Egyptien, Le: 26 Avenue Hourriya, f 1926, Greek-owned French language, morning independent, Editor ANTOINE GEROVIMO.

Réforme, La: 8 Passage Sherif, f 1895, French noon, Propr. COMTE AZIZ DE SAAB, circ 7 000.

al-Safer: Arabic evening three times per week.

Tachydromos-Egyptos: 4 Sharna Zangarol, f 1882, Greek morning liberal Publisher PENY COUTSOUNIS, Editor Dinos COUTSOUNIS, circ 11 000.

CAIRO

al-Ahram: United Arab Press Gallaa St; f 1875, Arabic, morning independent, Editor MUHAMMAD HASSANEIN HEIKAL, circ 400 000.

al-Akhbar: Dar Akhbar al-Yom, Sharna al-Sahafa, f 1952, Arabic independent, circ 400 000.

Arev: 3 Sharna Soliman Halaby, Armenian evening, Editor AVEJIS YAPOURJIAN.

Egyptian Gazette: 24 Sharna Galal, f 1880, the only English daily, morning, Editor Dr. AMIN MOHAMED ABDEL ENEN, circ 8 500.

al-Gomhouriya (The Republic): 24 Sharna Zakaria Ahmed, f 1953, Arabic, morning official organ of the Arab Socialist Union, Editor IBRAHIM NAWAR, circ 80 000.

Houssaper: Armenian, circ 1,500.

Journal d'Egypte, Le: 1 Borsa Suedia St, f 1936, French, morning, Propr. and Editor EDGARD GALLAD, circ 11 000.

al-Misra: 24 Sharna Zakaria Ahmed, Arabic, evening, Editor N. MESTIKAOULI, circ 40 000.

Phos: 14 Zakaria Ahmed St, f 1896, Greek, morning, Editor S. PATERAS MAN. BASILE A. PATERAS.

Progrès Egyptien, Le: 24 Sharna Zakaria Ahmed, f 1890, French, morning including Sundays, Editor MAURICE YACCARINI, circ 14 500.

PERIODICALS

ALEXANDRIA

al-Ahad Al-Gedid: 88 al-Tatwig Street, Editor in-Chief MAHMUD ABDEL MALAK KORITAM; General Manager MUHAMMAD KORITAM.

Alexandria Medical Journal: 4 Ibn El Saigh, English, French and Arabic, quarterly, publ. by Alexandria Medical Assn., circ 1,500.

Amitté Internationale: 59 Avenue Hourriya, f 1957, publ. by Assen Egypt d'Amitté Inter., Arabic and French, quarterly, Editor Dr. ZAKI BADAOU.

L'Annuaire des Sociétés Egyptiennes par Actions: 23 Midan Tahris, f 1930, annually in December, French, Propr. ELIE I. POLITI, Editor OMAR EL-SAYED MOUSSI.

L'Echo Sportif: 7 rue de l'Archevêché, French, weekly, Propr. MICHEL BITTAR.

L'Economiste Egyptien: 11 rue de la Poste, Alexandria, P.O. Box 847, f 1901; weekly, Propr. MARKOVRITA HOSNY.

Egypte-Sports-Cinéma: 7 Avenue Hourriya, French; weekly, Editor EMILE ASSAAD.

Egyptian Cotton Gazette: P.O.B. 433, organ of the Alexandria Cotton Exporters Association, English, three times yearly, Editor M. HASSOUNA.

Egyptian Cotton Statistics: English, weekly.

Gazette d'Orient, La: 5 rue de l'Ancienne Bourse, Propr. MAURICE BETTO.

Guide des Industries: 2 Sharna Adib, French, annual, Editor SIMON A. BARANIS.

Informateur des Assurances: 1 Sharna Adib, f 1936, French, monthly, Propr. ELIE I. POLITI, Editor SIMON A. BARANIS.

Journal Suisse d'Egypte, Le: 18 Sharna Saleh El Dine, Editor M. MAURICE FRECHTER.

Médecine d'Egypte: 298 rue Port Said Cléopâtre, Editor HUBERT DE LEUSSE, French.

Réforme Illustrée, La: 8 Passage Sherif, f 1925, French; weekly, Propr. COMTE AZIZ DE SAAB, circ 20 000.

Répertoire Permanent de Législation Egyptienne: 27 Ave. El Guesch, Chatby-les-Bains; f. 1932; French and Arabic; Editor V. SISTRO.

Revue des Questions Douanières: 2 Sharia Sinan; Arabic; monthly; economics and agriculture; Propr. ALY MUHAMMAD ALY.

Revue Economique Trimestrielle: c/o Banque de Port-Said, 18 Talaat Harb St., Alexandria; French (f. 1929) and Arabic (f. 1961) editions; quarterly; Editor: MAHMOUD SAMY EL ADAWAY (Arabic and French editions).

Sanaat El-Nassig (L'Industrie Textile): 5 rue de l'Archevêché; Arabic and French; monthly; Editor PHILIPPE COIAS.

L'Universitaire—Science et Techniques: 298 Sharia Port Said, Cléopatra; French; scientific and technical; quarterly; Editor HUBERT DE LEUSSE.

Voce d'Italia: 90 Sharia Farahde; Italian; fortnightly; Editor R. AVELLINO.

CAIRO

Actualité: 28 Sharia Sherif Pasha; French; weekly; Dir. and Propr. GEORGES TASSO.

Akhbar al-Yom: 6 Sharia al-Sahafa; Arabic; weekly; circ. 650,000.

Akher Saa: Dar Akhbar al-Yom, Sharia al-Sahafa; f. 1934; Arabic; weekly; independent; Editor-in-Chief AHMED EL-SAWI MUHAMMAD; circ. 150,000.

al-Ahd al-Goumhouri: 132 Sharia Kalaa; Editor ABDEL-KHALEK TAKIA.

al-Ahram Al Iqtisadi: United Arab Press, Gallaa St.; economic affairs; owned by *Al Ahram*; circ. 10,000.

al-Azhar: Sharia al-Azhar; Arabic; Dir MUHAMMAD FARID WAGDI.

al-Doctor: 8 Hoda Shaarawy St.; f. 1947; Arabic; monthly; Editor Dr. AHMAD M. KAMAL; circ. 30,000.

al-Fussoul: 17 Sharia Sherif Pasha; Arabic; monthly; Propr. and Chief Editor MUHAMMAD ZAKI ABDEL KADER.

al-Garida al-Togaria al-Misriya: 25 Sharia Nubar Pasha; f. 1921; Arabic; weekly; circ. 7,000.

al-Hilal: Dar al-Hilal, 16 Sharia Muhammad Ezz El-Arab; f. 1895; Arabic; monthly; Editor EMILE ZEIDAN.

al-Izaa wal-Television: 13 Sharia Muhammad Ezz El-Arab; f. 1935; Arabic; weekly; Editor RAGA EL AZABI; circ. 120,000.

al-Kawakeb: Dar al-Hilal, 16 Sharia Muhammad Ezz El-Arab; f. 1952; Arabic; Editor FAHIM NAGIB; circ. 38,500.

al-Mukhtar: Dar Akhbar al-Yom, Sharia al-Sahafa; f. 1956; Arabic edition of *Readers' Digest*; Editor MOHAMED ZAKI ABDEL KADER; circ. 50,000.

al-Mussawar: Dar al-Hilal, 16 Sharia Muhammad Ezz El-Arab; f. 1924; Arabic weekly; Editor AHMED BAHAEDDINE; circ. 50,000.

al-Sabah: 4 Sharia Muhammad Said Pasha; f. 1922; Arabic; weekly; Editor MOSTAFA EL-KACHACHI.

al-Tahrir: 5 Sharia Nagaub-Rihani; Arabic; weekly; Editor ABDEL-AZIZ SADEK.

al-Talia (Vanguard): f. 1965; left wing; monthly.

al-Tigara al-Arabiya al-Inkleezya (Anglo-Arab Trade): Arabic; bi-monthly; publ. by British Industrial Publicity Overseas Ltd., London, W.C.2.

Ana Wa Inta: Sharia Central; Arabic; monthly; Editor MOHAMED HASSAN.

Arab Observer: published by the Middle East News Agency, 11 Sh. Sahafa; f. 1960; weekly international news magazine; English; has now incorporated *The Scribe*; Editor-in-Chief Dr. ABDEL HAMID EL-BATRIK.

Contemporary Thought: University of Cairo; quarterly; Editor Dr. Z. N. MAHMOUD.

Echos: 15 Sharia Mahmoud Bassiouni; f. 1947; French; weekly; Dir. and Propr. GEORGES ORFALI.

Egyptian Chamber of Commerce Bulletin: 4 Midan Falaki.

Egyptian Directory, The: 19 Sharia Abdel Khalek Sarwat, B.P. 500; f. 1887; French and English; annual; Man. and Editor TAWHID KAMAL.

Egyptian Mail: 24 Sharia Zakaria Ahmed; f. 1910; English; weekly; Editor Dr. AMIN ABOUL-ENEIN.

Egypt's Medical Digest: 56 Sharia Abdel Khalek Sarwat, monthly; English; Editor Dr. KAMEL MIRZA.

Femme Nouvelle, La: 48 Sharia Kasr-el-Nil; French; twice yearly; Editor DORIA SHAFIK.

Federation of Egyptian Industries Monthly Bulletin: 26 Sharia Sherif Pasha; sent to all members of the Federation.

Gazette of the Faculty of Medicine: Sharia Kasr El-Aini; Kasr El-Aini Clinical Society; English; quarterly.

German-Arab Trade: 2 Sharia Sherif Pasha; German, English, French, Arabic; Editor KLAUS BALZER; circ. 6,000.

al Guil el Gedid: Dar Akhbar al-Yom, Sharia al-Sahafa; f. 1945; Arabic; weekly; Editor MOUSSA SABRI; circ. 50,000.

Ghorfet al-Kahira (Journal of Cairo Chamber of Commerce): 4 Midan Falaky; Arabic; monthly.

Hawa'a: Dar al-Hilal, 16 Sharia Muhammad Ezz El-Arab; women's magazine; Arabic; weekly.

Images: Dar Al-Hilal, 16 Sharia Muhammad Ezz El-Arab; French; illustrated; weekly; Editors EMILE and CHOUKRI ZEIDAN.

Industrial Egypt: 26A Sharia Sherif Pasha St., P.O.B. 251 Cairo; f. 1924; Bulletin of U.A.R. Federation of Industries; English and Arabic; quarterly; Editor FAROUK EL-BAKARY.

Industry and Trade Information: 13 Sharia Abdel Hamid Said; English; weekly; commercial and industrial bulletin; Dir. and Propr. NICOLAS STAVRI; Editor N. GHANEM.

Informateur Financier et Commercial: 24 Sharia Soliman Pasha; f. 1929; weekly; Dir. HENRI POLITI; circ. 15,000.

Kitab al-Hilal: 16 Sharia Muhammad Ezz El-Arab; monthly; Proprs. EMILE and CHOUKRI ZEIDAN.

Kuwat al-Mussalaha: P.O.B. 827, Cairo; f. 1954; Arabic; fortnightly; Editor M. A. RAHMAN; circ. 80,000.

Lewa al-Islam: 11 Sharia Sherif Pasha; Arabic; monthly; Propr. AHMED HAMZA; Editor MUHAMMAD ALY SHETA.

Lotus Magazine (Afro-Asian Writings): 104 Kasr El Eini St.; f. 1968; quarterly; English, French and Arabic; Editor YOUSSEF EL SEBAI.

Magalet al-Mohandeseen: 28 Avenue Ramses; f. 1945; published by The Engineers' Syndicate; Arabic and English; ten times a year; Editor and Sec. MAHMOUD SAMI ABDEL KAWI.

Megakkah al-Zerayia: monthly; Arabic; agriculture; circ. 30,000.

The Middle East Observer: 8 Chawarby St.; f. 1955; 3 months; English; industrial, maritime and commercial; Propr. AHMED FODA; Chief Editors ADEL MAGDI, AHMED SABRI; circ. 30,000.

Phos-Chronos: 14 Sharia Galal; Greek; Editors B. PATERAS, S. PATERAS.

UNITED ARAB REPUBLIC—(THE PRESS, PUBLISHERS)

Progrès Dimanche: 24 Sharia Galal, French, weekly, Editor M. YACCARINI
Riwayat al-Hilal: 16 Sharia Muhammad Ezz El Arab, Arabic monthly, Proprietors EMILE and CHOUKRI ZEIDAN
Ross al Youstet: 89a Kasr el Aineh St., f 1925 Arabic, weekly political, circulates throughout all Arab countries includes monthly English section, Chair KAMEL ZOHREY Editor A. HAMROUCH, Editor English section IBRAHIM EZZAT, Man. ABDEL GHANI ABDEL-FATTAH circ 35 000
Sabah al-Kheir: Arabic, weekly
Techereh Nema: 14 Sharia Hassan El Akbar (Abdine), f 1904 Iranian, monthly, political, literary and general Editor MANUCHEHR TCHERHER NEMA MOADREH ZADEH
Up-to-Date International Industry: 10 Sharia Galal, Arabic and English, foreign trade journal

NEWS AGENCIES

Middle East News Agency: 4 Sharia Sherrufin Cairo, f 1955, regular service in Arabic and English, Director MUHAMMAD ABDEL GAWWAD

Misr Egyptian News Agency: 43 Sharia Ramses, Cairo

FOREIGN BUREAUX

Agence France Presse: 33 Kasr El Nil St., Cairo, Chief JEAN PIERRE JOULIN
ANSA: 19 Sh Abdel Khalek Sarwat, Cairo, Chief GIOVANNI CAMPANA
AP: 33 Kasr El Nil, Cairo, Chief JOSEPH E. DYNAN
Bulgarian Telegraph Agency: 13 Sh Muhammad Kame Morni Aguz, Cairo, Chief DIMITR MASLAROV
Četeka (Czechoslovak News Agency): 7 Sh Hasan Asem, Zamalek Cairo
Kyodo News Service: Flat 12 33 Abdel Khalek Tharawat, Cairo, Chief HIDEO YAMASHITA
Reuters: Apt 43 Immobilia Bldgs, 26 Sh Sherif Pasha, Cairo, P O B 2040
UPI: 4 Sh Eloui, P O B 872, Cairo, Chief RAY N. MOSELEY.
 Antara and DPA also have bureaux in Cairo

PUBLISHERS

Egyptian General Organization for Publishing and Printing: 117 Corniche el Nil St., Cairo, affiliated to the Ministry of Culture

ALEXANDRIA

Alexandria University Press: Sathby
Artes: 10 Sharia Stamboul.
Dar Nashr ath-Thagata.
Egyptian Book Centre: A. D. Christodoulou and Co., 5 Sharia Adib, f 1950
Egyptian Printing and Publishing House: Ahmed El Sayed Marouf 59 Safia Zaghoul f 1947
Maison Egyptienne d'Editions: Ahmed El Sayed Marouf, Sharia Adib, f 1950
Maktab al-Misri al-Hadith li-t-Tiba wan-Nashr: 7 Nobar St., Man AHMAD YEHIA
Munshaat al Marif.

CAIRO

Akhbar El Yom Publishing House: 6 Sharia al Sahafa f 1944 publishes *al Akhbar* (daily) *Akhbar al Yom* (weekly) and magazine *Akher Saa* Man Dir Dr KASSEM FARAHAT
Dar al-Gomhouriya: 24 Sharia Galal publications include the dailies *al Gomhouriya* al Misaa *Egyptian Gazette* and *Le Progrès Egyptien*, Pres KAMEL EL HENNAWI
Dar al-Hilal: Al Hilal Bldg., 16 Sharia Mohammed Ezz El Arab f 1892, publishes magazines only including *al Mursawar*, *Hawa'a* and *al Kauakeb*, Dir EMILE and CHOUKRI ZEIDAN
Dar al Kitab al Arabi: Misr Printing House, Sharia Noubar, Bab al Louk, Cairo f 1958 Man. Dir Dr SAHAIR AL KALAMAWI
Dar al Maaref Egypt: 1119 Cornich El Nil St. f 1890 Arabic books in all fields distributor of books in English French and German Man Dir Dr SAYED ABUL NAGA
Documentation and Research Centre for Education (Ministry of Education): 33 Falaky St f 1956 Dir Mrs ZEINAB M. MEHREZ bibliographies directories information and education bulletins
Editions Horus: 1 Midan Soliman Pasha.
Editions Le Progrès: 6 Sharia Sherif Pasha, Propr WADI CHOUKRI

Editions et Publications des Pères Jésuites: 1 rue Boustani al Maksi Faggala, scientific and religious publications, Dir H. DE LKUSSEZ
Editions Universitaires d'Egypte, Les: Alla El Dime El Chiat and Co 41 Sharia Sherif Pasha.
Higher University Council for Arts, Letters and Sciences: University of Cairo
Imprimerie Argus: 10 Sharia Galal, Propr SOCRATE SARAFATIN
Lagnat al Tasil Wal Targama Wal Nashr (Committee for Writing Translating and Publishing Books) 9 Sharia El Kerdassi (Abdine)
Librairie La Renaissance D'Egypte (Hassan Muhammad & Sons): 9 Adly St., P O B 2172 f. 1930 Man HASSAN MUHAMMAD, religion, history, geography, medicine, architecture economics, politics, law, children's books, atlases, dictionaries
Maktabet Misr: P O B 16 Faggalah Cairo, f 1932, publishes wide variety of fiction biographies and textbooks for schools and universities, Man AMIR SAID GOUDA A. SAHHAR
Middle East Publishing Co.: 29 Rue Abdel Khalek Sarwat.
Mohamed Abbas Sid Ahmed: 55 Sharia Nubar
National Library Press (Dar al Kulub) Midan Ahmed Maher, bibliographic works
New Publications: J. Meshaka and Co., 5 Sharia Maspero
The Public Organization for Books and Scientific Appliances: Cairo University Orman Ghiza f 1965 state organization publishing academic books for universities higher institutes etc., also imports books periodicals and scientific appliances, Chair KAMIL SEDDIK, Vice-Chair FATTHY LABIB
Senouhy Publishers: 54 Sharia Abdel Khalek Sarwat, f 1950, Dirs LEILA A. FADEL, OMAR RASHAD
 Other Cairo publishers include *Dar al Fikr al Arabi*, *Dar al-Fikr al Hadith Li-t-Tab wan Nashr*, *Dar wa Ma'adhi*, *Dar al Nahda al Arabiya*, *Dar al-Misriya Li-t-Tasil wal-Tardima*, *Dar al-Qalam*, *Dar ath Thagaba Majlis al-Ala Li Risyat al-Furum*, *Maktaba Ain Shams*, *Maktaba al-Andalus*, *al-Misriya Maktabat al-Chandshi*, *Maktabat al-Nahira al-Hadith*, *Yarkaz Tasjil al-Athar al-Misriya*, *Maibat ar-Risala al-Qawmiya Li-t-Tiba wan Nashr*, *Wizarat ar-Ziwa Maslahat al-Basatin*

RADIO AND TELEVISION

U.A.R. Radio and Television Corporation: Cairo; f. 1971; general supervisory body under the Ministry of Information; Chair. YEHA.

RADIO

U.A.R. Broadcasting Corporation: Corniche el Nil, Cairo; f. 1928; 173 hours daily; Chair. MUHAMMAD AMIN HAMMAD; Dir.-Gen. Arabic Programmes MAHMOUD SHAABAN; Dir.-Gen. Foreign Programmes AHMED TAHER.

Home service programmes in Arabic, English, French, German, Greek and Italian; foreign services (The Voice of the Arabs) in Arabic, Bambara, Dankali, Fulani, Hausa, Hindi, Indonesian, Lingala, Malay, Nyanya, Pushtu, Russian, Shoha, Yoruba, Sesotho, Sindbele, Voltof, Siami, Zulu, Thai, Bengali, English, Urdu, Sudanese dialects, Swahili, Amharic, Somali, Kurdish, Turkish, Persian, French, German, Italian, Portuguese, Spanish and Hebrew; cultural programme in Arabic; publs. *Broadcasting and TV* (weekly), *Broadcasting Art* (quarterly).

Middle East Radio: Société Egyptienne de Publicité, 24 Sharia Galal, Cairo; f. 1964; commercial service with 500-kW. transmitter; U.K. Agents: Radio and Television Services (Middle East) Ltd., 21 Hertford St., London, W.1.

In 1970 there were 4,275,000 radio receivers.

TELEVISION

U.A.R. Television Organization: Corniche el Nil, Cairo; f. 1960; 150 hours weekly (three channels); Chair. ABDEL HAMID YOUNES; Dir.-Gen. Programmes SAAD LABIB.

In 1970 there were about 550,000 television sets. In January 1969 the U.A.R. announced that it is to adopt the French Secam colour television system. The country is a member of the URTNA, OIRT and Arab Broadcasting Union.

Société Egyptienne de Publicité: 24 Sharia Gallal, Cairo; handles all television (and cinema) advertising.

FINANCE

BANKING

(cap.=capital; p.u.=paid up; dep.=deposits; m.=million; amounts in £ Egyptian)

All banks were nationalized in 1961.

CENTRAL BANK

Central Bank of Egypt: 31 Sharia Kasr-el-Nil, Cairo; f. 1961; cap. 3.0m., dep. 260m. (June 1970); Governor AHMED ZANDO.

COMMERCIAL BANKS

Bank of Alexandria, S.A.E.: 6 Salah Salem St., Alexandria; f. 1957; cap. 2m.; dep. 173m. (June 1970); Pres. AHMED ABDEL GHAFAR.

Banque du Caire: 22 Sharia Adly, P.O.B. 1495, Cairo; f. 1952; cap. and reserves 25m., dep. 66.6m. (June 1970); Chair. HASSAN ZAKI AHMED; Man. Dir. MUHAMMAD EZZAT FAHMY.

Banque de Port Said (formerly Banque Belge et Internationale en Egypte): Head Office: 155 Mohamed Farid St., Cairo; Foreign Relations Dept.: 18 Talaat Harb St., Alexandria; f. 1929, nationalized 1960; incorporated the Bank Al Goumhouriya 1964; cap. 1m.; dep. 108m. (June 1969); Chair. MUHAMMAD ABBAS ZAKI; Man. Dir. MAHMOUD F. RIZK.

Banque Misr, S.A.E.: 151 Sharia Mohamed Farid, Cairo; f. 1920; nationalized 1960; incorporated Bank of Suez and Banque Collectivité Financière 1964; cap. 2m., res. 27.4m. (June 1970); Chair. and Man. Dir. AHMED FOUAD; publ. *Economic Bulletin*.

National Bank of Egypt: 24 Sharia Sherif Pasha, Cairo; f. 1898; nationalized 1960; incorporated Banque de Commerce 1964; cap. and reserves 8.2m.; dep. 246.2m. (June 1970); 83 brs.; Chair. Dr. HAMED EL SAYEH; Man. Dir. HIKMAT RIZK; publ. *Quarterly Economic Bulletin*.

DEVELOPMENT BANKS

Agricultural Credits and Co-operatives: 11 Sabri Abu-Alam St., Cairo; f. 1964; formerly *Credit Agricole*.

Arab African Bank: 44 Abdel-Khalek Sarwat Street, Cairo; f. 1964; cap. 10m.; undertakes all banking activities

through its branches in the U.A.R. free zones and abroad, and participates in development programmes in Arab and African countries; Chair. and Man. Dir. SULAIMAN AHMED AL HADDAD; branches in Beirut and Dubai.

STOCK EXCHANGES

Cairo Stock Exchange: 4A Cherifein St., Cairo; f. 1883; Pres. SHOUMDI AZER.

Alexandria Stock Exchange: Pres. M. HASSAN HAGGAG.

INSURANCE

Egyptian General Insurance Organization: 1 Kasr-el-Nil St., Cairo; f. 1961; Chair. ABD-EL-HAMID EL SARRAG.

Al Chark Insurance Company, S.A.E.: Cairo: 15 Sharia Kasr-el-Nil; f. 1931; Chair. AHMED ZAKI HELMI; general and life; incorporates *Nile Insurance Co.*, *Al Mottahida Insurance Co.*, and *Africa Insurance Co.*

Commercial Insurance Company of Egypt, S.A.E.: 7 Midan E. Tahrir, Cairo; f. 1947; life, fire, marine, accident; Managing Dir. AHMED ZAKY HELMY.

Egyptian Reinsurance Company, The, S.A.E.: 28 Talaat Harb St., P.O.B. 950, Cairo, f. 1957, Chair. and Man. Dir. FATHI MUHAMMAD IBRAHIM.

L'Epargne, S.A.E.: Immeuble Chemla Sharia 26 July, P.O. Box 548, Cairo; all types of insurance.

Al Iktisad el Shabee, S.A.E.: 11 Sharia Emad El Dine, P.O. Box 1635, Cairo; f. 1948; Man. Dir. and Gen. Man. W. KHAYAT.

Al Mottahida: 9 Sharia Soliman Pasha, P.O. Box 804, Cairo; f. 1957.

National Insurance Company of Egypt, S.A.E.: 33 Sharia Nabi Danial, P.O.B. 446, Alexandria; f. 1900; incorporates the Alexandria Insurance Co. and the Cairo Insurance Co.; cap. 750,000; Chair. and Man. Dir. AHMED NABIH YOUNES.

Provident Association of Egypt, S.A.E.: 9 Sharia Sherif Pasha, P.O. Box 390, Alexandria; f. 1936; Man. Dir. C. G. VORLOOU.

TRADE AND INDUSTRY

Since July 1961 the U A R Government has been nationalizing trading and industrial enterprises, and by 1965 small scale retailing was the only branch of the economy left substantially in private hands

CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE

ALEXANDRIA

Egyptian Chamber of Commerce, Alexandria: El Ghorfa Eltegaria St, Pres ABDEL HAMID SERRY Vice Pres ABDEL SATTAH ARAFAH Mostafa KAMAL BARAKAT Treas ALY EL KATA TAWFIC EL MELIGY, Sec AHMED EL ALFI MUHAMMAD Gen Dir MUHAMMED FATHY MAHMOUD

Camera di Commercio Italiana di Alessandria: P O B 1763, f 1835, 173 mems, Pres CAV LUIGI F POLVARA, Vice-Pres Ing ROBERT MITROVICH SJ EMILIO LINDI, Sec. of Council Ing CARLO SCARPOCCHI, Treas PIER LUCA CAPPICCI, Sec-Gen PIERO FAZZI, publ *Rivista degli Scambi* Italo Egiziani

Chambre de Commerce Hellénique: 19 Shana Sherif Pasha f 1901, Pres YANKO CHRYSOVERGHI Vice Pres C. GEORGIAFENDIS C. NANOPOULOS Treas CHR. KOKKINOS, Hon Sec ALEX M CASULLI

Chambre de Commerce Turque: 9 Shana Sherif Pasha, Hon. Pres. TAHIA CARIM, Pres ILHAM CAKIN, Vice-Pres IZZET LEVENDER and KASSIM KUTAY, Treas HABIB ALEX DIAB, Sec Gen ZIYA SÖNMEZ

CAIRO

Egyptian Chamber of Commerce, Cairo: El Falaki St; Pres. MUHAMMAD SAYED YASSIN, Vice-Pres ALY EL BEREER AHMED ABDEL-NAWI EL-ISRANDARANI, Sec-Gen KAISSAR BOULOS GAD EL-KARIM, Treas MUHAMMAD A. R. SAMANA, publ *Monthly Bulletin*

Cairo Chamber of Commerce: 4 Midah El Falaki St, f 1913 Pres MUHAMMAD ALI SHRETA, Vice Pres IBRAHIM SALEM ABDEL-AZIZ EL-TOKHI Treas ABDEL MENEM MOHMOUD EL-SHERIF, Gen Sec MUHAMMAD SAYED ABDEL MOYEN, 150 000 mems, publ *Protesto Review* (weekly), *Monthly Bulletin*

Camera di Commercio Italiana per l'Egitto: 33 Shana Abdel Khalek Sarwat P O Box 19 f 1947, Pres GIUSEPPE SCHIRALLI Vice Pres Ing ITALO RAGNI 130 mems, publ *Rivista degli Scambi Italo Egiziani* (every three months)

Chambre de Commerce Hellénique du Caire: 17 Shana Soliman El Halabi, f 1923 Pres P ARSLANOGLU Vice Pres CH EGYPTIADIS Sec G SAMARAS

German-Arab Chamber of Commerce in the U A R: 12 Shana Sherif Pasha Cairo f 1951, Pres RUDI STAERKER Sec-Gen Assessor KLAUS DALZER publ *German Arab Trade*

Representation of Federal Chamber of Foreign Trade of Yugoslavia: 47 Shana Ramses, P O B 448, Cairo, f 1954 Sec-Gen D STANKOVIC

OTHER TOWNS

Aswan Chamber of Commerce: Abtal El Tahrir Street Aswan

Asyut Chamber of Commerce: Asyut

Bohera Chamber of Commerce: Gombouriya Street, Damanhour.

Beni-Suef Chamber of Commerce: Mamdouh Street, Moqbel El-Guedid Beni Suef

Dakahlia Chamber of Commerce, Mansura: El Saleh Ayoub Square Mansura

Damietta Chamber of Commerce: Damietta

Fayum Chamber of Commerce: Fayum

Gharbia Chamber of Commerce: Tanta

Giza Chamber of Commerce: El-Saa Square Giza

Ismailia Chamber of Commerce: Ismailia

Kafr-el-Sheikh Chamber of Commerce: Kafr el Sheikh

Kena Chamber of Commerce: El Gamil Street, Kena

Menia Chamber of Commerce: Menia

Munufia Chamber of Commerce: Sidi Fayed Street, Shubin El Kom

Port Said Chamber of Commerce: Port Said

Kalyubia Chamber of Commerce: Benha

Sharkia Chamber of Commerce: Zagazig

Suez Chamber of Commerce: Suez

Suhag Chamber of Commerce: Suhag

NATIONALIZED ORGANIZATIONS

General Organizations under the Ministry of War

Military Facilities and Aviation Industries: 8 Gemaee St Garden City Cairo

Air Transport: 11 Emmad El Din St, Cairo

Aquatic Resources: Medinet Nasr, Cairo, 3 companies

Armed Forces: 90 Sh Al Azhar Cairo

General Organizations under the Ministry of Industry, Mineral Resources and Electricity

Food Industries: 6 Saleh Saleh St Agouza Cairo, 27 companies products include most basic foodstuffs tobacco sugar soft and alcoholic drinks confectionery, essential oils essences soap perfumery and cosmetics, 90 000 workers Dir Prof Dr HASSAN ASHMAWI

Spinning and Weaving: 5 Tolombat St, Garden City, Cairo 33 companies

Technical Industries: 28 Talaat Harb St, Cairo, 14 subsidiary companies working in transport, steel, electric cable automobile ship building refrigeration rolling stock and other industries Chair Eng HASSAN ABDEL FATTAH Gen. Dir ABDEL MOYEN WAHBY

Electrical and Electronic Industries: 26 Adly St., Cairo, 8 companies

Productive Co-operation and Minor Industries: 8 Ahmed Amin St, Dokki Cairo, f 1960, 12 Sectors, 45 840 mems, Chair SAYED EL MENSRAWI, Dir-Gen HASSAN SALEM

Chemical Industries: 49 Kasr El Nil St, Cairo, 28 companies

Building Materials and Ceramics: 49 Kasr El Nil St., Cairo, 9 companies

Metal Industries: 5 July 26th St, Cairo, 8 companies.

Mining: 5 Tolombat St, Garden City, Cairo, 11 companies

Geological Survey: Abbasiya Post Office Cairo, f 1898, section of General Egyptian Organization for Geological Researches and Mining, Dir-Gen ABDUL HADI ARMED ATTIA, publ five to eight geological works per year

Electricity: Cairo

General Organization under the Ministry of Local Administration:

Alexandria Harbour: Governorate Bldg., Alexandria.

General Organization under the Ministry of Labour.

Social Securities: 1 26th July St., Cairo; 5 Zones.

General Organizations under the Ministry of Economy:

Trade: 9 Talaat Harb St., Cairo; 6 general companies; 2 companies for export of agricultural products; 1 car company; 1 timber company; 3 engineering companies; Pres. MUHAMMAD MORSI SELIM.

Cotton: 19 El-Gomhuriya St., Cairo; 6 export companies, 5 ginning companies and 1 pressing company; Pres. ZAKARIA TEWFIK.

General Organization under the Ministry of Health:

Drugs, Chemicals and Medical Equipment: 9 Emad El Din St., Cairo; 7 companies.

General Organizations under the Suez Canal Authority:

Maritime Transport: 1 Alfi St., Cairo.

Inland Transport Organization: 4 Yousef Abbas St., Nasr Town, Cairo; f. 1961; 4 goods transport companies; 4 fluvial transport companies; 4 road construction companies; 1 vehicle repairs company; Chair. M. EL-B. FOUAD; Dir. Gen. A. M. EL-MADANI.

General Organizations under the Ministry of Housing:

Housing and Rehabilitation: 18 El Borsa El Kadima, Tawfikeia, Cairo; 5 companies.

Co-operative Housing: 12 Gamet el-Dowal el-Arabiya, Cairo.

Construction and Building Works: 14 Talaat Harb, Cairo.

General Organizations under the Ministry of Culture:

Editing and Publishing: 117 Corniche St., Cairo.

Egyptian General Organization for Tourism and Hotels: 4 Latin America St., Garden City, Cairo; (under the auspices of the Ministry of Tourism).

General Organizations under Ministry of Information.

U.A.R. Broadcasting and T.V. Corporation: Corniche, el Nil, Cairo.

General Organizations under the Ministry of Land and Agrarian Reform:

Land Reclamation: 22 Murad St., Giza, Cairo; 5 companies

Land Development: El Mogamma Bldg. of Dokki, Dokki, Cairo; Pres. MUHSIN IDRIS.

Desert Development: 70 El Gomhuriya St., Cairo.

General Organizations under the Ministry of Agriculture:

Co-operative Agriculture: Misr Insurance Bldg., Giza Square, Giza, Cairo; f. 1960; Dir.-Gen. ABDEL LATIF MANDOUR; publ. *Agricultural Co-operation* (monthly).

Poultry: Kasr Yousef Kamal, Matariya.

Meat: 29 Yehya Ibrahim St., Zamalek, Cairo.

OIL

Egyptian General Petroleum Corporation (EGPC): Cairo; state supervisory authority for the development of the national oil resources; has entered into 50 : 50 partnership agreements with a number of foreign companies; Pres. ALI WALI; Dir.-Gen. AHMAD IZZ-AL-DIN HILAL.

Egyptian Marine Petroleum: Cairo; f. 1970; partnership between EGPC and North Sumatra Oil Development Corporation (an amalgam of Japanese interests, the largest being the Japanese Petroleum Development Corp.); has concession in the Ras Gharib area in the Gulf of Suez.

Compagnie Orientale des Pétroles: Cairo; partnership between EGPC and International Egyptian Oil Company (owned principally by ENI of Italy); developed the Sinai oilfields now occupied by Israel.

Gulf Petroleum Company: Cairo; partnership between EGPC and Pan American Oil (a subsidiary of Standard Oil of Indiana); developed the Morgan oilfield on the western side of the Red Sea, producing 300,000 barrels per day in early 1970; also holds exploration concessions for territory in the Western Desert and the Nile delta.

Western Desert Operating Petroleum Company: Alexandria; f. 1967 as partnership between EGPC and Phillips Petroleum; developed Alamein field in the Western Desert, producing approx. 40,000 barrels per day in early 1970; Chair. Dr. MAHMOUD AMIN.

EMPLOYERS' ORGANIZATIONS

Federation of Industries of the United Arab Republic: P.O.B. 251, 26A Sharia Sherif Pasha, Cairo, and P.O.B. 1658, 19 rue Gare du Caire, Alexandria; f. 1922; Pres. Dr. Eng. MAHMOUD ALY HASSAN; represents the industrial community in the U.A.R.

AFFILIATED ORGANIZATIONS

Chamber of Food Industries: Pres. Dr. HUSSEIN TEWFIK TAPOZADA.

Chamber of Building and Construction Industry: Pres. Eng. HASSAN MUHAMMAD HASSAN.

Chamber of Cereals and Related Products Industry: Pres. FAWZI YOUSSEF REFAI.

Chamber of Chemical Industries: Pres. Dr. HASSAN IBRAHIM BADAWI.

Chamber of Engineering Industries: Pres. Eng. MUHAMMAD ABDEL BAKI EL-KOSHEIRY.

Chamber of Leather Industry: Pres. Dr. HASSAN IBRAHIM EL SERZY.

Chamber of Metallurgical Industries: Pres. Eng. Dr. ABDEL FATTAH NAGUIB.

Chamber of Petroleum and Mining: Pres. Eng. ALI MUHAMMAD AMIN WALI.

Chamber of Printing, Binding and Paper Products: Pres. Eng. YOUSSEF BAHGAT.

Chamber of Spinning and Weaving Industry: Pres. HAMED EL MAAMOUN HABIB.

Chamber of Wood Products Industry: Pres. Eng. SAYED ABDEL MOATI MAHMOUD.

TRADE UNIONS

U.A.R. Federation of Labour (U.A.R.F.L.): 70 Gomhuriya St., Cairo; f. 1957; 27 affiliated unions; 1.5 million mems.; affiliated to the International Confederation of Arab Trade Unions and to the All-African Trade Union Federation; Pres. AHMED FAHIM; Sec.-Gen. ABDEL-LATIF BOULTIA; publ. *Misrlab News* (monthly, English).

Arab Federation of Food Workers (AFFW): P.O.B. 877, Cairo; 500,000 mems.; Gen. Sec. SAAD MUHAMMAD AHMED.

Federation of Arab Engineers: Cairo; budget 1965-66: £E 15,000; Sec. MUHAMMAD SAKA.

General Trade Union of Agriculture: 31 Mansour St., Bab al-Louk, Cairo; 350,000 mems.; Pres. SALAH AL DIN ABU AL-MAGI; Gen. Sec. NASR AL DIN MUSTAPHA.

General Trade Union of Banking and Insurance: 2 Al Qadi al Fadl St., Cairo; 32,000 mems.; Pres. MUHAMMAD FATHI FOUDA; Gen. Sec. MUNIR HABASH.

General Trade Union of Building Industries: 9 Emad el Din St., Cairo; 46,000 mems.; Pres. ABD AL MUTALE SALEM; Gen. Sec. HAMED HUSSAIN BARAKAT.

UNITED ARAB REPUBLIC—(TRADE AND INDUSTRY TRANSPORT)

General Trade Union of Business and Management Services 387 Port Said St Bab al Khalk, Cairo 46 000 mems
Pres. AWAD ABD AL QADER Gen. Sec. ABUL AL RAHMAN KHEIR

General Trade Union of the Chemical Industries 76 Gomhouria St., Cairo 60 000 mems Pres MUHAMMAD ASAAD RAGEH Gen. Sec. HAMYA ALI MAHJOUR

General Trade Union of Engineering Electrical and Metal Industries 118 Mohamed Farid St Cairo 70 000 mems Pres MUHAMMAD ABU KHALIL Gen. Sec. SAID GOMAA ALI MANSOUR

General Trade Union of Nutritional Industries 3 Hosni St Qubba al Hadaek P O B 2230 Cairo 125 000 mems
Pres SAAD MUHAMMAD AHMED Vice-Pres HASSAN EL FAYOUMI publ *El Ghezzeah* (monthly)

General Trade Union of Railways 47 Al Tera al Boula quiya St Ca ro 46 000 mems Pres MUHAMMAD ATTIO Gen. Sec. AHMAD FAWZI ALI

General Trade Union of Textiles 327 Shoubra St Cairo f 1960 250 000 mems Pres SALAH GHARIB

TRANSPORT

RAILWAYS

Egyptian Railways (E R) Cairo Station Cairo f 1852 Mileage and gauge 2 803 miles 4 ft 8½ in main lines 1 614 miles 4 ft 8½ in auxiliary lines Chair of Board Eng ALY FAHMY EL-DAGESTANY

Alexandria Region Passenger Transport Organisation 21 Place Saad Zaghloul P O B 466 Alexandria controls tramways buses and 27 miles of suburban electric railway (4 ft 8½ in) Chair AHMED ZAKY

Helopolis Company for Housing and Inhabiting 28 Ibrahim El Lakkany St Helopolis Cairo 31 miles 148 railcars Gen. Man. Eng ABDEL MONEIM SEIF

A 6½ mile underground railway is under consideration in Ca ro

ROADS

Administration of Roads and Land Transport Sharia Kasr el Aini Cairo Dir. Gen. Ing MUHAMMAD EL BEDEWI FUAD

There are good metalled main roads as follows: Cairo Alexandria (desert road) Cairo-Benna Tanta Damanhur Alexandria Cairo-Suez (desert road) Cairo-Ismailia Port Said or Suez Cairo-Fayum (desert road) in 1970 there were over 13 000 miles of good metalled roads

Automobile Club d Egypte 17 rue Kasr-el Nil Cairo Sec. Gen. IBRAHIM RACHID

Public Authority for the Free Zone of Port Said f 1965 to supervise the development of the free port of Port Said

SHIPPING

United Arab Maritime Co 2 rue de l'Ancienne Bourse Alexandria f 1930 services Alexandria/Europe Canada Black Sea Adriatic Sea and Africa Chair M Y RAMADAN

American Eastern Trading and Shipping Co, S A E 17 Sharia Sesostria Alexandria Pres M E WAGNER Manager Egypt AHMED LAUTB TAHIO

Egyptian Stevedoring and Shipping Co, S A E 17 Sharia Sesostria Alexandria f 1946 Pres J H CHALHOUB Manager MUHAMMAD FAHMY TAHIO

Thebes Shipping Agency P O Box 45 41 Shana Nebi Daniel Alexandria maritime transport.

THE SUEZ CANAL

Suez Canal Authority (Hay at Canal Al Suez) Ismailia Chair and Man. Dir. Eng MASHUR AHMED MASHUR

Length of Canal 107 miles Maximum depth 53 ft Maximum width (at water level) 660 ft Minimum width (at depth of 36 ft) 316 ft The Canal has been closed since the war in June 1967 (See page 61 for a more detailed description)

CIVIL AVIATION

United Arab Airlines (Misraiy) Head Office Almaza Airport Helopolis Cairo f 1932 (1961 as UAA) operates internal services in the United Arab Republic and external services throughout the Middle East Far East and Europe Man. Dir. ABDEL RAHMAN ENAN Gen. Man. MUHAMMAD SOLIMAN EL HAKIM the fleet consists of two Boeing 707/320C seven Comet 4C jets four Ilyushin 18 six Antonov 24 and two DC-6s

FOREIGN AIRLINES OPERATING THROUGH THE U A R.

The following foreign airlines serve the U A R
Aeroflot Air France Air India ALIA (Royal Jordanian Airlines) Altaba AUA (Austrian Airlines) BEA BOAC BUA CSA (Ceskoslovenské Aeroline) Cyprus Airways Ethiopian Air Lines Garuda Ghana Airways Interflug Iraqi Airways JAL (Japan Airlines) JAT (Jugoslovenski Aero Transport) K.L.A. (Kingdom of Libya Airlines) KLM Kuwait Airways LOT (Polskie Linie Lotnicze) Lufthansa MALEV (Magyar Legkocsikeles Vallalat) MEA Olympic Airways Pan Am PIA (Pakistan International Airlines) Qantas Sabena SAS Saudi Arabia Airlines Sudan Airways Swissair TAROM (Transporturile Aeriene Romane) TWA and UTA

TOURISM

Ministry of Tourism: 110 Sh. Kasr el Aini, Cairo; f. 1965 to replace the *State Tourist Administration*, f. 1935; branches at Alexandria, Port Said, Suez, Luxor and Aswan; Minister of Tourism MUHAMMAD AWAD AL KONI.

General Organization for Tourism and Hotels: 4 Latin America St., Garden City, Cairo; f. 1961; affiliated to the Ministry of Tourism.

Authorized foreign exchange dealers for tourists include the principal banks and the following:

American Express of Egypt Ltd.: 15 Kasr el Nil St., Cairo; f. 1919.

Thomas Cook and Son: 4 Sharia Champollion, Cairo.

CULTURAL ORGANIZATION

Ministry of Culture: Cairo; Minister SARWAT OKASHA.

PRINCIPAL THEATRES AND ORCHESTRA

Pocket Theatre: Cairo; f. 1961.

Cairo Opera House: Cairo; Gen. Man. SALEH ABDOUN.

Home of the following:

Opera Lyric Troupe.

Opera Ballet.

Opera Chorale.

Cairo Symphony Orchestra.

Members frequently take part in performances with visiting opera companies.

National Puppet Theatre: Cairo.

NATIONAL DANCE TROUPES

National Folklore Dance Troupe: Cairo; frequently performs on tours abroad.

Reda Folklore Dance Troupe: 50 Kasr el Nil St., Cairo; f. 1959; frequently performs on tours abroad; Dirs. MAHMOUD REDA, ALI REDA; Principal Dancers FARIDA FAHMY, MAHMOUD REDA; Composer and Conductor ALI ISMAIL.

ATOMIC ENERGY

Atomic Energy Organization: Dokki, Cairo; f. 1955; Dir. DR. SALAH HEDAYET. First reactor with 2,000 kW. power, opened at Inchass in 1961.

Regional Radioisotope Centre: Cairo; f. 1957; eleven laboratories for research and development in scientific, medical, agricultural and industrial fields; in 1963 the

Centre was transformed into a Regional Centre for the Arab countries of the Middle East, in co-operation with UN I.A.E.A.

The Institute of Nuclear Engineering at Alexandria University is to use a loan of £E 250,000 from Kuwait to purchase an atomic reactor and laboratory facilities.

EDUCATION

Great importance has been attached to the development of educational facilities by the Republican Government since 1952. Its educational policy states that education is free and should play an indispensable part in the life of every citizen. It was realised that the first and most essential step in the programme of educational expansion was the construction of an adequate number of new schools. In 1952 a Ten Year Plan was inaugurated whereby an organization known as "The Schools Premises Foundation" was given the responsibility of constructing 400 new schools each year. Education, particularly technical education, has continued to be a primary concern of the Government after the formation of the United Arab Republic, and in the 1967-68 budget £E 116 million was allocated to education.

Some 15 per cent of children go to private school, and there are two private universities. The state education system is admitted to be overcrowded at all levels; for this reason an estimated one million children of primary school age are not in fact attending a school.

Primary Education

This is extended to all children between the ages of six and twelve, and is free and compulsory. Four hundred primary schools are being constructed annually. The number of pupils in the primary stage in the year 1952 amounted to 1,540,202 (997,490 boys and 541,708 girls), compared with 3,471,334 in 1967-68 (2,129,884 boys and 1,341,450 girls). In the latter year the pupils were organized into 81,700 classes in 7,800 schools.

Preparatory Education

This is an intermediate stage between primary and secondary education. There were two main different types of preparatory school, general and technical, but the technical schools are being phased as separate institutions at this level. In 1967-68 there were 1,270 preparatory schools, organized into over 20,000 classes attended by about 750,000 children (two-thirds being boys).

Secondary Education

(a) General schools: here the emphasis is placed on academic studies. The aim is to develop the abilities of pupils best qualified for a university education. The number of students in 1967-68 was about 260,000 (180,000 boys and 80,000 girls).

(b) Technical Schools: a vocational training is given in these schools, in agriculture, industry or commerce. To ensure a knowledge of the machinery used in local production, students of industrial schools are given a practical training inside the factories. Owners of large factories are obliged to run training centres on the premises for their own workers. In 1967-68 there were 153,000 pupils in technical schools of various kinds. There were also about 35,000 pupils in 67 teacher training establishments.

University Education

In addition to the old and famous Al-Azhar University, which opened its gates to women students in 1962, there are the universities of Cairo, Alexandria, Ain Shams and Asyut.

Cairo University was founded privately in 1908. In 1928 it became the State University. The American University at Cairo was founded in 1919. Alexandria University in 1942 and Ain Shams in 1950. Another university has been founded at Assiut and was opened in time for the academic year 1957-58. Most universities include the following faculties: Agriculture, Commerce, Dental Surgery, Medicine, Pharmacy, Engineering, Law, Arts and Science.

In addition there are various post graduate courses of study and many students are sent abroad to complete their higher education. More however, come from other countries to study in the U.A.R. In 1966-67 there were about 35,000 foreign students of whom some 23,500 came from the Arab world. In terms of student numbers the leading universities are amongst the world's largest (45,000 students at Cairo University) but the facilities are mostly very overcrowded.

Adult Education

A campaign to promote literacy and adult education is being directed and financed by the Ministry of Education, but, according to law, firms and business houses must combat the illiteracy of their workers. Centres for the teaching of illiterates have also been created in the army, police and prisons departments. Presidential Decree No. 7 of 1957 set out to reorganize the establishment of institutes and colleges. These institutes consist of teacher training schools for boys and girls, special technical institutes, commercial, industrial and agricultural institutes.

ACADEMIES

Academy of the Arabic Language: 26 Sharia Mourad, Giza, f 1932.

President Dr. TARA HUSSEIN

Vice President Dr. ELMORANDS

Secretary-General Dr. IBRAHIM MADKOUR

Publications: *Review of Academy for the Arabic Language*, *Collections of Scientific Terms*, *Dictionary of Koranic Terms*.

Institut d'Égypte: 13 Sharia Sheikh Ruhane, Cairo, f 1859, studies literary, artistic and scientific questions relating to Egypt and neighbouring countries. Publishes *Bulletin* (annual) and *Mémoires*.

President HUSSEIN FAOUZI

Vice Presidents MOHAMMAD RÊDA MADWAR, FRANÇOIS DUMAS

Secretary-General MAHMOUD HAFEZ

Translator LEBRON MOUSTAFA MOSTAFA

Assistant Secretary R. P. GEORGES ANAWATI

LEARNED SOCIETIES AND RESEARCH INSTITUTES

National Research Centre: al Tahrir Street, Dokki, Cairo, f 1939, began functioning in 1947 and laboratory work started in 1956. fosters and carries out research in both pure and applied sciences, staff of 1,470 scientists and 700 technicians. Library of 60,000 vols.

Director Prof. Dr. AHMAD RIAD TOURKY

Secretary-General Prof. ABD-EL-AZIZ AHMED SALAMA

LABORATORIES

The laboratories are organized into five main departments.

Physics: Sections of Mathematical Physics, General Physics, Thermal Physics, Electricity, Nuclear Physics, Solid State Physics.

Chemistry and Technology: Sections of Physical Chemistry, Inorganic Chemistry, Organic Chemistry, Biochemistry, Analytical Chemistry, Chemical Technology (three sections), Chemical Methods Research.

Earth Sciences: Sections of Geology, General Geophysics, Geochemistry, Industrial Mineralogy, Engineering Geology, Petroleum Geology and Hydrology.

Biology and Agriculture: Sections of Botany, Genetics, Plant Physiology, Soil Research, Plant Disease and Control, Food and Dairy Industry, Animal Physiology, Veterinary Science.

Medicine and Pharmacology: Sections of Physiology and Biophysics, Pathology and Cell Study, Nutrition Research, Hygiene and Therapeutic Medicine, Microbiology and Immunization, Anthropology and Heredity, Pharmacology.

MAIN COMMITTEES

Natural Science Committee

Industrial Committee

Agricultural Committee

Medical Committee

Sociology Committee

AGRICULTURE AND VETERINARY SCIENCE

Egyptian Agricultural Organization: P.O. Box 63, Exhibition Grounds, Gezira, Cairo, f 1898, the Society acts as an information centre for farmers and its activities include seed selection, importation of fertilizers, periodic agricultural and industrial exhibitions, the society has an experimental station and laboratories of botany and genetics at Bahig, chemical and entomological laboratories, and a Cotton Museum at Gezira, there is also an animal breeding section and a stud farm of Arabian horses at Helopolis. Dir.-Gen. AHMED AFIFI, Asst. Dir.-Gen. MOUSTAFA EL-BARTIMI and ABDEL MAGUID YOUSSEF.

Egyptian Desert Institute: Matariya, Cairo, f 1950, a scientific institute for the study and development of desert areas, carries out research in the following: desert agriculture and horticulture, soils, hydrology, geophysics, climatic studies, wind energy, ecology, desert range improvement, soil conservation, animal production. The Institute maintains several laboratories, field stations, a museum, library and a map room. Dir.-Gen. Prof. ABDOU ARY SHATTIA, publishes *Bulletin* (twice yearly) and special publications.

Egyptian Horticultural Society: P.O. B. 46, Cairo, f 1915, Chair HASSAN FARID, Hon. Sec. ABDEL KADER HASSAN, publishes *Horticultural Magazine*.

ARCHITECTURE AND TOWN PLANNING

Building Research Institute: Dokki, Giza, attached to the Ministry of Scientific Research, carries out basic and applied research work on building materials and means of construction, also provides technical information and acts as consultant to the different authorities concerned with building and construction materials, seven specialized laboratories. Dir. Prof. Dr. A. ABDEL AZIZ, publishes bulletins, reports.

THE ARTS

Armenian Artistic Union: 3 Sharia Soliman El Halaby, P.O. B. 1060, Cairo, f 1920, aims promotion of Armenian and Arabic culture. 300 members. Pres. VARGAS DEPOYAN.

Atelier: 1 Sharia St. Saba, Alexandria, society of artists and writers, Hon. Pres. MOUSTAFA FAHMY, Sec.-Gen. L. HERGENSTEIN.

- Egyptian Concert Society:** 17 Sharia Talaat Harb, Alexandria; Pres. JOSEPH TUBBY; Treas. JACQUES VINCENDON.
- Hellenic Artistic Union:** 6 Sharia Bichai, Alexandria.
- High Council of Arts and Literature:** 9, Sharia Hassan Sabri, Zamalek, Cairo; f. 1956; publ. books on literature, arts and social sciences; Sec. YOUSSEF AL SIBAI.
- Institute of Arab Music:** Alexandria, 2 Sharia Tewfik; Pres. AHMED BEY HASSAN; Hon. Sec. ALY SAAD.
- Institute of Arab Music:** Cairo, 22 Sharia Ramses.

BIBLIOGRAPHY AND LIBRARY SCIENCE

- Egyptian Association for Archives and Librarianship:** Appt. 201 Strand Building, Bab Elluk, P.O.B. 1309, Cairo; f. 1956; 538 mems.; Pres. Dr. S. M. EL SHENITI.

ECONOMICS, LAW AND POLITICS

- Egyptian Society of International Law:** 16 Avenue Ramses, Cairo; f. 1945; objects: to promote the study of international law and to work for the establishment of international relations based on law and justice; Pres. Prof. Dr. GABER G. ABDUL RAHMAN; Vice-Pres. GAMAL NAGUIB, Dr. EZZEDINE ABDALLA; Hon. Vice-Pres. JASPER Y. BRINTON; 367 mems.; library contains 1,560 books and 700 sets of periodicals; publ. *Revue Egyptienne de Droit International*.
- Egyptian Society of Political Economy, Statistics and Legislation:** 16 Avenue Ramses, Cairo, P.O.B. 732; f. 1909; Pres. Dr. ABDEL HAKIM AL RIFAI; Gen.-Sec. Dr. GAMAL AL OTEIFI; 920 mems.; library contains 13,500 vols.; publ. *L'Egypte Contemporaine* (quarterly, in Arabic, English and French), and numerous other publications in economics and law.
- Institute of Arab Research and Studies:** 1 Tolombat St., Garden City, Cairo; f. 1953; attached to the League of Arab States; Dir. Prof. M. KHALAFALLAH AHMAD; publs. books on Arab subjects and *Bulletin of the I.R.A.S.* (annually).
- Institute of National Planning:** Salah Salem St., Nasr City, Cairo; f. 1960; Gen. Dir. Dr. ISMAIL SABRY ABDALLA; Sec.-Gen. MOHAMED FAHMY; publs. *Memoranda*.

EDUCATION

- Education Documentation Centre for U.A.R.:** Central Ministry of Education, 33 Sharia Falaky, Cairo; f. 1956; educational documentation, and training centre for documentalists on a regional basis; 12,000 documents; Dir. Mrs. ZIENAB MEHREZ; publs. *Contemporary Trends in Education, Educational Information Bulletin*, and various works on education in the U.A.R. and the Arab world.

HISTORY, GEOGRAPHY AND ARCHAEOLOGY

- Deutsches Archäologisches Institut (German Archaeological Institute):** Sharia Gezira al Wusta 22, Cairo-Zamalek; Dir. Prof. Dr. WERNER KAISER.
- Egyptian Geographical Society:** Sharia Kasr El-Aini (Jardin du Ministère de Travaux Publics); P.O.B. Kasr El Doubara, Cairo; f. 1875, reorganized 1917; Pres. SOLIMAN A. HUZAYN; Sec.-Gen. MUHAMMAD M. ALSAYYAD; publ. bulletins; library: see Libraries.
- Hellenic Society of Ptolemaic Egypt:** 20 Avenue Fouad I, Alexandria; f. 1908; Pres. Dr. G. PARTHENIADIS; Sec. COSTA A. SANDI.
- Institut Dominican d'Etudes Orientales:** Priory of the Dominican Fathers, 1 Sharia Masna al-Tarabish, Abbasiyah, Cairo; f. 1952; Dir. Père G. C. ANAWAT; publ. *Mélanges* (yearly); library: see Libraries.

- Institut Français d'Archéologie Orientale (French Institute of Oriental Archaeology):** Cairo; f. 1898; Dir. S. SAUNERON.

- Office for the Preservation of Arabic Monuments (Idarit Hifz el-Assar el-Arabia):** 1 Sharia el-Walda (Qasr-el-Doubara), Cairo; f. 1882; Pres. of the Higher Council H.E. the Egyptian Minister of Education; Dir. MUHAMMAD ABDEL FATTAH HELMY; Pres. of the Permanent Cttee. MUHAMMAD ALY NAMAZY; publ. *Bulletin*.

- Société Archéologique d'Alexandrie:** 6 Sharia Mahmoud Moukhtar, Alexandria; f. 1893; 100 mems.; Pres. Dr. A. SADEK; Sec.-Gen. and Editor D. A. DAOUD; Treas. M. F. MANSOUR; publs. *Bulletins, Mémoires, Monuments de l'Egypte Gréco-Romaine, Cahiers, Publications Spéciales*.

- Society for Coptic Archaeology:** 222 Avenue Ramses, Cairo; f. 1934, for the study of coptology in archaeology, linguistics, church history, liturgy and art; 322 mems.; library of 8,000 vols.; Pres. MIRRIK BOUTROS GHALI; Sec. Dr. ANTOINE KHATER; Treas. Dr. BUTRUS GHALI; Librarian Dr. O. H. E. KHS-BURMESTER; publs. *Bulletin de la Société d'Archéologie Copte* (annual), *Fouilles, Bibliothèque d'Art et d'Archéologie*, Texts, Documents, etc.

INTERNATIONAL CULTURAL INSTITUTES

- British Council:** British Embassy, Kasrah El Dubara, Garden City, Cairo; Representative N. A. DANIEL, O.B.E., PH.D.
- Centro Cultural Hispánico (Hispanic Cultural Institute):** Sharia El Horria 101, Alexandria.
- Deutsches Kulturinstitut (German Cultural Institute/Goethe Institute):** 10 rue des Ptolémées, Alexandria; Dir. Dr. Dr. K. H. BUSCHMAN; two branches in Cairo.
- Istituto Italiano di Cultura (Italian Cultural Institute):** 3 Sharia Sheikh El Marsafi (Zamalek), Cairo; Dir. Prof. VITTORIO POLITI.
- Österreichisches Kulturreferat für den Vorderen Orient (Austrian Cultural Office for the Middle East):** 1103 Sharia Corniche el Nil, Apt. 7, Qasr el Doubara, Cairo; Dir. BERNHARD STILLFRIED, PH.D.

U.S. Information Centers:

- 11 Tarik El Horeya, Alexandria.
6 Sharia Kamal Eldino, Salah, Garden City, Cairo.

MEDICINE

- Alexandria Medical Association, The:** 4 Ibn El-Saigh Street, Alexandria; f. 1921; 900 mems.; Pres. Prof. HUSSEIN KHAIRY TOPPOZADA; Sec. Dr. ALI NOFAL; publ. *The Alexandria Medical Journal* (English, French and Arabic).
- Cairo Odontological Society:** 39 Kasr El-Nil, Cairo; Pres. Dr. ABULNAGA M. ABDEL-AZIM; Sec. Dr. J. ALCÉE.
- Egyptian Medical Association:** 42 Sharia Kasr El-Aini, Cairo; f. 1919; Pres. Dr. SOLIMAN AZMI; Vice-Pres. Dr. IBRAHIM SHAWKI, Prof. Dr. ABDALLAH EL KATEB; Gen. Sec. Dr. MOUSTAFA OMAR; 700 mems.; publ. *Journal* (monthly), in Arabic and English.
- Egyptian Society of Medicine and Tropical Hygiene:** 2 Sharia Fouad I, Alexandria; f. 1927; Hon. Pres. Dr. AHMED HELMI; Pres. Dr. IBRAHIM ABDEL-SAYED; Sec.-Gen. and Treas. Dr. J. KHOURI.
- High Institute of Public Health:** an autonomous unit of the Univ. of Alexandria, 165 El-Horria Ave., El-Hadra Post Office, Alexandria; undertakes fundamental teaching and applied public health research; 29 staff mems. and 23 instructors; departments of Public

Health Administration Biostatistics Nutrition Epidemiology Tropical Health Microbiology and Occupational and Environmental Health Library of approx 8 000 vols Dean Prof A E EL-SHERIF

Medical Research Executive Organization Al Tahrir Dokki Cairo attached to the National Research Centre (q v) includes

Bilharziasis Research Institute Imhala Giza 100 bed hospital Departments of Medical Zoology Pathology Physiology Epidemiology Control Section Environmental Health Section Chemical Section Library

Drug Research Institute (DRI) Al Tahrir Dokki

Industrial Health Research Institute

The Medical Research Institute Alexandria carries out basic and applied experimental and clinical research work in the field of medicine comprises the following units Biochemistry Cancer Research Pathology Histochemistry Cytochemistry Physiology Pharmacology Parasitology Experimental Surgery Radio diagnosis Radioisotopes Medical and Biophysics Dr Dr MOHYEDDIN EL KHARADLY

Nutrition Research Institute

Ophthalmological Research Institute

Memorial Institute for Ophthalmic Research Giza Cairo f 1925 library of 2 800 vols Acting Dir IBRAHIM AHMED MUHAMMAD Pathologist ARDEL FATTAH MOS TATA MUHAMMAD Virologists ZEINAB CHERIF FATMA ZANATI Chemical Dept GAMAL EDDIN ABDIN EL SAYED ALY ELEISH publ *Report*

Ophthalmological Society of Egypt Dar El Hekma 42 Sharia Kasr El Aini Cairo f 1902 Pres Prof Dr M MOHYI EL-DIN SAID Vice-Pres Dr MOHYI EL-DIN ABDALLAH EL-ARABI Hon Sec Dr A A EL-GAMAL 408 mems publ *Annual Bulletin*

Public Health Laboratories—General Administration Ministry of Public Health 19 Sharia Sheikh Rehan, Cairo f 1885 Dir Gen Dr H S YUSUF Diagnostic Laboratories Dr M ROUSHDI Production Laboratory 163 Dr A H WARBA Public Health Services Dr H M EL KASSAS Drug Control Laboratories Dr H EL HAKIM Virology Dept Dr I ZAGLOOL Library of 2 000 vols publs *Bacteriology Virology Sera and Vaccines Production*

Research Institute and Hospital for Tropical Diseases 10 12 Sharia Kasr El Aini Cairo f 1932 Dir A HALAWANI Section Chiefs Tropical Medicine A HALAWANI Helminthology I S HELWAN Entomology I BAZ Biochemistry M H SHAKR Hematology G NOUR EL-DIN Chemical Dept A ABDALLAH Synthetic Chemistry BASHIR ANAKI Virology M DAWOOD Bacteriology KHADIGA ZEIN EL-DIN Protozoology M I EL KARBI Animal Breeding A TAKA library of 1 500 vols four field research stations are attached to the Institute situated at Khanka Fayed Rosetta and El Haram

Serum and Vaccine Institute Agouza Cairo

NATURAL SCIENCES

Alexandria Institute of Oceanography and Fisheries Kayed Bey Alexandria f 1931 Dir SAMY GORGY Sec M SAYED HAMED library see Libraries

Atomic Energy Establishment Dokki Cairo includes research reactor and associated laboratories at Inchass engineering and nuclear instrumentation laboratory geological and raw materials laboratory isotope

production and nuclear chemistry laboratory nuclear physics laboratory and radio-isotopes centre 14 research workers Dir I B HAZZA

Geological Survey and Mineral Resources Department Ministry of Industry Abbasiya P O Cairo f 1898 a department of the General Egyptian Organization for Geological Researches and Mining undertakes geological surveys and mineral prospecting 172 research workers Dir Gen ABDEL HADI AHMED ATTIA

Institute of Astronomy and Geophysics, U.A.R. Observatories Head Office Helwan Cairo f 1903 carries out research studies in geophysics astronomy meteorology comprises the Helwan Observatory the Kat tanyia Observatory and the Magnetic Observatory at Fayyoun attached to the Ministry of Scientific Research Dir Prof MAROUF KHAIRY ALY library of 9 500 vols publs *Bulletins*

Institute of Freshwater Biology 10 Hassam Sabry Street P O Gezira Cairo undertakes research Dir RIAD QURA publs *Fish Biology Pond Culture*

National Chemical Research Centre c/o Industrial Research Executive Organization Dokki Cairo

National Information and Documentation Centre al Tahrir St Dokki Cairo f 1955 accumulates and disseminates information in all languages and in all branches of science and technology comprises six depts Libraries Bibliography Translations Reprography Editing and Publishing and Printing Dir Dr AHMAD ABDEL HAMID KABESH publs *Bulletin of the National Information and Documentation Centre U A R Journal of Chemistry U A R Journal of Animal Production U A R Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences U A R Journal of Veterinary Science U A R Journal of Soil Science U A R Journal of Botany U A R Journal of Geology U A R Journal of Microbiology U A R Journal of Physics*

National Institute for Standards Dokki Cairo attached to the Ministry for Scientific Research Dir Dr SAYED RAMADAN HADDARA comprises

National Physical Laboratory for Metrology for maintenance of national standards for physical units and their use for purposes of calibration functioning at the same time as a research institute

Central Laboratory for Metrology and Material Testing responsible for maintenance of master and working standards as well as the verification and stamping of certain classes of measuring instruments

Red Sea Institute of Oceanography and Fisheries Al Ghardaqa f 1929 in connection with the Faculty of Science Cairo undertakes oceanographical and fisheries research attached to the Ministry of Scientific Research contains a library and a museum regular correspondence is kept up with more than 350 scientific institutions Dir Prof Dr MUSTAFA SALAH publs *Al Ghardaqa Red Sea*

Société Entomologique d'Egypte 14 Sharia Ramses P O B 430 Cairo f 1907 Pres MUHAMMAD SOLIMAN EL ZOHRY Vice Pres Dr AHMED SALEM HASSAN Dr ABDEL OZIZ HAFEZ SOLIMAN Sec Gen Dr MOSTAFA HAFEZ 400 mems publs *bulletins* library see Libraries

PHILOSOPHY AND PSYCHOLOGY

Egyptian Association for Mental Health 1 Sharia Ihhami Qasr al Doubara Cairo f 1948 630 mems

Egyptian Association for Psychological Studies Faculty of Education Ain Shams University Abbasiyah Cairo f 1948 683 mems

UNITED ARAB REPUBLIC—(LEARNED SOCIETIES AND RESEARCH INSTITUTES, LIBRARIES)

RELIGION, SOCIOLOGY AND ANTHROPOLOGY

Social Sciences Association of Egypt: Cairo; f. 1957; 1,234 mems.

TECHNOLOGY

Egyptian Society of Engineers: Sharia Hahdet Misr, Cairo; f. 1920; Pres. HAMED SULEIMAN; Sec. ABDUL-AZIZ AHMED.

Higher Industrial Institute: Aswan; f. 1962; state control; courses in mechanical, electrical and chemical engineering, mining and natural sciences.

Hydrological Research Station: Kanater-al-Khaiyria Barrages, Cairo; f. 1902; technical and scientific research using scale models; Dir. A. A. EL-DARWISH.

Metallurgical Research Centre: c/o Helwan Steelworks, Helwan; set up by the Industrial Research Executive Organization; attached to the Supreme Council for Scientific Research; sections for Ore Metallurgy, Physical Metallurgy and General Services.

Middle Eastern Regional Radioisotope Centre for the Arab Countries: Cairo; f. 1963; trains specialists in the applications of radioisotopes, particularly in the medical, agricultural and industrial fields; conducts research in hydrology, tropical and sub-tropical diseases, fertilisers, and entomology; promotes the use of radioisotopes in the Arab countries.

Mining and Water Research Executive Organization: Dokki, Cairo.

Petroleum Research Institute: Medinat Nasser, Cairo; set up by the Egyptian General Petroleum Corporation; attached to the Supreme Council for Scientific Research; ten sections, dealing with all aspects of petroleum research.

Textile Research Centre: Alexandria; attached to the Supreme Council for Scientific Research; central laboratory and sections for mechanical processing, chemical processing and dyestuffs.

LIBRARIES

Al-Azhar University Library: Cairo; 80,000 vols., including 20,000 MSS.; Librarian M. E. A. HADY.

Alexandria Municipal Library: 18 Sharia Menasce Moharrem Bey, Alexandria; f. 1892; number of vols.: Arabic 33,390, European 35,399, 4,086 MSS.; Chief Librarian Sheikh BESHIR EL-SHINDI; Sec. ANTOINE D. ABD-EL-MESSIH.

Alexandria University Library: 6 Sharia Kenissa El-Inguilia, Stanley Bay, Ramleh, Alexandria; f. 1942; consists of the Central Library (122,225 vols.), 7 Faculty libraries, and the Library of the Institute of Chemical Technology; over 1,000,000 vols.; Dir. BURHAN EL-DIN SAKI; Chief Librarian AMIN EL-BASSOUNI SALLAM.

American University in Cairo Library: 113 Sharia Kasr El-Aini, Cairo; f. 1919; 75,000 vols., 950 periodicals; Acting Librarian Mrs. GRACE LARUDEE.

Arab League Library: Cairo; 35,000 vols.

Assiut College Library: Assiut; 25,000 vols.; Dir. Mrs. W. J. SKELLIE.

Beni Suef Municipal Library: contains 5,447 vols. (Arabic 3,024, European 2,423).

British Council Library: Cairo; f. 1963; 14,400 vols.

Cairo University Library: Orman, Giza; f. 1908; 800,000 vols., 3,725 periodicals; Librarian AHMAD ISSA.

Centre of Documentation and Studies on Ancient Egypt: 4, Sharia Ramses, Cairo; f. 1956; scientific and documentary reference centre for all Egyptian Pharaonic

monuments; publishes a wide range of specialist material on ancient Egypt; Dir. Prof. Dr. AHMED BADAWI.

Damanhour Municipal Library: Damanhour; 13,431 vols.

Egyptian Library: Abdin Palace, Cairo; over 20,000 vols.; Dir. ABDEL HAMID HOSNI.

Egyptian (National) Library (*Dar-ul-Kutub*): Midan Ahmed Maher, Cairo; f. 1870; 1,000,000 vols. (400,000 European); 11 brs. with 250,000 vols., including fine arts library; deposit library; Dir. HASSAN RASHAD.

Fayum Municipal Library: contains 5,355 vols. (Arabic 4,700, European 655).

Geological Survey Library: Abbasiya Post Office, Cairo; f. 1898; 4,000 textbooks, 15,000 periodicals; Dir.-Gen. ABDEL HADI AHMED ATTIA.

Helwan Observatory Library: Helwan; 4,000 vols.

Institute of Advanced Arab Studies Library: 1 Tolombat St., Garden City, Cairo; f. 1953; over 50,000 vols.

Institute of Public Administration Library: 14 Sharia Ramses, Cairo; 6,000 vols.

Library of the Academy for the Arabic Language: 26 Mourad Street, Giza; f. 1934; 20,000 vols.

Library of the Bank of Egypt: 151 Sharia Muhammad Farid, Cairo; over 5,000 vols.; Dir. MUHAMMAD ROUCHDY.

Library of the Geographical Society of Egypt: P.O. Kasr El-Doubara, Cairo; f. 1875; 28,000 vols.

Library of the Greek Orthodox Patriarchate of Alexandria: 166 rue Port Said, P.O.B. 2006, Alexandria; f. 10th century; 40,000 vols., 539 MSS., 2,210 rare editions; Librarian DIMITRIOS TH. MOSCONAS, B.A., M.L.S.; publ. *Analekta* (yearly); houses an Institute for Oriental Studies.

Library of the Institut d'Egypte: 13 Sharia Sheikh Rihane, Cairo; f. 1859; over 160,000 vols.; Librarian Dr. M. KAMEL; publ. *Bulletin, Mémoires*.

Library of the Institute of Hydro-Biology: Kayed Bey, Alexandria; f. 1918; 11,000 vols.; Librarian GIBRI MUHAMMAD ALY.

Library of the Ministry of Agriculture: Giza-Orman; f. 1920; 25,000 vols.; Dir. LATIF IBRAHIM.

Library of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry: Sharia Ismail Abaza Pasha; over 20,048 vols.

Library of the Ministry of Education: 16 Sharia El-Falaki, Cairo; f. 1927; the library contains 55,966 vols. (European and Arabic).

Library of the Ministry of Health: Sharia Sultan Hussein, Cairo; over 27,000 vols.

Library of the Ministry of Justice: Midan Lazoghli, Cairo; f. 1929; over 50,000 vols. and periodicals in Arabic, French and English (law and social science); private library for the use of judges and members of the Parquet (public prosecution and criminal investigation authority); a centre attached to the library contains the latest texts of local and comparative legislature on Personal Status; Dir. I. HANAFTI.

Library of the Ministry of Public Works: El Tahrir Square 'El Mogameh' Building, Cairo; over 7,700 vols.

Library of the Ministry of Waqfs: Qoubbi al-Ghoury, Cairo; f. 1942; 20,219 vols.

Library of the Monastery of St. Catherine: Mount Sinai; f. 327; over 3,300 MSS.; the Codex Sinaiticus was discovered in this library in 1856.

Library of the Priory of the Dominican Fathers: 1 Sharia Masna al Tarabish, Abbasiyah, Cairo; f. 1928; 30,000 vols.; Librarian Father ANAWATI.

UNITED ARAB REPUBLIC—(MUSEUMS UNIVERSITIES)

Library of the Société Entomologique d'Égypte 74 Sharia
Rameses P O Box 430 Cairo 1 1907 29 000 vols and
periodicals

Mansoura Municipal Library contains 17 984 vols (Arabic
13 036 European 4 948)

Minoufiyah Provincial Council Library Shobin El Kom
contains 10 180 vols (Arab c 8 626 European 1 554)

National Archives Qasr Abidia Maydan al Jumhuriyah
Cairo 1 1954 37 800 archives from the ex Royal
Family Turkish and Fore gn Dir M Z REIHAN

National Assembly Library Palace of the National Assem-
bly Cairo 1 1924 over 50 000 vols Dir ANTOUN
MATTÀ

Sharkia Provincial Council Library Zagazig contains
12 238 vols (Arabic 7 861 European 4 377)

Sohag Municipal Library 1 1932 contains 9 408 vols

Tanta Municipal Library contains 20 943 vols

MUSEUMS

Agricultural Museum Dokki 1 1930 exhibits of ancient
and modern methods of Egyptian agriculture horti-
culture irrigation botanical and zoological sections
Dir A Z NAGA Curator NIHAD KHOLOUSI

Anderson Museum Beati el Kethia Cairo 1 1936 private
collections of Oriental art objects bequeathed to Egypt
by R. G. Gayer Anderson Pasha in 1936 Curator
YOUNES MAHRAN

Cairo Geological Museum 15 Sheikh Riham Street Cairo
Dawawin Post Office a section of the Geological Survey
General Egyptian Organization for Geological Re-
searches and Mining 1 1899 26 200 specimens mostly
Egyptian exhibits illustrating all branches of Geology
especially recent acquisitions connected with revival of
industrialization Dir F A. BASSYOUNI

Cairo Museum of Hygiene Midan el Gamhouria Cairo
Dir Dr NAGUIB RIAD

Coptic Museum Masr Ateeka Cairo 1 1908 sculpture
and frescoes MSS textiles icons ivory and bone
carved wood metalwork pottery and glass publs
(1) *Guide to the Coptic Museum* () *Guide to Cairo's
Ancient Coptic Churches* (3) *Catalogue of the Coptic
and Arabic Manuscripts in the Coptic Museum the
Patriarchate the Principal Churches of Cairo and
Alexandria and the Monasteries of Egypt* (2 vols) Dir
Dr SHAFIK FARID

Cotton Museum Gezira Cairo 1 1923 established by the
Egyptian Agricultural Society all aspects of cotton
growing diseases pests and methods of spinning and
weaving are shown Dir M EL BAKHTIMI

Egyptian National Museum Midan-el Tahrir Kasr El Nil
Cairo 1 1900 exhib ts from prehistoric times until the
6th century A.D. excludes Coptic and Islamic periods
Chief Curator Dr HENRY RIAD Houses the Depart-
ment of Antiquities established by decree in 1835 to
conserve antiquities the Department administers the
archaeological museums and controls excavations Dir
Dr GAMAL MUHREZ Librarian Dr DIA ABOU-GHAZI
library contains 31 753 vols publs museum catalogue
*Annals of the Antiquities Service of Egypt Fouilles à
Saggarah Les Temples immergés de la Nubie Les Oases
Égyptiennes* etc

Graeco-Roman Museum Museum Street, Alexandria 1
1892 exhib ts from the Coptic Roman and Greek
eras publ *Annuaire du Musée Gréco-Romain* Dir
Dr HENRY RIAD library of 8 000 vols Librarian
H COMBER.

Museum of Islamic Art Midan Ahmed Maher Cairo
1 1881 collection of art objects representing the
evolution of Islamic art from the spread of Islam till
1879 Dir AHMED MAMDOUH HAMD Chief Curator
MRS WAFA AHMED EZZI Curators SOLIMAN AHMED
SOLIMAN ABDEL RAOUF ALY YOUSSEF HUSSEIN
publs catalogues giving details of the collections and
Islamic minor arts stud es

Museum of Modern Art 4 Sharia Kasr El Nil Cairo 1
1920 Curator SALAH E TANNER

Railway Museum Cairo Station 1 1933 contains models
of foreign and Egyptian railways and technical infor-
mation and statistics of the evolution and development
of the U A R. railway services the library contains
5 208 vols (Arabic 2 433 European 2 785) membership
14 Curator ABU ELFETOUH MISBAH KATAMISH

War Museum The Citadel Cairo library of 6 000 vols

UNIVERSITIES

AIN SHAMS UNIVERSITY

KASR EL-ZAAFRAN ABBASIYAH CAIRO

Founded 1950

Rector AHMED EZZAT ABDULKERIM

Registrar A G EL-AROUSY

Librarian A. A EL DALY

Number of teachers 1 025

Number of students 38 000

Publications Faculty Reviews

DEANS

Faculty of Medicine Prof Dr AHMAD AMMAR

Faculty of Arts Dr H EL-SA'ATY

Faculty of Science Dr M I FARES

Faculty of Engineering Dr H H MOUSTAFA

Faculty of Agriculture H M HAMDY

Faculty of Commerce Prof A. A HEGAZY

Faculty of Law Prof Dr EZZ EL DIN ABDALLAH

Women's College Prof FATHIA HASSAN SOLIMAN

Faculty of Education Prof Dr YOUSSEF SALAH EL-DIN
KOTB

ALEXANDRIA UNIVERSITY

(Garnet El-Askandria)

22 AL-GUEISH AVENUE SHATBY ALEXANDRIA

Telephone 71675 8

Founded 1942

State control Academic year September to May
Languages of instruction Arabic and English

Rector H A BAGHDADY

Vice Rector Dr A F MUHAMMAD

Secretary-General M F LABIB

Chief Librarian A EL B SALLAM

Number of teachers 930

Number of students 26 074 men 6 994 women total
33 068

DEANS

Faculty of Agriculture G S AL-MAHALL

Faculty of Arts Dr G M EL-SHAYAL

Faculty of Commerce A G YOUNIS

UNITED ARAB REPUBLIC—(UNIVERSITIES)

Faculty of Engineering: A. EL-S. MOUSTAFA.

Faculty of Law: Dr. S. EL-WAKIL.

Faculty of Medicine: A. EL-S. DARWICH.

Faculty of Pharmacy: M. M. MOTAWI.

Faculty of Science: M. M. RAMADAN.

ATTACHED INSTITUTE

Centre for Fundamental and Applied Research in Sanitary Engineering: Faculty of Engineering; 30 research workers.

Institute of Nuclear Engineering: f. 1965; Dir. Dr. ISMAT ZEINEDDIN.

AL-AZHAR UNIVERSITY CAIRO

Telephone: 904051, 706097, 906154

Founded 970; modernized and expanded 1961.

Chancellor: Sheikh HASSAN MAMOUN.

Rector: Sheikh AHMED HASSAN ELBAKOURY.

Vice-Rector: Dr. M. A. SALAM FAHMY.

Principal: ABDEL MON'IM RAMADAN.

Secretary-General: Sheikh SALEH MOUSSA SHARAF.

President of the Fatwa Committee: Sheikh MUHAMMAD HASSANEIN MAKHLUF.

Director of Islamic Research Dept.: Sheikh MUHAMMAD FAHIM ISMAIL.

Cultural Officer: Sheikh MUHAMMAD TEWFIK AL-NAHAS.

Officer of Islamic Missions: Sheikh TAHA SAYED MAHMOUD.

Librarian: M. E. A. HADY.

Number of teachers: 705.

Number of students: 15,644 men, 1,208 women, total 16,852 (women were first admitted in 1962).

Publications: *Annual Report*; University and Faculty Calendars.

DEANS:

Faculty of Theology: Prof. Dr. ABDEL HALIM MAHMOUD.

Faculty of Islamic Jurisprudence: Prof. Dr. ALI HASSAN ABDELKADER.

Faculty of Arabic Studies: Sheikh AHMED GHONEIM.

Faculty of Engineering: Prof. Dr. ABDELSALAM FAHMY.

Faculty of Medicine: Prof. Dr. ALI METAWIE.

Faculty of Business Administration: Prof. LUTFY ISSAWI.

Faculty of Agriculture: Prof. Dr. ZAKI SHABANA.

Islamic Women's College: Prof. Dr. ZEINEB ISSMAT RACHED.

PRINCIPAL INSTITUTES AFFILIATED TO THE AL-AZHAR UNIVERSITY:

Asyut Institute: f. 1915; primary section: 642 students; secondary section: 478 students.

Cairo Institute: f. 1903; primary section: 1,704 students; secondary section: 1,656 students.

Damietta Institute (Mosque of Al Bahr): f. 1894; primary section: 462 students; secondary section: 213 students; the library contains 8,857 vols.

Ghaza Institute: primary section: 140 students.

Institute of Alexandria: f. 1903; primary section: 381 students; secondary section: 544 students; the library contains 14,268 vols.

Institute of Mansoura: primary section: 1,347 students; secondary section: 774 students.

Institute of Samannoud: primary section: 745 students; secondary section: 274 students.

Islamic Mission Institute: 3,826 students.

Kena Institute: primary section: 582 students; secondary section: 337 students.

Queraat Institute: for the study of the Holy Koran; f. 1939; 438 students.

Shebin El-Kom Institute: f. 1937; primary section: 470 students; secondary section: 478 students; the library contains 1,816 vols.

Sohag Institute: primary section: 428 students; secondary section: 533 students.

Tanta Institute (Al Gami' El Ahmady): f. 1276, renewed 1769; public division: 65 students; primary section: 1,956 students; secondary section: 1,382 students; the library contains 6,741 vols.

Zagazig Institute: primary section: 1,369 students; secondary section: 750 students.

AMERICAN UNIVERSITY IN CAIRO

113 SHARIA KASR EL-AINI, CAIRO

Telephone: 21830

(American Address: 866 UN Plaza, New York, N.Y. 10017; Telephone: 212-421-6320.)

Founded 1919.

President: CHRISTOPHER THORON.

Vice-President: Dr. AHMED ABDEL GHAFFAR SALEH.

Special Administrator: Dr. NAZIH DEIF.

Dean of the Faculties: Dr. RICHARD F. CRABBS.

Library: (see Libraries).

Number of teachers: 150.

Number of students: 1,300.

Courses in Management, Economics, Solid State Science, Teaching English as a Foreign Language, Islamic History, Islamic Art and Architecture, Arabic Literature, Sociology-Anthropology.

ATTACHED UNITS

Division of Public Service: study programme for 3,600 students per semester; Dir. Dr. OSMAN LABIB FARRAG; publ. *Journal of Modern Education*.

Social Research Centre: Current research projects on demography and human resettlement; Dir. Dr. LAILA EL-HAMAMSY.

UNIVERSITY OF ASSIUT ASSIUT

Telephone: Assiut 3000

Founded 1957.

Chancellor: THE MINISTER OF EDUCATION.

Vice-Chancellor: A. ABD-AL RAZIK.

Rector: Dr. ABD EL WAHAB EL BOROLOSSY.

Vice-Rectors: Dr. MUHAMMAD ABD EL AZIZ EL-HAGRY, Dr. M. H. NASHAR.

Registrar: ABD EL-AZIZ SOBHI.

Librarian: AHMED AZAB.

Number of teachers: 700.

Number of students: 8,071 men, 1,828 women, total 9,899.

DEANS:

Faculty of Science: Dr. ABD EL- HAMID KALIL.

Faculty of Engineering: Dr. M. Z. HATHOUT.

UNITED ARAB REPUBLIC—(UNIVERSITIES COLLEGES SCHOOLS OF ART AND MUSIC)

Faculty of Agriculture Dr M H HASSANEIN
Faculty of Medicine and Pharmacy Dr A M ABU WAF
Faculty of Veterinary Medicine Dr M S EL DIN MOS
 TATA
Faculty of Commerce M H EL NASHAR
Teachers College I E MOTAWH

UNIVERSITY OF CAIRO ORMAN GHIZA

Telephone 845186 846144 846247 846475

Founded in 1908 as the Egyptian University a private institution under the auspices of a committee. In 1925 it became a state institution consisting of the Faculties of Arts Science Law and Medicine this last incorporating the School of Medicine and Pharmacy at Kasr el Aini. In 1935 Faculties of Engineering Agriculture Commerce and Veterinary Science were founded and the Arabic teacher training institution, Dar El Ulum was incorporated in 1946. The separate Faculties of Pharmacy and Dentistry were formed and the Khartoum branch of the University was founded in 1955. The Faculty of Economic and Political Science was founded in 1959. The Faculty of Medicine at Mansoura and the Institute of Statistical Studies and Researches were founded in 1962. A Higher Institute of Nursing a WHO aided enterprise was established and annexed to the Faculty of Medicine in 1964.

Rector Prof Dr GABER GAD ABDUL RAHMAN
Vice Rectors Prof Dr HASSAN IMAIL Prof Dr HASSAN EL CHERIF

Secretary-General MOHAMMED KAMEL SEDIK.

Librarian AHMAD ISSA

Number of teaching staff 2 892

Number of students 64 606

DEANS

Faculty of Arts Dr ABDEL LATIF AHMAD ALY
Faculty of Law Dr ABDEL MONEIM EL SAID BADRAWI
Faculty of Economic and Political Science Dr FATHALLAH EL KHATIB
Faculty of Commerce Dr METWALLI EL GAMAL
Faculty of Science Dr EZZAT KHAIRI
Faculty of Medicine Dr ALE HASSAN SOROUR
Faculty of Dentistry Dr EZZEDINE SEDKI
Faculty of Engineering Dr ABDUL EL SAID
Faculty of Pharmacy Dr SHAFIK BALBAA
Faculty of Agriculture Dr MAHMOUD ABDEL AKHAN
Faculty of Dar al-Ulum Dr M M KASSIM
Faculty of Medicine at Mansoura Dr I A EL NAGA
Institute of Statistical Studies and Research Dr AHMED EBADA SARRAH
Faculty of Science at Mansoura Dr MOHAMMED SALAH EL DIN ABDEL SALAM
Faculty of Teachers at Mansoura Dr MOHAMMED LABIB EL NEGUEHI

ATTACHED INSTITUTE

Institute of Statistical Studies and Research 5 El Gohany St. Dokki Cairo f 1962 as independent entity post graduate and undergraduate training 7 teachers 502 students Dean Dr A E SARHAN

MANSAOURA BRANCH MANSAOURA

Founded 1962

Provisionally attached to the University of Cairo but it is expected to become the nucleus of the new University of Mansoura

Dean of Faculty of Medicine Dr I A EL-NAGA

FACULTY OF MEDICINE

TANTA

Founded 1962

Provisionally attached to the University of Alexandria but it is expected to become the nucleus of the new University of Tanta

Dean Prof M L BAYOUMI

COLLEGES

Arab States Training Centre for Education for Community Development (ASPEC) Sirs-el Lavyan Menoufia f 1952 training of specialists production of prototype educational material research in community development problems

Cairo High Institute of Technology Cairo Helwan f 1964 number of students 3 200

Head OBR Dipl Ing FRANK RUCH

Cairo Polytechnic Institute 108 Shoubra Street Shoubra Cairo f 1961 Engineering Agriculture Commerce
Dir H H MUHAMMAD

Ecole Française de Droit Mounira Mounira Cairo f 1893

Higher Institute for Agriculture Mushutur near Tuhk f 1945 as Higher School for Agriculture reorganized 1957

Dean Dr AMIN ABDUL BARR.

Higher Institute for Agriculture Shebin El Kom number of teachers 15 students 60

Dean AHMED ABDEL LATIF EL-NAYAL.

Higher Institute of Finance and Commerce 26 Sharia Safa Zaghloul Mounira Cairo f 1942 number of students 650

Dean ABDEL LATIF HUSSEIN

Higher School of Applied Arts Giza number of teachers 34 students 200

Director Mitre A Youssef

Mansoura Polytechnic Institute Mit Khamis St Mansoura f 1957 number of teachers 147 number of students 2 290 21 400 vols in library

Director Dr ESSAYED SELIM ELMOLLA

Deans Dr E S ELMOLLA (Industrial Inst.) Dr Y MASOOD (Agric Inst.)

SCHOOLS OF ART AND MUSIC

College of Fine Arts Zamalek Cairo f 1928 number of teachers 41 students 381

Dean Prof Dr AWAD KAMEL FAHMI

Registrar MORCOS FARAG

Librarian M N COUTRY

The library contains 5 134 volumes

Higher School of Applied Arts Giza number of teachers 34 students 200

Director Mitre AHMED YOUSSEF

Higher Institute of Theatrical Art 15 El Maahad El Swissy St Zamalek Cairo f 1958 *Dir* S KHATTAB

Higher Institute of Cinema Pyramids Rd Giza f 1959
Dir MOUSA HAKKI

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Yemen Arab Republic

GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY

The State of the Yemen lies at the south west corner of the Arabian peninsula and comprises two well-defined areas—the highlands inland and the coastal strip along the Red Sea. The climate of the highlands is considered the best in all Arabia since it experiences a régime rather like that of East Africa with a warm temperate and rainy summer, and a cool, moderately dry winter with occasional frost and some snow. As stated below (see Yemen P.D.R.) these conditions are thought to be produced by an upper air current that brings very moist air from the Atlantic, giving rise to a minor monsoonal effect of heavy summer rainfall. As much as 35 inches of rain may fall annually on the higher parts of the interior, with 15–20 inches over much of the plateau, but the coast receives under 5 inches generally, and in the form often of irregular downpours. There is therefore the phenomenon of streams and even rivers flowing perennially in the highlands, but failing to reach the coast.

Because of this climatic gradation, from desert to temperate conditions, the Yemen has a similar gradation of crops and vegetation. The highest parts appear as "African", with scattered trees and grassland. Crops of coffee, qat, cereals and vegetables are grown, whilst lower down, "Mediterranean" fruits appear, with millet, and where irrigation water is available, bananas. Finally, near the coast, the date palm becomes the only tree.

The area of the State of the Yemen is approximately 75,000 square miles and its population has been estimated at 5 million. The capitals are Sana'a (on the d. El Jeha) plateau, altitude 7,260 ft) and Taiz (altitude 4,600 ft), which have populations of 100,000 and 80,000 respectively.

In classical times the Yemen formed part of the south-eastern area of Arabia Felix. One of the best known kingdoms in that region was that of Sheba, which lasted from 950 to 115 B.C. From then until the sixth century A.D. Arabia Felix was ruled by the Himyarite dynasty, from whom the modern Imams claim descent. In A.D. 525 the Ethiopians conquered the Himyarite Kingdom, and they in turn were overthrown by a Persian invasion in 575. During the seventh century the country nominally accepted Islam and the Sunnis of the Sha'fi'ite established their power in the Tihama (the coastal region), and the Zaidis, a moderate branch of the Shia, held the highlands.

During the ninth century the Zaidi Imam Yahya al-Hadi al-Haq founded the Rassid dynasty of the Yemen, which has survived, with some interruptions, to the present time.

In 1517 the Yemen was conquered by the Ottoman Turks, but their power was continually contested by other European powers, and their authority was not great. Fierce tribal and religious warfare led the Turks to establish in 1872 a full occupation of the country under a Turkish *Vaiz*. This occupation lasted until the Mudros armistice of 1918, but in 1911 the Imam Yahya had led a full-scale revolt which secured a treaty confirming Turkish suzerainty, but dividing administrative control between the Imam in the highlands and the Turks in the Tihama and on the coast.

During the first World War the Imam had supported the Turks, and the British had therefore supported Idnisi invaders from the small state of the Asir to the north of

the Yemen. A succession dispute broke out in the Asir in 1923 in the course of which Imam Yahya of the Yemen had occupied the port of Hodeida and the coastal areas. By the Treaty of Mecca in October 1926 the Sheikh of the Asir was placed formally under the protection of Ibn Sa'ud, this position, however, was never enthusiastically accepted by the Imam who continued to bait the new king of Arabia and also to encroach on the British protected territory of the Aden Protectorate. In these activities he seemed to have had the support of Italy, with whom he signed a treaty of friendship in 1926, and a Soviet trade delegation made a brief appearance in the country at this time. In 1930 following on a dispute over his Hijaz borders he encouraged the Sheikh of the Asir to revolt against Ibn Sa'ud, the latter attempted to settle the dispute by peaceful means, and negotiations dragged on until 1934. In April of that year, however, Ibn Sa'ud decided on more drastic action, marching on the Yemen, he drove the Yemeni troops out of Hodeida, and in a bloodless campaign of a month forced them back into Sana'a. The peace treaty of Ta'if allotted Tihama and Najran to Ibn Sa'ud but otherwise left the boundaries of the Yemen undisturbed—a policy of moderation that won him considerable prestige. At the same time Britain formally recognized the independence of the Yemen by treaty, and ended for a time a long series of frontier disputes.

The despotic and conservative Imam Yahya continued to rule until February 1948, when an attempted *coup d'état* by Sayyid Abdullah al-Wazir resulted in his murder; his eldest son, Saif al-Islam Ahmad, however, succeeded to the throne and drove out the insurgent. Since then the Yemen has been co-operating in international affairs, in January 1951 a start was made on the development of the country with British, American and French technical aid, and at the same time full diplomatic relations were established for the first time with foreign powers, including Britain, the U.S.A. and Egypt. During 1953 agreements were concluded with German and Italian firms for the development of the Yemen's mineral resources, including oil coal and iron. Turkish, Iraqi, Egyptian and Pakistani advisers have also been employed in connection with financial and military reforms.

In the winter of 1953 Yemen, with Arab support, began pressing before the United Nations her claims to Aden and the territories of the Aden Protectorate, and throughout the summer of 1954, and again in 1955, there was a series of frontier incidents.

In April 1955 an attempted *coup d'état* against the Imam Ahmad was defeated, and the royal conspirators executed, but one consequence may have been the Imam's decision in August of that year to set up a formal cabinet. During 1956 relations were established with the Soviet Union and a military pact was concluded with Egypt, Saudi Arabia and Syria.

In March 1956 Yemen protested against Britain's grant of an oil concession to the B.P. (formerly D'Arcy) Exploration Company on the Red Sea island of Kamaran, claimed by the Yemen. Further protests were made in July 1958 and May 1959.

The frontier dispute between Britain and the Yemen was continued late in December 1956 and in 1957, when Yemeni tribesmen were reported to have attacked villages in the Aden Protectorate. The Crown Prince visited London for talks in November 1957, but hostilities

flared up again in the spring of 1958 and the political committee of the Arab League denounced the actions of Great Britain in the Aden territories. Two bomb incidents in Aden itself led to the enforcement in May 1958 of a temporary state of emergency. Unsuccessful talks to settle the dispute were held in July 1958 and May 1959. (For a fuller account of the border dispute see the chapter on Southern Yemen.)

A Yemeni delegation, headed by the Crown Prince, visited Cairo in February 1958 for negotiations which led to a federal union between the United Arab Republic and the Yemen, established by an agreement signed in Damascus on March 8th. The new union was named the United Arab States, and was to have a unified defence and foreign policy, and later a Customs union and common currency. Few practical steps were taken to that end and although, in November 1961, the Yemen renewed the agreement for a further three years, the Federation was formally dissolved by the United Arab Republic in December 1961.

In May 1959 disorders followed the departure of the Imam Ahmad to Europe and the Crown Prince Muhammad al-Badr introduced various reforms, including the innovation of a Representative Council. This policy was reversed on the return of the Imam in August.

CIVIL WAR 1962—1969

In March 1961 there was an unsuccessful attempt to assassinate the Imam, who was wounded in the shoulder. The Imam died in September 1962, and was briefly succeeded by his son Muhammad Badr. But a week later a revolt broke out, led by Colonel Abdullah Sallal, supported by troops from the U.A.R. The new Imam fled into the hills after a series of attempts to regain the capital, and Republican forces gained control of most of the country. The Republic was soon recognised by the U.S.S.R. and the United States, and early in 1963 was admitted to the United Nations. Britain, however, continued to give recognition to the Royalist régime, and stated on a number of occasions that she would only recognise the Republic when U.A.R. forces were withdrawn. Fighting continued throughout the year and did not cease until the summer of 1969, having been particularly severe during the winter of 1963–64 and much of 1968. An Observer Mission dispatched by the United Nations found that an agreement for simultaneous withdrawal of U.A.R. troops and Saudi Arabian military supplies had not been implemented by either side. The Mission operated from July 1963 to September 1964.

The rapprochement between U.A.R. and Saudi Arabia in February 1964 suggested that a solution would not be long delayed, and recognition by Jordan of the Republican régime was a further important step towards complete acceptance of the Revolution and its consequences. Britain, nevertheless, maintained her stand in support of the Royalists; the interest of the U.A.R. in driving British influence out of South Arabia (the Yemen Republican leaders were less vehement in this aim than their Egyptian colleagues) only strengthened the determination of the United Kingdom Government.

In May 1964 a new Republican Government was announced under the terms of a new Constitution published in April. The Prime Minister, Hamud Al Jaifi, soon displayed his command of the situation, which was emphasised by the frequent absences of the President for medical treatment in Cairo and Europe. In a policy statement in June a programme of school, hospital and road building was announced, and in July an agreement was signed in Cairo to establish a U.A.R./Yemen co-ordinating council and a joint military command; 90 per cent of the expenses of these ventures would be provided by Egypt, which had already sent an estimated 40,000 troops into the country in support of the Republicans.

In September the UN military observers left the country, while at the same time Sallal was attending the Arab Summit Conference in Alexandria. Following this meeting President Nasser and King Faisal discussed the Yemen situation, and this led in November to a meeting at Erkwit in the Sudan, at which republican and royalist delegations agreed to a cease-fire and the convening of a national congress. Differences over procedure forced the postponement of this, and in December the royalists resumed the offensive. During January the Imam al-Badr proclaimed a constitutional charter. This military and political offensive led to dissensions in the republican cabinet, culminating in the fall of Hamud Al Jaifi in January 1965, and his replacement by Lieut.-Gen. Hassan Al-Amri with a mandate to stiffen the war effort. In April, however, Lieut.-Gen. Amri resigned, and was replaced by the moderate Ahmad Muhammad No'man, who embarked on a policy of conciliation. The long postponed National Congress met in May in the village of Khamer, though without the participation of the royalists, and on May 9 the text was published of an interim constitution, setting up a supreme Consultative Assembly with power to make laws, remove members of the Republican Council, and nominate the President. Despite the energetic efforts of Mr. No'man to achieve a peace settlement, it was not long before his sympathy for the Baathist cause ran him into opposition from the Egyptian authorities, who retained a measure of financial control over the Yemen. In July No'man resigned and after a few days of uncertainty President Sallal announced a new cabinet headed by Lieut.-Gen. Amri. The return to prominence of the military, pro-Egyptian element coincided with a number of important Royalist advances, and relations between the U.A.R. and Saudi Arabia worsened dangerously as each accused the other once again of complicity in the civil war.

THE SEARCH FOR A SETTLEMENT

In late summer events took a more hopeful turn when President Nasser agreed to discuss the Yemen situation with King Faisal at Jeddah. On August 24th, after their two-day conference, the two leaders concluded an agreement on a plan to bring the war to an end and to establish, within fifteen months, a Yemeni government free from outside interference. The agreement stipulated that a cease-fire was to be declared immediately; Saudi Arabia was to stop supplying arms to the Royalist forces; an interim government of moderate politicians, excluding both the Imam al-Badr and President Sallal, was to be set up within three months; after which the Egyptian forces, numbering about 50,000, were to be withdrawn during the ten-month period ending September 23rd, 1966. By November 23rd, 1966, a plebiscite would be held to enable the Yemenis to choose the political form they wish their state to assume.

Although the immediate effects of the Jeddah agreement were hopeful, including the establishment of a more representative Presidency Council for the Republic, and of a U.A.R./Saudi Arabian Peace Committee, the good intentions of the participants to the agreement were soon eroded. In November 1965 a conference of Republican and Royalist envoys meeting at Haradh reached deadlock over the next steps to be taken, and through 1966 the implementation of the agreement seemed less and less likely as relations between Egypt and Saudi Arabia deteriorated. Egyptian troop numbers in the Yemen, far from being reduced, were built up; despite a further U.A.R./Saudi meeting in August in Beirut, chaired by Kuwait, a solution seemed no nearer. Worse still, in September 1966 friction between Lt.-Gen. Amri and President Sallal came into the open when the latter returned to Sana'a. A large delegation, led personally by the Premier, then flew to Cairo to

demand complete independence from U A R for the Yemen régime, and the permanent removal of the President. The U A R response to this was to arrest the members of the delegation, and Sallal himself assumed the duties of the premiership. This was followed by a drastic purge of the republican armed forces and administration and a wave of riots, trials and executions. The dissident republican elements took refuge in the mountains to the north of Sana'a.

During the latter months of 1966 republican and royalist operations began to escalate. Egyptian aircraft were in action, and on several occasions air raids were made on the Saudi Arabian towns of Jizan and Najran. In January allegations were made of the use of poison gas, a charge denied by the U A R.

Meanwhile there was considerable diplomatic activity. In January Sallal formed the Popular Revolutionary Union at a meeting attended by Makkawan (see Southern Yemen). Outside Yemen, a Union of Popular Forces was formed, led by Ibrahim al Wazir, who visited Riyadh and Geneva calling for an Islamic State of Yemen, the withdrawal of Egyptian troops, and the ending of Saudi Arabian aid. On February 11th, 1967, Tunisia and Jordan withdrew their recognition of the Sallal régime. However Jordanian recognition was subsequently restored in consequence of the diplomatic rapprochement with Egypt at the time of the Arab-Israel war of June 1967.

In July, following a major government reorganization, the Royalists took advantage of the run down in Egyptian troops to stage one of the fiercest land offensives for two years. Republican forces were driven from Haradh and the port of Mayda and refugees from the coastal town of al Luhayya had to be evacuated to the British administered island of Kamaran. Later in July the Egyptian military build up was resumed and these localities were retaken. At the end of the month a Royalist spokesman complained to the United Nations of persistent poison gas attacks by Egyptian forces. U A R denials of the use of poison gas were discredited by an independent International Red Cross inquiry in May 1967, which confirmed the use of such gas in a raid on May 10th.

THE EGYPTIAN WITHDRAWAL

Early in August 1967 on the occasion of the meeting of Foreign Ministers at Khartoum to prepare an agenda for an Arab summit conference the U A R delegate announced that the Egyptian Government was once again prepared to put into effect the agreement drawn up with King Faisal of Saudi Arabia at Jeddah in August 1965. The supervision of the withdrawal of troops would be entrusted to a committee of three Arab states. According to Radio Sana'a, a principal factor influencing this change of heart by the Egyptians was the British decision on a definite date for the withdrawal of troops from Aden in January 1968. The implication appeared to be that Egypt saw no further need for the presence of her forces in Yemen after the British withdrawal from South Arabia had taken place. The fact that the U A R was now partially dependent on financial aid from more conservative Arab countries, notably Saudi Arabia, was not mentioned.

On August 31st an agreement on these terms was finally reached by King Faisal and President Nasser at the Arab leaders' conference at Khartoum. Egyptian troops were to be withdrawn within three months, a plebiscite to determine the political future of the Yemen was to be held within a further six months, President Sallal was to lead a transitional government, the whole agreement to be carried out under the supervision of representatives of three independent Arab states, Iraq, Morocco and Sudan.

Although President Sallal immediately protested against the peace plan, his opposition did not prove an obstacle.

The Egyptian army, with an estimated strength of up to 80,000 men, had effectively colonized the Republican held sector of the Yemen and was in general neither popular nor well regarded for its military prowess. Thus its withdrawal, which was completed by January 1968, was not altogether unwelcome although it naturally encouraged the Royalist forces to become bolder. It also led to the deposition of President Sallal in November, carried out while he was on an official visit to Iraq, and the institution of a three man Presidency Council headed initially by Abdul Rahman al-Isani. In December 1967 General Hassan Al Amri, a militant republican, replaced the moderate Muhammad No man on the Council, shortly afterwards he also became Prime Minister, again replacing a more moderate man. The National Liberation Front, the left wing force that had come to power in the newly independent territory of Southern Yemen, also came to possess considerable influence in the Yemen at this time.

The Royalist army continued to make progress early in 1968, and for some time the Republican capital of Sana'a was virtually besieged. Its defendants claimed that the Imam was still receiving generous aid from Saudi Arabia, while much of their own equipment had been taken by the Egyptians. In January the Iraqi, Sudan and Moroccan foreign ministers arranged a peace meeting in Beirut, but it proved abortive as the rival factions could not even agree to meet. By April the pressure on Sana'a had relaxed somewhat, a left-wing plot to overthrow the Al-Amri government was unsuccessful. In June the Royalist leader, Imam Muhammad al Badr, was deposed by his followers in favour of his son (his cousin according to some accounts) Muhammad bin Hussein. A ministerial delegation from Southern Yemen met the leaders of the Republican government in July, apparently for talks regarding the rebels in the hinterland of both countries.

THE END OF THE CIVIL WAR

During the 1968-69 period it became evident that the Royalist military effort was in decline after its major offensive following the Egyptian withdrawal, some accounts claimed that the Royalists ceased to exist as a regular fighting force after a defeat at Hajja in December 1968. By the summer of 1969 the leading members of the Royalist camp were all in exile, and their followers had apparently accepted the Sana'a government. The principal cause of this swift collapse appeared to be a feud within the royal family following the deposition of the Imam. The Saudi Arabian Government's confidence in the Royalists, already weakened by their failure to capture Sana'a, thus diminished further, eventually the Saudis ceased their financial and military assistance on which the Royalists had depended. Since the Republicans were apparently in receipt of substantial arms supplies from other Arab countries and the U S S R, their success was assured.

Nevertheless there was a short lived revival of military activity in the north east during the winter of 1969-70. Rebel tribesmen, said to be opposed to rule from Sana'a rather than positive supporters of the Imam, surrounded the town of Saada for some weeks. This development, plus the massive economic problems faced by the government, led to the resignation of the Prime Minister Abdallah Kurshoum, in February 1970, only six months after he had succeeded General Al Amri. Muhsin Al Amri the Ambassador in Moscow, was then appointed as Prime Minister.

In March 1970 the Premier and the Foreign Minister met Saudi Arabian officials privately during the Islamic

YEMEN ARAB REPUBLIC—(GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY)

Foreign Ministers Conference at Jeddah. Although no formal announcement of the outcome was made, it appeared that an informal peace settlement was agreed upon. As a result, the leading Royalists, apart from the Imam and the royal family itself, returned to Sana'a in May 1970 and were offered a number of posts in the administration. Ahmed Al Shami, the former Royalist foreign minister, joined the Presidential Council, four Royalists joined the cabinet, and others were given high diplomatic or civil service posts or became members of the National Assembly.

The government was said to be anxious to open relations with the Western countries which had recognized the Royalist regime; in July 1969 diplomatic relations with

Federal Germany were restored at a time when several Arab states followed an opposite policy in recognizing the G.D.R. (East Germany). One result was a generous offer of economic and financial aid from Bonn. In July 1970 Saudi Arabia formally opened diplomatic relations with the republic, and within a few days Britain and France followed suit. Drought created a widespread famine in the summer of 1970, and offers of food and medical supplies were received from many countries.

In December 1970, a new constitution was promulgated, providing for a Consultative Council to replace the National Assembly. Elections were held in March 1971.

C.N.B.

ECONOMIC SURVEY

AGRICULTURE

Yemen contains some of the most fertile land in the Arabian Peninsula both in the highlands, where agriculture has always been extensively practised, and in the dry coastal plain of the Tihama. Yemen's best known crop is coffee, grown mainly in the hills behind the Tihama although it is cultivated in various degrees all over the country. It is Yemen's largest foreign exchange earner, but the amount of land devoted to it is decreasing partly because of fluctuations in demand on the world market, partly because the farmers find the narcotic qat to be a more profitable crop. Qat is grown over a very wide area and it is estimated that as much land is devoted to its cultivation as to that of cotton or tobacco.

Dhurra, Yemen's major cereal crop, is grown at any altitude up to 9 000 feet, other cereals are wheat, barley and maize. Although a comparatively large area is allocated to cereals, the yield is poor and Yemen relies on imports of staple foods. A prolonged drought in the years 1968 to 1970 caused the failure of many crops and the resultant famine obliged the Government to import even larger quantities of wheat and cereals. The 1971 season is likely to see improved crops, although it will take some time for the farmers to recover, since their stocks of food and grain have been exhausted. The highland areas also produce many fruits and vegetables: citrus fruits, apricots, peaches, grapes, tomatoes and potatoes being the main crops, but others such as cauliflowers, lettuces, peas, cucumbers and water melons are being introduced at the instigation of the Ministry of Agriculture. The hot Tihama plain produces dates and tobacco and cotton plantations are being established there to form the basis for local industries.

The Government plans to introduce Frisian cattle to the upland regions to improve the local stock and breeding stations are being built in Sana'a, Taiz and Hodeida.

Although rain is more abundant in Yemen than elsewhere in the Peninsula, nevertheless it cannot be completely relied upon and indeed droughts are frequent. Yemen's major concern is therefore, to achieve efficient irrigation and water storage schemes and to utilize the ground water which exists in the Tihama.

United Nations assisted schemes are a survey of the Wadi Zebid area, projects to develop farming in the highlands and in the Tihama, a pilot project for the development of a sugar cane industry, and the expansion of the Government run model farm near Taiz into an agricultural advisory centre.

An agricultural bank is to be established soon, probably with substantial help from Libya.

INDUSTRY

The handicraft industries—textiles, leatherwork, basketry, jewellery and glass making—are beginning to feel the effects of competition from manufacturing

industries in other Arab countries, which threaten the export market for Yemeni goods. The towns of Beit el Faqih Zebid and Hodeida in the Tihama produce textiles of traditional design made from local cotton and indigo dye which, though beautiful, cannot compete in price and durability with modern synthetics and factory-woven fabrics. It is likely, however, that the Government will encourage the traditional crafts, particularly if a tourist industry can be established. Many may well disappear without State patronage.

The existing and projected new industries are based on the traditional handicrafts. There is a state-owned spinning and weaving factory at Sana'a, established under an agreement of 1958 between Yemen and China, and completed in 1967. The plant's capacity is about 7 million metres of fabric per year and it employs about 1 000–1 500 people, many of them women, supervised and trained by Chinese managers. The Bajil textile factory, set up French and Syrian interests in the 1950s, encountered financial difficulties and never went into production. A United Nations report of 1968 recommended its urgent rehabilitation and repair.

There is a small, privately owned aluminium factory at Taiz but no information is available on its administration. The rock salt factory at Salif, managed by the Ministry of Economy, utilizes local salt, which is of very high quality, and exports most of its output to Japan. Projected industries, at various stages of implementation are a pharmaceuticals plant at Taiz, the Bajil cement factory, a fish canning factory and a cigarette factory, both at Hodeida.

Minerals known to exist in Yemen are salt, coal, copper (at Hamoura near Taiz), marble, iron, sulphur, lead, zinc, silver, gold and uranium. Algeria is to help exploit copper deposits and a joint Algerian-Yemeni company, the Yemen Oil and Mineral Industrial Company, was formed in 1969 to explore for oil in the coastal strip and offshore. So far no oil has been found, but French, Canadian and Rumanian firms have shown interest in obtaining concessions. The Salif salt deposits are the only minerals exploited at present on any scale. Salt also occurs at Manb in the east and at Qumah, near Salif.

COMMUNICATIONS

It is only since the revolution in 1962 that Yemen has established regular links with the outside world, and that good roads have been built connecting the main towns. The Sana'a-Hodeida road, completed in 1962, was built by Chinese engineers and is a spectacular achievement. The Sana'a-Saada road, also built with Chinese aid, was scheduled for completion in 1971. The Sana'a-Taiz, the Mocha-Taiz and the Sana'a-Ibb-Taiz roads were built with American aid. The repair and maintenance of these roads is proving a problem, since neither the equipment nor the personnel are available locally.

There are airports at Sana'a, Hodeida and Taiz. Sana'a airport, built by the Russians and now being equipped by West Germany, is capable of taking large aircraft, as is Hodeida, although Taiz is smaller. Yemen has its own airline, Yemen Airlines, and belongs to the International Aviation Union.

A wireless telegraph system exists, dating back to the days of Ottoman rule. The three main towns, Sana'a, Taiz and Hodeida have internal telephone systems and are connected to a number of other towns where telephone exchanges are in operation: Bajil, Ibb, Dhamar, Yerim, Manakha, Zebid, Beit al Faqih and Hais. A six-channel microwave scatter system linking Sana'a and Taiz is being implemented by the United Nations and Sana'a is now linked via Aden with the rest of the world. There are radio transmitters at Sana'a and Taiz and various small wireless communications posts scattered throughout the country. A television system is to be set up by the French firm Thompson-SCF.

FOREIGN TRADE

Yemeni trade statistics at present are unreliable and do not conform to the Standard International Trade Classification. No consistent sets of figures exist giving a complete time series but the United Nations has prepared figures based on the SITC for the years 1964 to 1966 which show a steadily-growing trade deficit. Figures for 1967, 1968 and 1969 are incomplete but further figures issued by the Yemen Bank for Reconstruction and Development for 1970 show that the trade deficit in 1970 was 20.9 million riyals.

Yemen's exports consist entirely of agricultural produce or products of the artisan industries, such as basketry and textiles. Imports of finished goods grew rapidly between 1964 and 1966 and it is likely that this trend will continue. The principal imports are food (particularly in times of drought or famine), vehicles, electrical machinery and petrol. Yemen imports most from Australia, the Soviet Union and France and her main customers are the Soviet Union and Japan. Figures for trade with Yemen P.D.R. are inflated due to transit trade via Aden. The actual volume of trade—178 million riyals worth of imports and 158 million riyals of exports in 1970—is probably rather more than the figures show, since not all trade moves through official channels.

The port of Hodeida is being extended and developed and most trade, particularly from the Eastern Bloc countries, now comes into Yemen through Hodeida, rather than through Aden. The amount of barter trade with the Eastern Bloc is increasing, with China

and the Soviet Union taking deliveries of Yemen cotton and coffee in return for aid with industrial projects and the supply of machinery.

FINANCE AND FOREIGN AID

Yemen has a very large budgetary deficit, which in 1968/69 amounted to over 63 million riyals and is expected to amount to over 90 million riyals in 1971/72. The country is having to rely more and more on foreign assistance for development. Extensive aid has been offered by China, the Soviet Union and the United Nations and smaller amounts by Hungary, Yugoslavia, Bulgaria and Romania. Western aid has come mainly from the United States and West Germany and the Arab countries, notably Algeria and Kuwait, are now taking an interest in Yemen, Algeria in oil and mineral exploitation and Kuwait in the agricultural sector through loans from the Kuwait Fund for Arab Economic Development.

Between 1962 and 1969 a total of \$141 million was offered by China, the Soviet Union and the United Nations alone and Yemen has since 1956 accumulated a total debt of about \$190 million. Even so, aid offered has been in excess of aid drawn and many development projects have been held up for years. This was partly due to the uncertain political situation during the years of the Civil War and partly because the riyal was depreciating rapidly, making the use of foreign aid difficult and expensive. There is still no official exchange rate for the Yemeni riyal, but it now appears to have settled at about 13 riyals to the pound sterling, compared with about 3 or 4 riyals to the pound in 1965.

Besides aid for industrial and agricultural development, much practical aid in the fields of health, education and social welfare has been given, particularly by the Chinese and the Russians, the World Health Organization and UNICEF. Kuwait has provided schools, hospitals and clinics but much work still needs to be done to combat the effects of malnutrition and disease. The United Nations has launched a nutrition project aimed at providing school meals and improving the protein content of the average Yemeni's diet.

Lack of data in almost every sector is one of the main obstacles to development in Yemen, greater even than lack of funds in some cases. No aerial survey of the country has ever been done and organizations such as the World Bank are reluctant to assist major projects until concrete data is available.

M.J.

STATISTICAL SURVEY

AREA AND POPULATION

AREA	TOTAL (1970 est.)	SANA'A (capital)	TAIZ	HODEIDA (Red Sea Port)
75 000 sq miles	5 728 000	120 000	80 000	90 000

AGRICULTURE
PRINCIPAL CROPS

AVERAGE ANNUAL PRODUCTION 1966-69

	AREA (Hectares)	GROSS YIELD (metric tons)
Sorghum	1 260 000	920 000
Millet	25 000	23 000
Wheat	143 000	145 000
Barley	4 000	10 000
Maize	1 434 000	1 160 000
All Cereals	—	4 500
Coffee	12 000	5 000
Cotton	63 000	112 000
Vegetables	3 400	2 000
Tobacco	600	5 000
Sugar Cane		

FINANCE

1 Riyal=40 bagsha

There is no official exchange rate

BUDGET

(Riyals)

	REVENUE	EXPENDITURE
1968-69	49 819 000	109 035 000
1969-70	87 985 000	165 123 000

EXTERNAL TRADE

(Riyals)

	1966	1969-70
Imports	53 644 644	178 200 143
Exports	7 303 117	158 000 000

COMMODITIES*

(Riyals)

	IMPORTS		EXPORTS
	1966	1969-70	1966
Cattle Sheep Goats	8 766	36 494	1 568
Meat Dairy Products	1 046 170	3 182 819	430
Grains Flour	15 692 384	15 548 720	—
Fruit and Vegetables	757 167	3 372 474	127 872
Coffee	149 858	1 080 187	1 708 089
Tea	812 660	2 144 851	—
Cigarettes and Tobacco	2 331 205	4 546 017	2 188
Petroleum Products	3 151 029	3 938 972	—
Textiles Yarn and Thread	370 199	340 071	—
Woven Fabrics	3 481 399	4 857 877	34 365
Cement	912 627	2 273 660	—

YEMEN ARAB REPUBLIC—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

TRANSPORT

ROADS

There are 431 km. asphalted road in the Republic.

SHIPPING

	VESSELS ENTERING HODEIDA PORT	TONNAGE UNLOADED
1968 . . .	256	217,659
1969 . . .	280	275,740

CIVIL AVIATION

	PASSENGERS CARRIED	FREIGHT (kilos)
1968	24,300	174,300
1969	33,500	295,100

EDUCATION*

(1969-70)

	SCHOOLS	TEACHERS	PUPILS	
			Boys	Girls
Primary Schools . . .	744	1,499	60,560	4,966
Intermediate Schools . . .	20	149	2,905	90
Secondary Schools . . .	4	55	939	—

Source: Yemen Arab Republic Central Statistical Office.

THE CONSTITUTION

(Published December 28th 1970)

Yemen is an Islamic Arab independent sovereign Republic with parliamentary democracy forming part of the Arab nation. Islam is the state religion and Islamic Law the basis of all legislation. Sana'a is the capital.

The Constitution ensures equality of all before the law, freedom of expression, press, publication, public gatherings and trade union activity within the framework of the law. The people are the source of all authority through their representatives in the Consultative Assembly.

The Consultative Assembly is composed of 179 members 20 of whom will be appointed by the President and the rest elected by popular franchise every four years. The Assembly shall issue laws and regulations for the organization of the state, and approve the state budget and treaties and agreements concluded by the Government. The members of the Republican Council will be appointed by the Assembly, and may be withdrawn by a two thirds majority vote of the Assembly.

The Republican Council may present bills to the Council

of Ministers for presentation to the Consultative Assembly. Any motion submitted to the Council will require the support of at least 30 members and must be endorsed by a two thirds majority. No reports are to be submitted to the President except through the Council of Ministers and all laws, orders and directions from the President will be issued through the Council of Ministers.

The Consultative Assembly will nominate the President. Duties of the President of the Republic include the signing of legislation approved by the Consultative Assembly.

The Council of Ministers, as executive and administrative authority in the state, is responsible *inter alia* for the execution of plans laid down by the follow up committee of the national peace conference, set up to implement the conference resolutions.

The Constitution provides for an independent judiciary, a supreme Sharia Court and local organs of government. Other provisions cover human rights and equality for women.

THE GOVERNMENT

HEAD OF STATE

The functions of this office are discharged by the chairman of the Presidential Council.

Republican Council: ABDUL RAHMAN AL IRYANI, Sheikh MUHAMMAD ALI OSMAN, General HASSAN AL AMRI.

CABINET

(August 1972)

Prime Minister and Foreign Minister: AHMAD MUHAMMAD NOMAN

Deputy Prime Minister: ABD AS SALAM SABRA

Minister of the Economy: AHMAD ABDUH SAID

Minister of the Interior: ABDULLAH HUSAIN BARAKAT

Minister of Agriculture: MUHAMMAD AL JUWAI

Minister of Local Government: MUHAMMAD ISMAIL AL-HAJJI

Minister of Justice: ABD AL KADER BIN ABDULLAH

Minister of Religious Endowments: YAHYA ABDULLAH AL-DAYHANI

Minister of Communications: ABDULLAH AL DUBI

Minister of the Treasury: MUHAMMAD ISMAIL AL-RABI

Minister of Information and Culture: AHMAD QAID BARAKAT

Minister of Education: AHMAD JABIR AFIF

Minister of Public Works: YAHYA AL MADWAHI

Minister of Health: HUSSEIN AL-MUQADDAMI

Minister of State and Director of the Technical Bureau: MUHAMMAD ANAAM GHALIB

Minister of State in Charge of Consultative Council Affairs: ABD AL-MALIK AL-TAYYIB

Minister of State: SALAH AL MASRI

DIPLOMATIC REPRESENTATION

REPRESENTATIVES OF THE YEMEN ARAB REPUBLIC ABROAD

(A) Ambassador; (M) Minister; (CA) Chargé d'Affaires

Algeria: A. M. AL ROUDI, Algiers (CA).
China, People's Republic: ABDUL UTHMAN MUHAMMAD, Peking (A).
Czechoslovakia: MUHAMMAD ALI IBRAHIM, Prague (A).
Ethiopia: (vacant), Addis Ababa (CA).
France: MOHSIN AINI, Paris (A).
Iraq: ALI AL UNSI, Baghdad (A).
Iran: HASHIM BIN HASHIM, Teheran (A).
Italy: MUHAMMAD PASHA, Rome (A).
Lebanon: MUHAMMAD ABDUL KUDDOUS, Beirut (A).

Libya: (vacant), Tripoli (A).
Saudi Arabia: ISMAIL AL-JARAFI, Jeddah (A).
Somalia: MUHAMMAD AL-KUBATI, Mogadishu (M).
Sudan: MUHAMMAD ALMOTAA, Khartoum (M).
U.S.S.R.: MUSTAFA YACOB, Moscow (A).
United Arab Republic: (vacant), Cairo (A).
United Kingdom: AHMAD AL-SHAMI, London (A).

United Nations: (vacant), New York (Perm. Rep.).

EMBASSIES AND LEGATIONS ACCREDITED TO THE YEMEN ARAB REPUBLIC

(Sana'a unless otherwise stated)

(E) Embassy; (L) Legation.

Algeria: Ali Abdul Mogni St. (L); *Chargé d'Affaires:* OMER BEN AL-SHIAKH.
Bulgaria: Cairo, U.A.R. (E).
China: Hodeida Rd. (E); *Ambassador:* WANG JO CHIEH.
Czechoslovakia: Cairo, U.A.R. (E).
Ethiopia: Chancery Mustafa Court, Taiz (E); *Ambassador:* Ato WOLD ENDASHAW.
France: (address not available) (E); *Ambassador:* JEAN LEGRAIN.
German Federal Republic: (address not available); *Ambassador:* A. VESTRING.
Hungary: Cairo, U.A.R. (E).
India: Cairo, U.A.R. (E).
Iran: Jeddah, Saudi Arabia (E).
Iraq: Gamal Abdul Nasser St. (E); *Ambassador:* AHMED ABDULLATIF ALFARISI.
Italy: (address not available) (E); *Ambassador:* ROMALDO MASSA.
Japan: Jeddah, Saudi Arabia (E).
Korea, Democratic Republic: Cairo, U.A.R. (E).

Pakistan: Cairo, U.A.R. (E).
Poland: Cairo, U.A.R. (E).
Romania: (address not available) (E); *Ambassador:* MIRCEA NICOLAESCU.
Saudi Arabia: (address not available) (E); *Ambassador:* Prince MUHAMMAD AL-SIDAIRI.
Syria: Alzubairi Rd. (L); *Chargé d'Affaires:* YAHIA ALMAHAMAD.
U.S.S.R.: (address not available) (E); *Ambassador:* MIRZO RAKHMATOV.
United Arab Republic: Gamal Abdul Nasser St. (E); *Ambassador:* (vacant).
United Kingdom: (address not available) (E); *Ambassador:* JOHN MICHAEL EDES.
Viet-Nam, Democratic Republic: Cairo, U.A.R. (E).
Yugoslavia: Ali Abdul Mogni St. (E); *Ambassador:* DRAGO NOVAK.

The Republic also has diplomatic relations with Afghanistan, Chad, German Democratic Republic, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Libya, Morocco, the Netherlands, Sweden, Tunisia and Turkey.

CONSULTATIVE COUNCIL

A Consultative Council was established as the supreme legislative body under the 1970 Constitution. It consists of 179 members of whom 20 are appointed by the President and the remainder elected by popular vote every four years. Elections were first held in March 1971.

LAW AND RELIGION

President of the People's Tribunal: Col. GHALIB SHARI

Public Prosecutor: Major ABDULLA BARAKAT

Sharia Court: Sana'a f 1964 to deal with political cases and to try senior government officials.

PRESS AND RADIO

Al Iman: Sana'a. Arabic. Editor: ABDUL KARIM BIN ISRAHIM AL AMIR.

Al Nasr: Taiz. Arabic. Editor: MUHAMMAD BIN HUSSEIN MUSA.

Saba: Taiz f 1949. Arabic. fortnightly. political and social affairs. Editor: MUHAMMAD ABU SALAH AL SHURJEI. circ. 10,000.

Al Thawra (The Revolution): Sana'a. daily.

Middle East News: Ali Abdel Ghami St. Ali Moh. Hamoud. Ali Yamani. Sana'a.

Saba News Agency: Sana'a f 1970. Chair: AHMAD MUHAMMAD HADI.

Tass also has a bureau in Sana'a.

Radio Sana'a: Station controlled by the government which broadcasts in Arabic for thirteen hours daily. Dir. Gen. ALI HAMOOD AFIF.

BANKING

Yemen Currency Board: P.O.B. 59. Sana'a f 1964. cap. 2m. riyals. responsible for issuing currency at the end of June 1970. currency in circulation amounted to 194.8m. riyals. Pres. the Minister of the Treasury Vice-Pres. ABDULLAH SANABANI. Gen. Man. AHMED MUHAMMAD ALI.

Yemen Bank of Reconstruction and Development: Sana'a f 1962. cap. 10m. riyals. Republican government bank. 8 hrs. Pres. ALI LOFT AL THOWR.

TRADE AND INDUSTRY

NATIONALIZED ORGANIZATIONS

General Cotton Organization: Sana'a.

Hodeida Electricity Company: Hodeida.

National Tobacco & Matches Co.: P.O.B. 571. Hodeida f 1964. monopoly importing and sales organization for tobacco and matches. now building a cigarette factory at Hodeida to use tobacco grown locally on the company's plantations. Chair: A. A. NAGI.

Yemen Company for Foreign Trade: Hodeida.

Yemen Petroleum Co.: P.O.B. 360. Hodeida. the sole petroleum supplier in the Yemen. Chair: HUSSAIN ABDULLAH AL MAKDANI. Gen. Man. ABDUL RAHMAN YOUSEF.

Yemen Printing and Publishing Co.: Sana'a f 1970. Chair: AHMAD MUHAMMAD HADI.

TRANSPORT

Roads: Highways run from Hodeida to Sana'a and from Moka to Taiz. Ibb and Sana'a.

Shipping: Hodeida is a Red Sea port of some importance and the Yemen Navigation Company runs passenger and cargo services to many parts of the Middle East and Africa.

Adafar Yemenite Line: Hodeida.

Middle East Shipping Co.: P.O.B. 700. Hodeida. br. in Moka.

Civil Aviation: Three airports—Al Rahaba at Sana'a, Al Ganad at Taiz and Hodeida Airport—are classified as being of international standard and are being developed following the end of the civil war. Federal Germany is to give financial assistance towards the construction of a new airport at Sana'a which is to begin in 1971.

Yemen Airlines: Sana'a. internal services to Sana'a, Hodeida, Taiz, Beida, Hareeb, Barat and Saada. external services to Aden, Asmara and Djibouti. Chair: The Minister of Communications. Vice Chair: FAHMI AL HAMADANI. Gen. Man. (vacant).

The following airlines also serve the Yemen: AeroBot, Democratic Yemen Airlines, Ethiopian Airlines and Saudi Arabian Airlines.

EDUCATION

Education in Yemen is still provided mainly by traditional types of school. A modern graded school system has however been introduced recently providing a six year primary course, a four year intermediate course and a three year secondary course. The religious colleges are located in the mosques, the most important of these being at Bir Al Azab, Zabid and Dharmat. They provide tuition in Arabic philosophy, commentaries on the Koran, Muslim Law, tradition and history for those students who wish to pursue further studies. There is one agricultural school and six vocational schools in the Yemen. There is also a Military Academy, a College for Radio Telecommunications and a College of Aviation.

LIBRARY

Library of the Great Mosque of Sana'a: Sana'a f 1925. the collection of 10,000 MSS. and printed vols. is not at present accessible to the public. Librarian: ZAHID BIN ALI ENAN.

UNIVERSITY

Islamic University: Taiz. Pres. QASIM GHAILB.

COLLEGES

There are six vocational schools, a Military Academy, a College of Aviation, a College for Radio Telecommunications and an Agricultural School.

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People's Democratic Republic of Yemen

(Southern Yemen)

PHYSICAL AND SOCIAL GEOGRAPHY

On November 30th, 1967, the People's Republic of Southern Yemen came into existence, formed from the former British Colony and Protectorate of Aden (75 sq miles and 111,000 sq miles respectively) together with the islands of Perim (3 sq miles) and Kamaran (22 sq miles). Socotra (1 400 sq miles) elected to join the new state. The Kura Mura group of islands were returned to Muscat by Britain but the new Republican government revoked this decision. The capital is As Shaab, formerly known as Al Ithhad. The state is divided into six governorates which replace the twenty three sheikhdoms and sultanates of the Protectorate. The Republic lies at the southern end of the Arabian peninsula approximately between longitude 43° and 56°E, with Perim Island a few miles due west in the strait marking the southern extremity of the Red Sea, Kamaran Island some 200 miles north of Perim, Socotra and the Kura Mura groups in the extreme east the former at the entrance to the Gulf of Aden the latter near the coast of Oman. The Republic has frontiers with Yemen, Saudi Arabia, and Oman, but none of these frontiers is fully delimited, and in some instances they are disputed. Atlases still show considerable variation in the precise boundaries of all four territories or sometimes do not indicate them at all.

Physically, the Republic of Southern Yemen comprises the broken and dislocated southern edge of the great plateau of Arabia. This is an immense mass of ancient granites once forming part of Africa, and covered in many places by shallow, generally horizontal layers of younger sedimentary rocks. The whole plateau has undergone downwarping in the east and elevation in the west, so that the highest land (over 10 000 ft) occurs in the extreme west, near the Red Sea with a gradual decline to the lowest parts (under 1 000 ft) in the extreme east. The whole of the southern and western coasts of the Republic were formed by a series of enormous fractures, which produced a flat but very narrow coastal plain rising steeply to the hill country a short distance inland. Percolation of molten magma along the fracture lines has given rise to a number of volcanic craters, now extinct, and one of these, partly eroded and occupied by the sea, forms the site of Aden port.

An important topographic feature is the Wadi Hadhramaut, an imposing valley running parallel to the coast at 100-150 miles distance inland. In its upper and middle parts this valley is broad, and

occupied by a seasonal torrent, in its lower (eastern) part it narrows considerably, making a sudden turn south-eastwards and reaching the sea. This lower part is largely uninhabited, but the upper parts, where alluvial soil and intermittent flood water are available, are occupied by a farming population.

The details of climate in Southern Yemen are simple to state but extremely difficult to explain. Rainfall is everywhere scanty, but relatively more abundant on the highlands and in the west. Thus Aden itself has 5 in. of rain annually, entirely in winter (December-March), whilst in the lowlands of the extreme east, it may rain only once in five or ten years. In the highlands a few miles north of Aden, falls of up to 30 in. occur, for the most part during summer, and this rainfall also gradually declines eastwards, giving 15-20 in. in the highlands of Dhofar. Ultimately, to the north and east, rainfall diminishes to almost nil, as the edges of the Arabian Desert are reached. This unusual situation of a reversal in climatic conditions over a few miles is thought to be the result of two streams of air, an upper one, damp and unstable in summer, and originating in the equatorial regions of East Africa, and a lower current, generally drier and related to conditions prevailing over the rest of the Middle East. In this way the low lying coastal areas have a maximum of rainfall in winter, and the hills of Southern Yemen and the Yemen a maximum in summer. Temperatures are everywhere high, particularly on the coastal plain which has a southern aspect: mean figures of 76°F (Jan.) to 89° (June) occur at Aden town, but maxima of over 100° are common.

Except on the higher parts, which have a light covering of thorn scrub (including dwarf trees which exude a sap from which incense and myrrh are derived), and the restricted patches of cultivated land, the territory of Southern Yemen is devoid of vegetation. Cultivation is limited to small level patches of good soil on flat terraces alongside the river beds, on the floor and sides of the Wadi Hadhramaut, or where irrigation from wells and cisterns can be practised. The most productive areas are Lahaj, close to Aden town, two districts near Mukalla (about 300 miles east of Aden), and parts of the middle Hadhramaut. Irrigation from cisterns hollowed out of the rock has long been practised, and Aden town has a famous system of this kind, dating back many centuries.

W B F.

HISTORY

ADEN COLONY

When the Portuguese first rounded the Cape of Good Hope (1497–98), Aden was a port of some commercial importance, acting as a rendezvous for ships bound from India to the Red Sea and at the same time enjoying an active local trade with the Persian Gulf and the coast of East Africa. In 1513 the Portuguese, under Albuquerque, tried to capture the town, though without success. The Ottoman Turks, in their endeavour to deny the Portuguese access to the Red Sea, seized Aden in 1538, but their hold on the Yemen proved to be precarious. There was a serious revolt against the Ottoman regime in 1547–51 and a still more dangerous rebellion in 1566–70. When in the course of the seventeenth century the Ottoman state fell into decline, the authority of the Sultan over this distant region became little more than nominal, effective power in the Yemen passing now into the hands of local chieftains, the most notable of whom, after 1735, was the Sultan of Lahej. The discovery of the Cape route to India had greatly diminished the prosperity of Aden as a commercial entrepot, but with the Napoleonic campaign in Egypt in 1798, Aden assumed strategic importance in Britain's plan of containment. In 1799 Britain occupied the island of Perim. Shortage of water compelled a withdrawal to the mainland where friendly relations were established with the Sultan of Lahej with whom later in 1802 a commercial treaty was concluded. However, the need to possess a base in these waters under the British flag doubled with the coming of the steamship. Negotiations began for the purchase of the island of Socotra, which in 1834 was temporarily occupied by the East India Company; they might have succeeded had not the relations with the Sultan suddenly deteriorated in 1837 following the plunder near Aden of a wrecked Indian vessel flying the British flag. The incident was followed by the despatch by the East India Company of a British force from Bombay, under the command of Captain Haines of the Indian navy, which, on January 16th, 1839, captured Aden. By the peace treaty, the Sultan was guaranteed an annual sum of 6,000 dollars and Aden became part of the British Empire, administered by the government of Bombay. The Sultan did not finally abandon his efforts to regain Aden until 1857 when permanent peace was established with Britain. Perim Island was ceded in the same year. The Kuria Muria Islands had already been acquired in 1854 from the Sultan of Oman. With the opening of the Suez Canal and the revival of the Red Sea route, Aden, which had been a free port since 1853, increased in importance. In the twentieth century, with the gradual replacement of coal by oil, Aden, closely linked to the Persian Gulf area, enhanced its historic position as a fuelling station. Aden's strategic value is also based on plentiful supplies of fresh drinking water from the artesian wells at Shaikh Othman.

In 1932, the administration of Aden passed to the Governor-General of India in Council; in April 1937,

it was vested in a separately appointed governor, who was also commander-in-chief, and who was assisted by an Executive Council. Crown Colony status had in fact been granted two years previously by the Government of India Act 1935. A Legislative Council for Aden, granted in 1944, was inaugurated in 1947. In 1955 the Aden Colony (Amendment) Order came into force, providing for an elected element in the Council; the first elections were held in December of the same year. Further constitutional changes were made in 1959. On January 4th, 1959, voting took place for the choice of 12 elected members of the Legislative Council. Nine Arabs, 2 Somalis and 1 Indian were elected to the Council. Large numbers of the Arab population boycotted the election.

On January 16th, 1961, Sir Charles Johnston, the Governor of Aden, announced to the Legislative Council of Aden that the (then) Colonial Secretary, Mr. Macleod, had approved a ministerial system of government for Aden and that members of the Executive Council in charge of administrative departments would soon assume ministerial status. The Governor also spoke of a possible closer association with the West Aden Protectorate and in particular with the Federation of Arab Emirates in the South. The Federation was renamed the Federation of South Arabia in April 1962. On November 27th, 1967, Aden and the Federation of South Arabia achieved independence under the name of the People's Republic of Southern Yemen.

SOUTH ARABIAN PROTECTORATE

Behind Aden and stretching some 600 miles along the coast, are the territories of 23 Arab States, whose rulers, between 1882–1914, entered into protective treaty relations with the British Government and acknowledged the authority of the Governor of Aden as Governor of the Protectorate. Many of the States later entered into closer treaty relations, and, while retaining independent control in the internal affairs of their respective territories, the rulers accepted the advice on administration offered by British Agents and Political Officers appointed by the Governor. Britain guaranteed protection to the States and they agreed not to cede territory to foreign powers.

EASTERN PROTECTORATE STATES

Formerly named the Eastern Aden Protectorate, the region covered by the States comprised the Hadhramaut (consisting of the Qu'aiti State of Shihr and Mukalla, and the Kathiri State of Sai'un), the Mahra Sultanate of Qishn and Socotra, the Wahidi Sultanates of Balhaf and Bir'ali, and the Sheikhdoms of Irqa and Haura. At the end of 1960 the total population of the area was estimated at 305,000. The Qu'aiti Sultan first concluded a protectorate treaty with Britain in 1888. In 1918 following an agreement between the Qu'aiti and the Kathiri Sultans, the latter accepted

the protectorate treaty as extending to his State. Both Sultans agreed by further treaties signed in 1937 and 1939 to accept the advice of a British Agent in all matters except those concerning the religion and custom of Islam. The British Agent for the Eastern Protectorate States was stationed at Mukalla in the territory of the premier chief, the Qu'arti Sultan of Shahr and Mukalla. Both he and the Kathiri Sultan were constitutional rulers and were assisted by State Councils. Close co-operation existed between the two states in constitutional and in economic matters.

In 1949 an advisory treaty was concluded with the Wahidi Sultan of Balhaf. The Mahra Sultan of Qishn and Socotra signed a treaty of protection with Britain in 1866 and by it the Island of Socotra and the Abd Alkur and Brothers Islands came within the protectorate.

WESTERN PROTECTORATE STATES

The former Western Protectorate comprised 20 states. Population at the end of 1960 was estimated at 355,000. Five of the States in 1944 and 1945 agreed by advisory treaties with Britain to accept the advice of the Governor of Aden on administrative affairs—the Fadhlī, the Lower Aulaqi and the Lower Yafaī Sultans, the Sherif of Beihan and the Amir of Dhala. In 1952 similar treaties were signed by the Upper Aulaqi Sheikh and the Audhali Sultan and a joint advisory and protectorate treaty was accepted by the newly elected Sultan of Lahej. The British Political Officers and the Arab Assistant Political Officers for the Western Protectorate States were under the supervision of the Assistant High Commissioner whose headquarters were in Al Ittihad, the Federal capital.

The British authorities in 1954 and again in 1956 had discussed a plan of federation with local rulers in the West Aden Protectorate. On February 12th 1959 the rulers of six (out of 20) states in the Western Protectorate signed a Federal Constitution and also a Treaty of Friendship and Protection with Great Britain. The British Government promised financial and military aid which would assist the Federation (embracing Audhali, Lower Yafaī, Fadhlī, Dhala Bihan and Upper Aulaqi) to become eventually an independent state. The members of the Federation bound themselves not to enter into foreign relations of whatsoever kind without the approval of Great Britain. Lahej joined the Federation in October 1959 and Lower Aulaqi, Aqrabi and Dathina in February 1960. The Wahidi States of Balhaf and Bir Ali in the Eastern Aden Protectorate joined in 1962. Aden Colony became a member in January 1963 and Haushabi and Shaib joined in April. In 1965 there were three further accessions—the Alawi and Muflahi Sherikhdoms and the Upper Aulaqi Sultanate. The new Federal capital was Al Ittihad near Bir Ahmed.

The U.K. met the cost of defence including the R.A.F. and Protectorate levy establishments. Beside the security forces maintained by the U.K. Government there were tribal guards in the Western States partially supported by the States and the Mukalla Regular Army maintained by the Qu'arti State.

At the end of November 1961 the British Government handed over control of the Aden Protectorate

Levies to the Federation of Arab Emirates in the South. The Levies—which would be henceforth the Army of the Federation—had been formed in 1928 to protect Aden on the landward side and to provide garrisons for the Red Sea islands of Perim and Kamaran. An Arab force trained and commanded by British officers, the Levies consisted in 1961 of five infantry battalions, an armoured car squadron and various signals and administrative units. The Levies came under the control of the Sultan of Lahej who was Minister of Defence to the Federation but command of the force still rested in the hands of a British officer as hitherto for operational purposes the Levies were at the disposal of the G.O.C. Land Forces Middle East.

ADEN AND THE YEMEN

Relations between the Protectorate and the neighbouring State of the Yemen were at all times delicate. Frequent encroachments led to the demarcation of frontiers which were accepted in a convention signed with the Ottoman Government in March 1914. During the first World War the Turkish troops from Yemen occupied the greater part of the Protectorate and though in 1919 most of the chiefs resumed their treaty relations with Britain, the Imam of Sana'a who exercised the principal religious authority in Yemen being the most powerful of the Chieftains, maintained his claim to the entire territories. He sought to enforce it by occupying the Amuri district including the Radhan tribes and parts of Haushabi, Shaibi and Upper Yafaī territory and the Audhali plateau. He also occupied territory not then within the Protectorate, the district of the Beidha Sultan. Britain continually repelled the Imam's advance and in 1928 he was compelled to withdraw from most of the Amuri territory. The Anglo-Yemenite treaty of peace and friendship was signed in February 1934 and was to be valid for 40 years; the two powers agreed to respect the *status quo* and to negotiate for the classification of frontiers. Britain recognised the independence of the Yemen and the Imam agreed to evacuate the remainder of the Amuri district. In 1950 they agreed further to set up a frontier commission and to exchange diplomatic missions. In 1953 Yemen pressed her claims to the territories of the Aden Protectorate before the United Nations and in subsequent years there was a series of border incidents. In December 1956 both tribesmen and Yemeni forces were reported to have raided villages in the Protectorate and made invasions into Western Aden. Similar incidents of varying degrees of importance continued until 1959. During this period there was a substantial flow of arms and technicians into the Yemen from the U.S.S.R. and its allies and in March 1958 a formal union with the U.A.R. was announced. Britain sent troop reinforcements and R.A.F. units to repel these attacks and in 1958 it established a separate military command in Aden. On two occasions the Yemen brought the dispute before the United Nations on the grounds that the U.K. was committing acts of aggression against her territory.

Incidents along the ill-defined frontier between Aden and the Yemen became less numerous in 1959.

PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF YEMEN—(HISTORY)

The Governor of Aden paid a visit to Taiz in November 1959 which led to the conclusion of two informal agreements with the Yemen, the first covering civil aircraft flights between Aden and the Yemen, the second establishing local frontier commissions to settle border incidents. The first frontier commission met in February 1960.

In August 1962 the Yemen denounced the agreements reached at the London conference (discussed below), and reiterated its claim to the Aden territories. The revolution which broke out in the Yemen on September 27th, 1962, led to the establishment of a Republic of the Yemen. Colonel Sallal, the leader of the revolution, stated at this time that the new régime did not intend to press a claim to the Aden territories and hoped indeed for friendship with Britain. The U.S.S.R. and the U.A.R. recognized the republican régime almost immediately, and the United States followed suit in December, but Britain refused recognition. The new Yemen government frequently accused Britain of giving assistance to the Royalist resistance during the winter of 1962-63; the British legation at Taiz was closed, there were several minor conflicts in the border area, and another Yemen protest was made at the U.N.

British and Federal forces carried out extensive military operations against dissident border tribesmen in 1964 and 1965; officials claimed these measures were necessary mainly because of unrest created by Yemeni agents. Direct clashes with Yemeni forces also occurred; the situation remained complex owing to the continuing presence of Royalist forces in the area. In 1964 Britain proposed that UN observers should patrol the border areas; the republican government, however, would not accept this, claiming that no frontier was necessary as Aden and the Federation all belonged by right to the Yemen. This attitude did not help relations during the independence negotiations or with the new Southern Yemen government.

CONSTITUTIONAL DEVELOPMENTS

In August 1960 Sir Charles Johnston became Governor of Aden in succession to Sir William Luce. The new Governor announced to the Legislative Council of the Aden Colony in January 1961 that a ministerial system was to be introduced into Aden—members of the Executive Council in charge of administrative departments (twelve in all) would soon assume ministerial status. Sir Charles Johnston also noted that efforts were in progress to promote constitutional development within Aden and in particular to bring about a closer association between the West Aden Protectorate and the Federation of Arab Emirates of the South.

A constitutional conference, which included five Ministers from Aden and five from the Federation, met in London (July–August 1962) under the chairmanship of Mr. Duncan Sandys, the Colonial Secretary. The Aden Trade Union Congress and its political wing, the People's Socialist Party (both counted much on the support of Yemenis who worked in Aden, and aimed at the ultimate union of the

Yemen, Aden, the Federation and the other territories of the West Aden Protectorate) denounced the conference held in London. On July 23rd, 1962, they called a strike to protest against the composition of the existing Legislative Council of Aden and to demand a general election and the establishment of an autonomous government in Aden before further progress should be made towards union with the Federation of Arab Emirates.

The discussions undertaken in August 1962 led to a White Paper recommending the incorporation of Aden into the Federation as a constituent state. It specified that Britain would retain sovereignty over Aden and responsibility for its defence and internal security. These proposals were the principal features of a draft treaty between Britain and the Federation (re-named the Federation of South Arabia); Perim and the Kuria Muria islands, although administered by the governor of Aden, were to be excluded.

There was considerable opposition in Aden to incorporation into the Federation. Several political parties opposed the move, and strikes and demonstrations directed against it occurred throughout 1962. Serious riots coincided with the Aden Legislative Council's passing of the draft treaty in September. Nevertheless, Britain and the Federation duly signed the agreement in January 1963 and Aden formally became a member of the Federation later that month.

ADEN'S INCORPORATION IN THE FEDERATION

Aden's new government consisted of a nine-member Council of Ministers, all Adenis except for the British Attorney-General. Since its principal economic support remained British forces expenditure—£20 million was spent on capital projects alone in the 1962-65 period—it could hardly expect to escape the suspicions of the radical Arab nationalist movements. In May 1963 representatives of the United Nations Committee on decolonization visited Yemen but were not allowed into Aden or the Federation. In July they issued a report—later adopted by the full committee and eventually the General Assembly—which claimed that most of the population disliked "the repressive laws and police methods" of the government; it accused Britain of attempting to prolong its control whilst most South Arabians wanted union with the Yemen. Britain, of course, rejected the report. In the meantime two more states—the Haushabi Sultanate and the Shaibi Sheikdom—had joined the Federation, now 14 strong; on April 1st all customs barriers were abolished within the Federation, Aden remaining a free port.

In December 1963 an attempt to assassinate the High Commissioner in Aden killed two people and injured over fifty; a state of emergency was declared and large numbers of political activists were detained. Although no charges were made, several weeks elapsed before many activists were released, and much opinion in Aden and beyond clearly thought this police treatment was too harsh.

MOVES TOWARDS INDEPENDENCE

In June 1964 a constitutional conference was held in London and an agreement was signed whereby the Federation of Saudi Arabia, inclusive of Aden, would become independent not later than 1968. A further conference should have met in London in March 1965 to further these proposals, but a clash of interests between Britain, the Federal Government of South Arabia and the Government of the State of Aden, together with the rivalry between local political parties in Aden and threats from the "National Front for the Liberation of South Yemen", prevented the holding of this conference.

Further discussions took place in London in August 1965, but the talks failed, and violence in Aden increased. It was estimated that between December 1963 and May 1966 60 people had been killed and 350 injured in Aden alone as a result of terrorism, one third of the casualties being British.

POLITICAL REALIGNMENTS

The political scene in South Arabia, as viewed from the side of the nationalist elements, presented at this time an appearance of increasing confusion. The People's Socialist Party, led by Mr Abdallah al-Asnag, had merged, in May 1965, with the Committee for the Liberation of Occupied South Yemen and with the South Arabian League to form the Organization for the Liberation of the Occupied South. A further development took place in January 1966, when the Organization for the Liberation of the Occupied South united with the National Front for the Liberation of the Occupied South, an extremist group operating from the Yemen with Egyptian support and responsible for the campaign of terrorism in Aden. Out of this new fusion of interests came the Front for the Liberation of Occupied South Yemen (F L O S Y), in which political figures like Mr Makkawi and Mr al Asnag now began to assume positions of prominence. The South Arabian League, however, declined to accept the prospect of complete absorption in a united nationalist movement and resumed its former independence. As an organization it held moderate nationalist views, rejecting the territorial claims of the Yemen, disapproving of terrorism and of influence emanating from Egypt, and aiming in general at a united state of South Arabia which should embrace Aden, the federal states and also the principalities of the East Aden Protectorate. Over against these various nationalist forces stood the "traditionalist" elements, embodied in the sheikhdoms and sultanates of the South Arabia Federation (and also of the East Aden Protectorate).

Of great importance, too, as a factor influencing the affairs of South Arabia was the situation in the Yemen, itself divided between tribesmen loyal to the old Imamate and supported by Saudi Arabia, and the republican regime maintained and controlled by Egypt—a situation, in short, which reflected in itself the confrontation of Egypt and Saudi Arabia for a dominant voice in the affairs of Arabia as a whole.

NEW PROPOSALS FOR ADEN, 1966

The Federation of South Arabia made known in February 1966, proposals which, it was hoped, might serve as a basis for a constitution when South Arabia gained independence in 1968. At the request of the Federal Government in September 1965, two British experts, Sir Ralph Hone and Sir Gawan Bell, had undertaken the task of framing new proposals. Their recommendations now envisaged the creation of a United Republic of South Arabia (including the Hadhramant area). The republic would be organized on federal lines. Aden, however, together with the federal capital al-Ittihad and the islands of Perim, Kamaran and Kuria Murra, would form within the republic a distinctive "capital territory".

THE DEFENCE QUESTION

In February 1966 the British Government issued a White Paper on Defence, which envisaged large reductions in the use of the armed forces of Great Britain overseas and in the general expenditure on them. The White Paper declared that, when Aden became independent in 1968, all British forces would be withdrawn and concentrated at Bahrain in the Persian Gulf, it also made known that the British Government did not propose to enter into defence agreements with the newly independent state of South Arabia.

This announcement gave grounds for alarm to the sheikhdoms and sultanates embraced within the Federation that the National Guard of the Federation might be confronted in the future with a Yemen able to call on large numbers of Egyptian troops. The federal authorities sent a delegation to London, hoping to persuade the British Government to at least assist with the rapid strengthening of the federal forces and with the provision of equipment. In June the British Government offered to contribute as much as £5,500,000 towards the capital cost of expanding and re-equipping the armed forces of the Federation. It also declared its readiness to continue its contribution (about £5,000,000) to the federal budget each year and to increase, to the extent of some £2,500,000, its share (hitherto about £4,600,000) in the maintenance of the federal troops. This aid was to continue for three years after independence, provided that no radical change occurred in the political situation of an independent South Arabia. The British Government still declined, however, to undertake the defence of South Arabia after it had won independence.

The extreme nationalist organizations had long advocated the acceptance in full of the UN resolutions passed in December 1963. Now, in May 1966, the Federal Government of South Arabia made known its readiness at last to take the resolutions as a basis for future action.

THE UN MISSION

In June 1966 the UN Committee on Colonialism urged that a United Nations Mission be sent to South Arabia to advise on the best means of giving effect to the UN resolutions of 1963 and 1965 resolutions which envisaged the granting of independence to South

Arabia, the withdrawal of British forces, the return of political leaders in exile or in detention and the holding of elections under international supervision. In August 1966 the British Government declared that it welcomed the appointment of such a mission, but it insisted that it could not abandon its responsibilities for the maintenance of good order in South Arabia and that it was bound to observe the agreements which it had made with the local states existing in the area.

Further violence and demonstrations in Aden in February 1967 perhaps hastened the actual appointment, on February 23rd, of the UN Mission to South Arabia to be led by Señor Manuel Pérez-Guerrero, of Venezuela; his two colleagues were Mr. Abd al-Satar Shalizi, of Afghanistan, and Mr. Moussa Léo Keita, of Mali. On April 2nd, 1967, the UN mission arrived in Aden, where violence continued, after passing through London, Cairo and Jeddah. On April 7th the UN mission, accusing the British and the federal authorities of non-co-operation, left Aden for Rome and then Geneva, their task remaining unaccomplished. Their talks later in the month with the British Foreign Minister led to no fruitful result.

PREPARATIONS FOR INDEPENDENCE

Also in April Lord Shackleton, Minister without Portfolio, was sent to South Arabia to assist the High Commissioner in examining the possibilities for the establishment of a "caretaker" regime representing all the interested elements in South Arabia. The nationalist organizations continued, however, to reject all appeals for co-operation with the British and the federal authorities.

On June 20th, 1967, the British Government made known the measures that it intended to bring into effect. The date of independence was to be January 9th, 1968. During the critical months following the grant of independence a naval force, including an attack carrier, was to be assigned to South Arabian waters; a number of V-bombers would also be stationed on the island of Masira, not far from the South Arabian territories. In addition, Great Britain promised financial aid (for aircraft, amongst other items) and undertook to re-equip the federal forces with more modern types of small arms, field guns and armoured cars. A military mission would also be sent from Great Britain to advise the federal authorities. In order to check the growing violence in South Arabia it was proposed to suspend trial by jury in respect of terrorist activities. On the other hand, the ban on the N.L.F. was to be removed and consideration given to the possible release of some detainees. The British Government also declared that it would be willing to accept a draft constitution which the federal regime was now circulating to its member states. This constitution would prepare the ground for eventual elections on a basis of universal adult suffrage and for the establishment, as soon as circumstances allowed, of an administration representative of all the political elements in South Arabia. Regarding the problem of the uncommitted states in the East Aden Protectorate, Great Britain favoured their union

with the Federation of South Arabia. It seemed improbable, however, that such a merger, if it did indeed come about, would occur before South Arabia attained its independence. The British Government now made known its readiness to finance, for a period of two years after January 1968, the Hadhrami Legion, an Arab force at present British-paid and British controlled and constituting the main defence of the Eastern Protectorate. Measures would be taken to assist with the establishment of co-ordinated defence arrangements between the Federation and the three states of the East Aden Protectorate.

The tense situation prevailing in Aden became still more complicated when, on June 21st, 1967, some of the South Arabian federal troops mutinied and fought out with the British force a battle which involved considerable loss of life. This trouble was said to have arisen out of tribal rivalries affecting the federal forces, but the suspicion could not be excluded that, under the impact of nationalist sentiments, some of the troops might have weakened in their allegiance both towards the federal regime and towards the protecting power.

During July 1967 Britain continued her efforts to establish in Aden and the associated territories a broad-based provisional administration which should hold office until the moment of independence in January 1968. To facilitate the achievement of this aim the Federal Government consented to invite one of its own members, Mr. Bayumi, to form an interim administration with the aid, if possible, of F.L.O.S.Y. and the N.L.F. These nationalist organizations remained adamant, however, in their refusal to recognize the federal regime, which, in their view, reflected in its structure pre-eminently the interests of the local sultans. Mr. Bayumi's endeavour to gain the co-operation of the nationalist groups ended in failure and on July 27th the federal authorities relieved him of his appointment as Prime Minister designate.

Meanwhile, in South Arabia itself, during August to October 1967 the authority of the sultans crumbled rapidly before the advancing tide of nationalism. The N.L.F. extended its control over the sheikhdom of Mafahi and over most of the other tribal states. On August 28th Sheikh Ali Musaid al-Babakri, speaking as chairman of the Supreme Council of the South Arabian Federation, admitted that the Federal Government and the Sultans had lost control of events and appealed to the armed forces of South Arabia to take command of the situation. This appeal—which marked in fact the virtual disintegration of the federal regime—was unsuccessful, the South Arabian Army refusing to accept the role thus offered to it. The swift advance of the N.L.F. was due, not least of all, to the alignment on its side of a large measure of support amongst the local tribes against their traditional rulers, and also to the determination of the federal armed forces to maintain a neutral attitude. During September and October the N.L.F. also moved into the territories of the Eastern Aden Protectorate, the sultanates of Qaiti, Kathiri and Mahra now passing under its influence. The High Commissioner announced on September 5th that Britain was now prepared to

recognize the nationalist forces in general as representative of the local populations and would be willing to enter into negotiations with them

THE CLASH BETWEEN NATIONALISTS

The collapse of the federal regime left the main nationalist organizations face to face. There had been discussions between them under Egyptian auspices at Cairo and in the Yemen, but without much sign of ultimate agreement. Now, the notable success of the NLF had done much to diminish the prospect before the Front for the Liberation of the Occupied South Yemen. This latter organization was under the disadvantage that it operated largely under Egyptian guidance and not in South Arabia itself, but from the Yemen. Its chief support in Aden had come from the numerous Yemeni elements formerly working there. Of adverse effect, too, was the fact that its leaders, Abdallah al Asnag and Abd al Qawi Makkawi, had been working from the Yemen as exiles during the past two years. The imminence of an Egyptian withdrawal from the Yemen also contributed to a decline in its influence.

With the federal structure now in ruins the immediate question was whether or not the two main nationalist groups could be brought into mutual co-operation. Conflict soon broke out, however, between them and fierce fighting developed in the northern suburbs of Aden during September. The South Arabian Army was able to enforce a brief cease fire, and the rival organizations met in Cairo in October, but without any agreement. Fresh fighting then began. FLOSY being finally defeated when the Army High command joined forces with the NLF.

The latter then insisted that Britain should regard it as the sole valid representative of the people of South Arabia—a course of action which the authorities in London agreed to take on November 11th, 1967. On November 14th it was announced at Aden that Qahtan al Shaabi, one of the founders of the NLF, would lead a delegation to Geneva to hold discussions with the representatives of Britain.

The evacuation of British troops from Aden had begun early on August 25th, 1967. As the situation unfolded itself in Aden, the British Government resolved to hasten the withdrawal of its forces and to advance the independence of South Arabia from January 9th, 1968, to a date if possible in the second half of November 1967. On November 27th after the British troops had made over large areas of Aden to the armed forces of South Arabia, the NLF proclaimed the creation of the People's Republic of Southern Yemen. At Geneva, Qahtan al Shaabi, announced on November 28th that agreement had been reached with Great Britain over the cession of Aden and its associated territories. The last British troops in Aden were withdrawn on November 29th, 1967. Qahtan al Shaabi, with the approval of the NLF, was appointed the first President of the Republic on November 30th.

SOUTHERN YEMEN 1967-70

The prospect before the new Republic in December 1967 was still a most uncertain one. On the economic side there were great difficulties to be overcome. The withdrawal of the British troops meant a serious loss of revenue. To maintain the armed forces inherited from the era of British control would impose on the Republic a large expenditure. Moreover, the closure of the Suez Canal had brought about a great falling off in the entrepôt trade of Aden and in the bunkering of ships. The continuance in the immediate future, of financial aid from Britain was therefore of prime importance to the new regime in Aden. During the negotiations in Geneva between Britain and the NLF in November 1967 the British representatives agreed to make available financial aid to South Arabia for a period of six months (December 1st, 1967, to May 31st, 1968) at a rate amounting to about £2 million per month. Talks held in Aden in April 1968 between a British delegation and the government led only to the rejection of a new, though reduced, offer of further financial assistance from Britain.

There was disagreement also between the South Yemen and Britain over the Kuria Muria Islands. These islands, about 40 miles from the south coast of Arabia and 200 miles east of the border between the Republic of the Southern Yemen and the Sultanate of Muscat, had been handed over to Britain in 1854 and, though administered subsequently from Aden, had not been included formally within the Aden Protectorate. On November 30th, 1967, Britain had made known to the United Nations her intention to restore the Kuria Muria Islands to the Sultan of Muscat—a decision which gave rise to much bitterness amongst the members of the new government in Aden which continued to claim these islands and also Perim and Kamaran.

The administration of President al Shaabi had to meet other serious difficulties also. In the first months of 1968 it had carried out a series of "purges" in the armed forces and the police of the Southern Yemen. Discontent amongst the armed forces increased after the annual conference of the NLF convened at Zinjibar, east of Aden, in March 1968. The more extreme elements in the NLF were reported to have put forward at the conference resolutions designed to force the Government of the Southern Yemen further to the left—amongst them resolutions calling for the appointment of political commissars to all army units, for the strengthening of the NLF militia and for the creation of 'popular guards'. A demand was also made, it would seem, at this conference for the establishment of popular councils in all six of the governorates of the Southern Yemen—these provincial councils having the right to elect a supreme council which would control the affairs of the new Republic. There was in March 1968 a real danger of conflict between the moderate and the extreme elements in the NLF. On March 20th the army indeed intervened to bring about the dismissal of several ministers identified with the more radical section of the Front. The extremists indeed had been taking matters into their own hands in the eastern areas of the Republic—above all in the fifth and sixth governorates which embrace the former

PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF YEMEN—(HISTORY)

sultanates of Qaiti, Kathiri and Mahra (i.e. the erst-while Eastern Aden Protectorate). Here the radical elements had established popular councils of their own choice, ignoring the governors appointed from the central regime, ousting members of the armed forces and the police, and seizing the oil installations at Mukalla. The tensions thus generated showed no sign of a rapid abatement. Indeed, on May 15th, 1968, there was a short-lived rebellion in the region of Jaar, Abyan and Shuqra—i.e. in the third governorate to the north-east of Aden.

In June relations with Britain deteriorated, mainly over the question of the £12 million aid the latter had promised the new government. This money was due to have been paid by April, but in fact a substantial balance remained; from this Britain proposed to deduct a considerable sum to compensate British citizens dismissed by the new government.

Another more serious uprising occurred at the end of July 1968, when two groups of armed rebels cut roads in the Radfan and Aulaqi districts north and east of Aden. The leaders of this rebellion were named as Colonel Abdullah Saleh al Aulaqi ("Colonel Sabaa"), formerly the N.L.F. commander of security forces, and Brig. Nasser Buraik al Aulaqi, who until independence had been commander of the South Arabian Army. These risings were quickly crushed by N.L.F. forces. Both F.L.O.S.Y. and the rival exiled political organization the South Arabian League claimed credit for this threat to the government of President al-Shaabi. Although several members of the F.L.O.S.Y. High Command were captured during the campaign, the economic difficulties of the country continued to act as a serious threat to the stability of the new regime. These difficulties enforced drastic cuts in government expenditure during the summer of 1968, notably in the salaries of the armed forces and the civil service, which cannot have helped the regime's popularity. The President did succeed in getting offers of aid from Federal Germany, Yugoslavia and several Arab countries, but on a small scale compared with the pre-independence British assistance. All support from Federal Germany was in any case cancelled

following Southern Yemen's recognition of the German Democratic Republic (East Germany) in July 1969.

Relations with neighbouring states continued to be poor, and the government blamed all unrest within the country on elements operating from these states, F.L.O.S.Y., operating from Yemen and now without its Egyptian support, the deposed sheikhs and sultans from the Federation (now mostly in Saudi Arabia), and the Sultan of Muscat and Oman with his British advisers were claimed to be the most important of these. There were reports of large supplies of Soviet military equipment reaching Aden, some of which has been displayed in military parades; units of the Soviet fleet frequently visit Aden, which is now rarely used by British or other Western naval vessels.

In June 1969 President al-Shaabi resigned following a reported power struggle; Salem Rubayyi, a former commando leader who had gone into semi-exile in the provinces after a dispute with the leadership, came to power as Chairman of a new five-man Presidential committee, and a new cabinet was formed which included several other exiles. The new regime was seen as even more left wing and pro-Soviet than its predecessor.

In November 1969 the government announced the nationalization of 36 foreign firms, including shipping, insurance and commercial companies, but excluding the BP oil refinery at Little Aden.

At this time there were reports of Saudi troops massing on the ill-defined frontier with S. Yemen, and Saudi sources claimed that an extensive battle took place in December, with Saudi Arabia emerging victorious. Some reports claimed that the clash took place over oil-bearing territory. This occurred again in March 1970 and coincided with a report of an attempted coup d'état in Aden.

In November 1970, a new Constitution was promulgated, changing the name of the country to the People's Democratic Republic of the Yemen, with a view to possible Yemeni unity.

V.J.P.

ECONOMIC SURVEY

The People's Democratic Republic of Yemen consists of the former British colony of Aden and the former Eastern and Western Aden Protectorates. It is now divided into six governorates or provinces whose finances and administration are centrally controlled although the provincial councils are responsible for planning and finance on a local level. The Governorates vary greatly in size, the smallest being the First Governorate in the west, consisting of Aden district and the offshore islands, and the largest being the Sixth Governorate, the former Mahra Sultanate situated in the extreme east of the country. Most of the population is concentrated in the west and one of the Government's hardest tasks since independence has been to unite the various regions politically, administratively and economically.

Under British rule, the country was sustained by the position of Aden on the main shipping route to Europe from the Far East, India and East Africa via Suez. The British Petroleum refinery, completed in 1954, was the focus of industry and trade. In addition the British troops stationed in Aden and the many foreign visitors who came ashore from ships calling at the port provided a market for services and luxury goods which encouraged local merchants and entrepreneurs and brought plenty of foreign exchange into Aden. This prosperity was in the main confined to the then Aden Colony where there was a boom in construction work between 1955 and 1965. The British Government was more concerned with maintaining the Aden base and the port installations than with developing the hinterland although certain agricultural areas were developed during this period. The Abyan district, where development started in 1947, became one of the major cotton producing areas and a similar scheme was carried out in Lahej in the 1960s. In the Hadhramaut, where there are fertile valleys in an otherwise barren area, the Governments of the states of Qu'ari and Kathir financed irrigation schemes and agricultural developments.

The closure of the Suez Canal in 1967 and the withdrawal of British troops in the same year, put an end to Southern Yemen's commercial prosperity. Further more British aid and military expenditure, which amounted to about £11 million in 1960 and had increased to £36 million by 1967 and had more than covered the visible trade deficit was discontinued after withdrawal making it impossible to the Government to cover the budget deficit. In such a situation Southern Yemen had no choice but to turn to other countries for sources of finance and technical aid to assist it in the transition from a service economy to one based on agriculture and manufacturing. The favourable terms offered by the Communist countries, coupled with a seeming lack of interest on the part of the West, made it inevitable that Southern Yemen should turn to the Eastern Bloc.

In November 1969 a decree was issued nationalizing all important foreign assets in Southern Yemen with

the exception of the BP refinery. This development, although a logical one in view of the regime's socialist leanings nevertheless tended to frighten off firms which might otherwise have risked some investment, and made Southern Yemen more than ever dependent on the Soviet Union, China and East Germany.

The Three Year Development Plan 1971-1974, although limited by shortage of funds, aims at the creation firstly of a communications network, secondly the expansion of agricultural production and, thirdly the establishment of small scale light industries based on locally produced raw materials.

AGRICULTURE

Only about a quarter of Southern Yemen's cultivatable land is used at present, and the most intensively cultivated areas are Abyan, east of Aden and Lahej, north of Aden. The river valleys of the Hadhramaut area in the Fifth Governorate are also fertile and relatively well-developed.

Cotton is produced mainly in Lahej and Abyan. The government-controlled Abyan Board supervises the whole process of growing and marketing and has its own ginnery at El Kad. Cotton is also produced in other areas and the Cotton Producers' Associations are the most flourishing co-operatives in the country. The area under cotton is however, declining, in spite of cash incentives offered to growers. It is also becoming harder to market and much work needs to be done to improve the varieties grown and to seek suitable export outlets.

Southern Yemen is able, on the whole, to meet local demand for most vegetables but imports onions, potatoes and fruit. The main fruits and vegetables grown are tomatoes, carrots, salad vegetables, bananas and melons. Bananas in particular are produced in quantity and the Food and Agriculture Organization has recommended an expansion of banana-growing, provided export markets can be found.

Wheat is grown mainly in the Hadhramaut and Beihan but is not enough for the country's needs. The balance is imported mainly from Australia. Other cereals produced include barley, millet and sorghum. Tobacco is grown in the coastal areas, mainly in the Ghail Ba Wazir area. Livestock production has remained fairly static for the last ten years and considerable numbers of sheep and goats have to be imported to satisfy local meat demand.

The Government plans to increase the cultivated area by about 8 per cent by 1974 and to expand production of crops and livestock by 26 per cent and 20 per cent respectively. The resources available at present are not sufficient to finance agricultural development schemes over the whole country and efforts are being concentrated in the Lahej, Abyan, Beihan and Hadhramaut areas. In the east, the developments most likely to take place are the

expansion of tobacco growing and the development of the fishing industry, with Mukalla as its centre.

FISHERIES

The Arabian Sea fishing grounds are Southern Yemen's greatest potential source of wealth. Most of the 10,000 fishermen fish only in territorial waters, their equipment is often poor and efficient marketing of the catch is impossible with the present state of communications. The main species caught are: anchovy, tunny, sardine, Indian mackerel, crayfish and green turtle.

The Soviet Union is providing modern fishing vessels and technical aid, the United Nations is resuming its three-year fisheries survey, begun in 1966 but interrupted in 1967, and a Japanese firm obtained a contract in 1969 to fish in Yemeni coastal waters.

INDUSTRY

The BP refinery accounts at present for over 80 per cent of Southern Yemen's total industrial output. In spite of the closure of the Suez Canal, output at the refinery has continued to expand, partly because of increased demand from the U.A.R., although exports to the U.A.R. decreased in 1970. In 1966, bunkering made up a third of total exports, but by 1970 this proportion had fallen to less than 7 per cent and exports were moving to markets in Africa and Asia rather than Europe. Further expansion of the refinery is unlikely in the immediate future.

Industrial developments are planned to take the form of agro-industries. The Development Plan envisages the establishment of a textile industry based on local cotton, fruit and vegetable processing and canning plants, a cigarette factory, fish processing plants and a tanning industry. This last will be particularly suitable, since skins are at present exported in the raw state and there is much wastage. Existing industries (in Aden) are: the manufacture of cement blocks, tiles and bricks for the now-stagnating building industry; salt production; soft drinks bottling and dairy plants. In the western Governorates there are also cotton ginneries, flour mills and seed-crushing plants. Some small fish-canning factories exist at Mukalla. These are to be extended and others built, with Soviet and Japanese aid. A cement plant is planned for the Third Governorate, possibly using the extensive limestone deposits reported to exist to the east of Aden. East Germany is helping to set up factories making flour, biscuits, vegetable oil and animal fodder.

Known mineral resources are few but the country has not yet been fully explored. The Southern Yemen Algerian Petroleum Company, a joint venture with the Algerian state oil concern SONATRACH is prospecting for oil in the Hadhramaut and expects to spend \$2.5 million in 1971/72.

FOREIGN TRADE

Aden port handles nearly all Southern Yemen's trade, as well as a considerable proportion of that of the Yemen Arab Republic. Transit trade to Yemen

however, had declined somewhat owing to the development of Hodeida. The free port of Aden attracted a large volume of traffic and all the commercial activities associated with a large port flourished, providing comfortable livings for the Adeni merchants but contributing little to the development of the other sectors of the economy. The disadvantages of a free port in the changed situation after Independence, not least the hindrance to industrial development caused by the lack of protective tariffs, led the Government, after much deliberation, to remove Aden's free port status, although there is still a free zone for transit trade.

The trade deficit continued to grow up to 1969. Government measures and the lack of foreign exchange, reduced imports in 1970 by over £7 million but exports continued at much the same level. The main commodities exported (excluding petroleum products) are cotton, hides and skins, dried fish, rice and coffee. The chief imports (excluding petroleum) are clothing, foodstuffs and livestock. Britain is still Southern Yemen's main customer, importing £14.9 million worth of goods, mainly petroleum products, in 1970, with Japan as the second-largest customer. The leading supplier of crude oil, apart from Iran and Kuwait, is Japan.

Because Southern Yemen's trade consists mainly of petroleum, her close relations with the Socialist countries are not yet reflected in the trade figures.

FINANCE AND FOREIGN AID

Southern Yemen's finances have deteriorated steadily since Independence. In 1966, gold reserves were \$1.41 million and foreign exchange reserves amounted to \$64.86 million. By the end of 1970, gold reserves had fallen to \$600,000 and foreign exchange to \$53.3 million. Foreign exchange reserves were further reduced in the first quarter of 1971, to \$52.9 million. In the same period, the budget deficit grew from 100,000 dinars to nearly 2 million dinars.

Britain abruptly ceased payment of aid to Southern Yemen after the withdrawal in November 1967, although it had been agreed with the Government of the Federation before Independence that £60 million should be provided over a three-year period, in addition to an immediate payment of £12 million. Britain did pay £12 million, but Southern Yemen received only about £2.7 million after various deductions had been made. Since then, the Republic has drawn closer to the Eastern Bloc countries. The Soviet Union, under an agreement of February 1969, which included aid specifically for fisheries, undertook to provide technical aid and experts for a number of development projects. A separate agreement, signed in August 1969, covered aid for agriculture and irrigation. The first agreement was extended in February 1970 to include aid in kind worth 5.5 million roubles and, most important of all, a low-interest 7 million rouble loan repayable over 12 years. This loan was significant in that actual financial aid was offered rather than aid in the form of goods or technical assistance. East Germany agreed to a loan of \$22

PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF YEMEN—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

million in October 1969 and China granted a \$18 million loan in 1970, both part of large aid and trade "package deals". Both cover a wide range of projects, including in the case of East Germany, the construction of telephone facilities and the establishment of light industries, and, in the case of China, help with the road building programme. North Korea, too, is providing aid for communications. Bulgaria, Poland, Hungary and Romania have all promised aid to set up industries.

The richer Arab countries, too, are providing aid in certain sectors. The Kuwait Fund for Arab Economic Development is to finance a pre investment study of the Abyan Delta and an economic survey of the whole country. Algeria, as well as participating in oil exploration, has agreed to give \$4 million worth

of development aid. Libya is considering loans for industrial projects. The Southern Yemen Government has approached the Arab League on the subject of compensation for losses incurred as a direct result of the June War. No actual financial compensation has so far been awarded, but the League's Industrial Promotion Centre is undertaking studies in Southern Yemen.

Southern Yemen's relations with the West have deteriorated not only because of the British refusal to continue aid, but as a result of the rapprochement with the Eastern Bloc countries. The establishment of ties with East Germany caused West Germany to break off relations and now the main source of aid other than the Socialist countries and the Arab states, is the United Nations.

STATISTICAL SURVEY

AREA Square miles

MAINLAND AND SOCOTRA	KAMARAN ISLAND	PERIM ISLAND	KURIA MURIA ISLANDS
178,932	22	5	28

POPULATION

The total population is estimated at 1,500,000, of whom 100,000 live in Aden.

	LIVE BIRTHS	STILL BIRTHS	DEATHS
1963	8,470	134	2,060
1964	7,842	129	2,074
1965	9,081	126	1,971
1966	9,256	142	2,149
1967	3,207	117	598

EMPLOYMENT Aden 1967

TOTAL	PORT HANDLING	BUILDING	OIL REFINING	INDUSTRY	RETAIL AND WHOLESALE TRADE	GOVERN- MENT SERVICE	DOMESTIC SERVANTS	MISCEL- LANEOUS
47,417	5,172	473	2,943	8,425	3,730	12,632	8,000	1,042

In the rest of the country 90 per cent of the population are engaged in agriculture.

PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF YEMEN—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

AGRICULTURE
(Protectorate states)
PRINCIPAL CROPS

	1965-66		1966-67	
	ACRES	TONS	ACRES	TONS
Sorghum	90,000	25,000	93,600	30,000
Millet				
Wheat				
Barley	11,000	9,000	12,000	10,500
Sesame	2,500	2,750	3,000	3,500
Fruit and Vegetables	4,000	900	4,300	1,000
Cotton Lint	2,000	30,325		21,850
Cotton Seed	40,000	6,116	36,670	7,850

LIVESTOCK
(1967)

Cattle	41,000
Sheep	2,082,000
Goats	450,000
Camels	80,000

INDUSTRY
ADEN STATE
(1965)

FISHING
FEDERATION
(1965)

Fresh fish, including Sardine and Shark (tons)	16,540
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Salt (tons)	71,340
Aluminium ware („)	300
Cigarettes and pipe tobacco („)	3.8
Refined petroleum („)	6,665,845
Tiles (number)	3,569,050
Cement blocks („)	250,000
Tyres retreaded („)	n.a.
Cotton goods dyed and printed (bales)	n.a.
Aerated waters (bottles)	50,341,295

FINANCE

EXCHANGE RATES

1 South Arabian Dinar = 1,000 fils

840 fils = U.S. \$1.00.

1 South Arabian Dinar = £1 sterling = U.S. \$2.40.

BUDGET

(£)

	REVENUE	BRITISH AID	EXPENDITURE
1966-67	10,086,572	15,175,338	25,852,398
1967-68	8,918,176	22,872,176	33,034,847

British aid ceased in May 1968, and has been partly replaced by aid from several other countries, notably Federal Germany (also ceased in July 1969), Yugoslavia, Iraq, Libya and the U.S.S.R.

PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF YEMEN—(STATISTICAL SURVEY)

EXTERNAL TRADE

(£ million)

	1964	1965	1966	1967
Imports . . .	106.0	107.0	101.9	72.2
Exports . . .	74.2	66.7	67.9	50.5

COMMODITIES

1967

(£)

	IMPORTS (c.i.f)		EXPORTS (f.o.b.)	
	1966	1967	1966	1967
Sheep and goats	1,139,411	932,836	60	100
Fish, salted, dried or smoked	92,225	52,852	454,833	331,853
Rice	1,491,375	1,657,284	616,952	576,719
Wheat flour	1,705,233	1,410,923	349,394	236,186
Sugar, refined	1,132,626	842,855	237,809	136,269
Coffee, not roasted	843,013	402,728	935,595	571,385
Tea	939,258	1,116,548	160,569	189,826
Tobacco, manufactured	1,385,465	883,941	314,509	189,446
Hides and skins, raw	822,955	517,727	1,549,976	910,035
Cotton seed	12,030	6,100	169,022	25,355
Oil seed	736,501	584,136	15,849	7,501
Cotton, raw	—	—	1,093,451	1,183,435
Salt	—	—	129,990	111,310
Natural gums and resins	140,650	131,857	213,055	156,639
Textiles, yarn and thread	215,851	166,467	386,096	22,936
Cotton piece goods	2,375,193	2,594,916	910,955	628,428
Rayon goods	4,768,059	3,723,174	147,851	47,698
Cement	401,447	221,503	33,393	16,330
Iron and steel	593,829	417,312	31,818	27,732
Constructional machinery	1,553,780	729,027	261,260	126,216
Passenger cars	1,653,202	477,408	490,447	614,804
Watches	795,024	415,981	1,593	30
Petroleum products	39,519,094	27,099,053	30,890,497	31,396,782
Ships' bunker fuel oil	n.a.	—	22,354,519	8,514,583

COUNTRIES

(£)

IMPORTS			EXPORTS		
	1966	1967		1966	1967
Kuwait	11,637,219	11,452,928	United Kingdom	15,158,857	7,851,777
United Kingdom	11,700,743	6,777,274	Yemen	3,991,525	2,555,892
Iraq	12,815,545	8,763,796	Somalia	1,126,445	839,979
Japan	11,825,405	9,493,282	French Somaliland (Djibouti)	2,121,404	1,082,797
Qatar	2,074,670	427,738	Australia	3,091,203	2,903,693
India	3,906,090	2,714,978	India	151,543	591,122
Iraq	2,971,985	1,551,846	South Africa	4,083,277	3,574,867
German Federal Republic	3,215,000	1,812,780	Italy	1,341,527	904,832
Australia	3,858,774	2,692,688	Sudan	28,196	23,895
Netherlands	2,666,430	2,218,319			
Italy	2,166,376	1,153,799			

TRANSPORT

ROADS

	PASSENGER CARS	COMMERCIAL VEHICLES
1962 . .	12,000*	—
1964 . .	11,030	2,269
1965 . .	11,452	2,246

* (All classes)

SHIPPING*
Vessels Entered

	NUMBER	REGISTERED TONNAGE
1963 . .	7,767	31,313,403
1964 . .	n.a.	31,875,497
1965 . .	5,727	28,441,709

* Since the closing of the Suez Canal in June 1967 the average monthly number of ships calling at Aden has fallen from 560 to 115.

CIVIL AVIATION
(1968)

AIRCRAFT MOVEMENTS	PASSENGERS			FREIGHT (kilos)	
	Arrivals	Departures	Transit	Inward	Outward
5,860	53,300	53,161	8,167	998,538	852,898

EDUCATION

NUMBER OF SCHOOLS
(1967-68)

Primary Schools	387
Intermediate Schools	67
Secondary Schools	16
Teachers' Colleges for Males	4
Teachers' Colleges for Females	2
Technical Institute	1

Source: Ministry of National Guidance and Information, Aden.

THE CONSTITUTION

Before the new constitution was drawn up existing ordinances and regulations remained in force with Presidential authority replacing the powers of the British and Federal Governments. The National Liberation Front general command which had 41 members formed the interim legislative authority. The country is divided into six administrative Governorates. The two year term of office granted to the National Liberation Front expired on

November 30th 1969 and was formally renewed for another year. Following the adoption of the new constitution on November 30th 1970 a Provisional Supreme People's Council took over legislative powers. The 101 members were selected from the NLF, armed forces professions etc. with 15 workers elected by trade unions. The Council will draft legislation for a general election for a permanent Council in October 1971.

THE GOVERNMENT

HEAD OF STATE

President and Supreme Commander Armed Forces: SALEM RUBAYYI

PRESIDENTIAL COUNCIL

Chairman: SALEM RUBAYYI

Members: MUHAMMAD ALI HAITHAM ABDUL FATTAH ISMAIL

THE CABINET

(August 1971)

Prime Minister and Minister of Foreign Affairs: MUHAMMAD ALI HAITHAM

Minister of Defence: ALI NASSER HASANI

Minister of the Interior: MUHAMMAD SALEH YAFAI

Minister of Finance: MUHAMMAD MAHFOUZ BASHWAN

Minister of Culture, Information and National Guidance: ABDULLAH AL KHAMERI

Minister of Economy, Planning and Commerce: ALI MUBARAK MUHAWRAK

Minister of Communications and Public Works: HAIDER ABUBAKER ALATTAS

Minister of Local Government: ALI NASSER HASSANI

Minister of Justice: ADEL MAHFOODH KHALIFA

Minister of Health: Dr. ABDUL AZIZ DALI

Minister of Agriculture and Reforms: MUHAMMAD SALEM AKOUSH

Minister of Labour: MUHAMMAD ALI UMMAYAH

DIPLOMATIC REPRESENTATION

REPRESENTATIVES OF THE PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF YEMEN ABROAD

(A) Ambassador, (CA) Chargé d'Affaires

China, People's Republic: ABDULLAH ABOUDAH Peking (CA)

German Democratic Republic: ALI BADELS Berlin (A)

Somalia: SALIM RABI ALI Mogadishu (A)

U.S.S.R.: AHMED SALEH AL SHAIR Moscow (A)

United Arab Republic: ABDUL QADER BAFAGH CAYO (A)

United Kingdom: FADHLE AHMAD SALLAMI London (A) ²

United Nations: ABDUL MALEK ISMAIL New York (Perm Rep)

EMBASSIES IN ADEN

China, People's Republic: Ambassador LI CHIANG-FEN

France: Barrack Hill Tawahi Ambassador G. DENIZEAU

German Democratic Republic: (Address not available) Ambassador KARL WILDAU

India: Premjee Mansion Steamer Point, Ambassador J. L. MALHOTRA

Korea (Democratic People's Republic): (Address not available) Ambassador HONG MAN PRO

Southern Yemen also has diplomatic relations with Belgium Denmark Ethiopia, Iraq Italy, Mongolia Netherlands Norway Pakistan Portugal Sweden and Yugoslavia

Somalia: (Address not available) Ambassador Dr. ABDARAHMAN HUSSEIN

U.S.S.R.: (Address not available), Ambassador VLADIMIR STARTSEV

United Arab Republic: Rock Hotel Ambassador SAMIR ABBASSI

United Kingdom: Ras Bradley Tawahi Ambassador ARTHUR R. H. KELLAS

POLITICAL PARTIES

ADEN

National Liberation Front: Aden; f. 1963; socialist and Arab nationalist; Leader ABDUL FATTAH ISMAIL.

JUDICIAL SYSTEM

The administration of justice is entrusted to the Supreme Court and Magistrates' Courts. In the former Protectorate States Muslim law and local common law (Urfi) are also applied.

President of the Supreme Court: ABD-AL-MAJID ABD-AL-RAHMAN.

RELIGION

The majority of the population are Muslim but there are small Christian and Hindu communities.

THE PRESS

DAILIES

al Akhbar: News House, P.O.B. 435, Aden; f. 1953; Arabic; Editor MUHAMMAD ALI LUQMAN, B.A., M.L.C.

al-Ayyam: P.O.B. 648; Front Bay, Crater, Aden; f. 1958; Arabic; Editor M. A. BASHARAHEEL; circ. 8,000.

Fatat ul Jezirah: Esplanade Rd., Crater, Aden; f. 1940; Arabic; Editor MUHAMMAD ALI LUQMAN; circ. approx. 10,000.

Fourteenth October: Aden.

WEEKLIES

Aden Chronicle: Esplanade Road, Crater, Aden; English; Editor FAROUK LUQMAN.

al Majallah: P.O.B. 1187, Aden; organ of the South Yemeni Broadcasting Service; Arabic; Editor AHMED SHARIF RIFA'I; circ. approx. 1,000.

al Taleeah: P.O.B. 115, Mukalla; Arabic.

al-Thaqafa Al-Jadida: P.O.B. 1187, Aden; f. Aug. 1970; a cultural monthly review issued by the Ministry of Information and Culture; Arabic; Editor FARID BARAKAT; Editorial Sec. SHAWQUI A. ZOKARI; circ. 2,500.

Recorder, The: P.O.B. 648; Front Bay, Crater, Aden; f. 1955; English; political and social affairs; Editor M. A. BASHARAHEEL; circ. 6,000.

MONTHLIES

Angham: P.O.B. 555, Aden; f. 1956; Arabic; Editor ALI AMAN.

B.P. Aden Magazine: B.P. Refinery, P.O.B. 3003, Little Aden; f. 1960; English (publ. in Arabic as **Magallat Adan**); Editor The Public Relations Officer, B.P. Refinery.

Gambia: Seedaseer Lines, Khormaksar; f. 1963; monthly newspaper for the Armed Forces of South Arabia; Arabic and English; Editor ABU KHAMSA.

NEWS AGENCY

Aden News Agency: Aden.

RADIO AND TELEVISION

RADIO

The South Yemeni Broadcasting Service: P.O.B. 1264, Aden; transmits 76 hours a week in Arabic; Broadcasting Officer H. M. SAFI; there are about 250,000 receivers in the country.

TELEVISION

South Yemeni Broadcasting Service: P.O.B. 1264, Aden programmes for three hours daily were introduced in 1964 on a commercial basis and extended to 4½ hours in both English and Arabic, plus 2½ hours weekly of programmes for schools. There are about 21,000 receivers.

FINANCE

Southern Yemen Currency Authority: Aden; state authority responsible for the management of the currency; the authority is due to be replaced by a new central bank.

BANKS

All foreign banking interests in Southern Yemen were nationalized in November 1969.

Bank of South Arabia Ltd.: Crater; f. 1966; Chair. A. K. M. SULTAN; Man. F. W. RONALD; Cap. SY£1.6m.

National Bank of Yemen: P.O.B. 5, Crater, Aden; f. 1970 by amalgamating and nationalizing the local branches of the seven foreign banks then in Aden.

INSURANCE

All foreign insurance interests were nationalized in November 1969.

Arabian Trading Co. (Aden) Ltd.: P.O.B. 426, Aden; Dir. TAHER A. A. NABEE.

TRADE AND INDUSTRY

Aden Chamber of Commerce: Front Bay, Crater; f. 1886; 250 mems.; Chair. SAID OMAR ABDUL AZIZ SHIHAB; Sec. M. BAIANI; publ. *Chamber Handbook* (annual).

Aden Exchange Banks Association: c/o National Bank of Southern Yemen, Aden.

Aden Merchants' Association: M. A. Luqman Rd., 1-11 Crater; f. 1932; 209 mems.; Pres. PHEROZESHAH P. PATEL; Secs. SORABJEE P. PATEL, M.B.E., ALI A. SAFFI.

National Company for Home Trade: Crater, Aden; f. 1970; importers of cars, electrical goods, pharmaceuticals, agricultural machinery, building materials and general consumer goods; incorporates the main foreign trading business which were nationalized in 1970; Gen. Man. A. A. GUHAISH.

EMPLOYERS' ASSOCIATIONS

Aden Hotel Proprietors' Association: c/o Crescent Hotel, Steamer Point, Aden.

Civil Contractors' Association: P.O. Box 307, Aden.

TRADE UNIONS

General Confederation of Workers of the People's Republic of Southern Yemen: P.O.B. 1162, Maala, Aden; f. 1956; affiliated to W.F.T.U. and I.C.A.T.U.; 35,000 mems.; Gen. Sec. FADHLE ALI ABDULLA; publ. *Sout Al Omal* weekly, circ. approx. 4,500.

PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF YEMEN—(TRADE AND INDUSTRY, TRANSPORT, ETC)

There are fifteen Registered Trade Unions, including the following

- General and Port Workers' Union.
- Forces and Associated Organizations Local Employees' Union
- Government and Local Government Employees' Union
- General Union of Petroleum Workers
- Miscellaneous Industries Employees' Union
- Aden Port Trust Employees' Union
- Civil Aviation Employees' Union.
- Banks Local Staff Union

CO-OPERATIVES AND MARKETING

There are 65 co-operative societies, mostly for agricultural products, the movement was founded in 1965 and is now the responsibility of the Ministry for Agriculture and Agrarian Reform.

OIL

Yemeni National Petroleum Co.: Aden, sole oil concessionaire in Southern Yemen in receipt of technical and financial assistance from Algeria, Gen. Man. AHMAN ALI SAID

TRANSPORT

RAILWAYS

There are no railways.

ROADS

Aden Bus Co. Ltd.: Addusco Bldg., Ma'alla, P.O.B. 905, Aden, f. 1960, operates services within the Crater, Ma'alla, Steamer Point, Sheikh Othman and Al-Mansoura areas, Chair and Gen. Man. SAZED FARA SALIM

A new state transport monopoly, the Yemen Land Transport Company, is being formed to incorporate the Aden Bus Company and all other local public transport.

Aden has 140 miles of roads, of which 127 have bituminous surfacings. There are approximately 2 680 miles of rough tracks passable for motor traffic in the hinterland, but most of the transport is by camel and donkey

SHIPPING

National Shipping Company: P.O.B. 1228, Steamer Point, Aden, f. 1969 by the amalgamation and nationalization of five foreign shipping companies in November 1969, freight and passenger services, branches or agents in Mukalla, Berbera (Somalia), and Mocha and Hodieda (Yemen)

Aden Port Authority: Aden, f. 1889, state administrative body. Aden remained a free port (except for tariffs on petrol alcohol and tobacco) until 1970 though trade has greatly declined since 1967. Aden Maan Harbour has twenty first-class berths. Three of them are Dolphin berths accommodating vessels drawing up to 37 feet, and the remaining seventeen are buoy berths for vessels drawing up to 34 feet. There are two second-class berths for vessels drawing up to 28 feet and four third-class berths for vessels whose draught does not exceed 16 feet. In addition to the above, there is ample

room to accommodate vessels of light draught at anchor in the 18 foot dredged area. There is also 600 feet of cargo wharf accommodating vessels of 300 feet length and 18 feet draught. Aden Oil Harbour accommodates four tankers of 42 000 tons and up to 39 feet draught

A programme of dredging to maintain the advertised depths and of deepening some channels began in April 1970

CIVIL AVIATION

Democratic Yemen Airlines Company: Aden, f. 1971 as successor to the Brothers Air Services Company

Other companies operating services include the following: Aeroflot, Air Djibouti, Air India, E.A.A.C., Ethiopian Airways, Kuwait Airways M.E.A., Somali Airlines, Sudan Airways, U.A.A., Yemen Airlines

Aden Civil Airport is at Khormaksar, 7 miles from the Port. It was established in 1952, and is operated by the Civil Aviation Department

EDUCATION

The educational system consists of four years of Primary, three years of Intermediate and four to six years of Secondary schooling. There are 225 Government Primary Schools, 29 Intermediate Schools and 6 Secondary Schools, and a Technical Institute at Maalla Aden, with a branch at Little Aden. Other higher education is received abroad

In addition there are 12 Government Aided and 5 Private Primary Schools, and 10 Grant Aided and 4 Private Intermediate Schools. Teacher-Training Centres provide over 200 places for men and women trainees while adult education is provided by evening classes

LEARNED SOCIETY

Department of Antiquities and Museums: Khormaksar, P.O.B. 473, Ministry of Culture and Guidance f. 1948, for the protection of antiquities and archaeological sites and control of the Antiquities Ordinance, to carry out archaeological surveys and encourage the research and study of Southern Yemen under the control of the Ministry of Education, Dir. MUHAMMAD ABDUL-WAHED, publs. Reports and Bulletins

LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

Miswat Library: previously called Lake Library, administered by Aden Municipality, 1,293 mems.; 30,017 vols., in English, Arabic and Urdu

Teachers' Club Library: over 2,000 vols

Travelling Library: ancillary to Miswat Library, administered by Aden Municipality, 895 mems.; 9 235 vols., in English and Arabic

There are two museums, one in Crater and the other in Steamer Point, both displaying archaeological material

BIBLIOGRAPHY

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- COLONIAL OFFICE. Accession of Aden to the Federation of South Arabia (London, H.M.S.O., 1962).
- COLONIAL OFFICE. Treaty of Friendship and Protection between the United Kingdom and the Federation of South Arabia (London, H.M.S.O., 1964).
- FEDERATION OF SOUTH ARABIA. Conference on Constitutional Problems of South Arabia (H.M.S.O., 1964).
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- GOVERNMENT OF ADEN. Memorandum on the Five-Year Development Plan, 1952-53 to 1956-57 (Aden, 1958).
- GOVERNMENT OF ADEN. Report of the Adenisation Committee, 1959 (London, 1959).
- HARDING, H. LANKESTER. Archaeology in the Aden Protectorate (London, H.M.S.O., 1964).
- HICKINBOTHAM, Sir TOM. Aden (London, Constable, 1959).
- INGRAMS, DOREEN. A Survey of the Social and Economic Conditions of the Aden Protectorate (London).
- INGRAMS, W. H. A Report on the Social, Economic and Political Conditions of the Hadhramaut, Aden Protectorate (London, 1936).
- JOHNSTON, CHARLES. The View from Steamer Point (London, Collins, 1964).
- KING, GILLIAN. Imperial Outpost-Aden (New York, Oxford University Press, 1964).
- LITTLE, TOM. South Arabia (London, Pall Mall Press, 1968).
- MAWER, JUNE KNOX. The Sultans Came to Tea (Murray, London, 1961).
- PAGET, JULIAN. Last Post: Aden 1964-67 (Faber and Faber, London, 1969).
- QAT COMMISSION OF INQUIRY. Report (Aden, 1958).
- TREVASKIS, Sir KENNEDY. Shades of Amber, A South Arabian Episode (London, Hutchinson, 1967).
- VAN DER MEULEN, DANIEL. Hadramaut: Some of Its Mysteries Unveiled (Leiden, 1932, reprinted 1964).
- WATERFIELD, GORDON. Sultans of Aden (Murray, London 1968).

PART FOUR

Other Reference Material

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

A

Aamiry Mohammad Adeb El- b. A. Jordanian politician and educationalist b 1907 Palestine ed American Univ of Beirut and Palestine Law Inst
 Teacher 30 Headmaster 34 Ministry of Educ Insp 43 Deputy Dir of Broadcasting Station Jerusalem 44 Gen Sec Ministry of Foreign Affairs 50 Dir Imports Dept 51 Civil Service Dept 55 58 Under Sec at Ministry of Educ 59 at Ministry of Reconstruction and Devt 53 Ministry of Foreign Affairs Aug Oct 67 of Educ Oct 67 April 68 Amb to U.A.R. May 68 Minister of Culture Information Tourism and Antiquities Dec 68 69 Al Kawakab Medal 1st Grade Al Istiqlal Medal 1st Grade and others
 Pubs *Life and Youth Ray of Light* (short stories) *General Service* (3 vols) *Arab Jerusalem*
 P.O. Box 1514 Amman Jordan

Abd El Khayl, Sheikh Abdulrahman b. A. Saudi Arabian diplomatist and politician b 1927 ed Cairo Univ
 Diplomat c Service 52 Ministry of Foreign Affairs Cairo Beirut 52 58 Dir Gen. Ministry of Finance and Nat Econ. Council 58 60 Senior Adviser Ministry of Foreign Affairs 60 mem. Admin Board Arab Cement Co Jeddah 60-61 Minister of Labour and Soc. Affairs 61 Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs Riyadh Saudi Arabia

Abaza Tharwat LL.B. United Arab Republic (Egyptian) lawyer editor and writer b 28 June 1927 ed Monira Primary School Farouk Secondary School and Cairo Univ
 Lawyer 50-54 Editor *Elmasri*, daily newspaper 52 54 *Alkhabra* 54 55 Publishing Consultant 56 57 61 mem. Ctee on Fict on Supreme Council for Arts Literature and Social Sciences and of its State Prizes Cites State Prize for Fiction 59 State Decoration Grade I for Literature
 Pubs *Ibn Ammar* (Historical Fiction) 54 *Al Hayat Lana* (Life for Us—play) 55 *Hareb men Alayam* (An Escape from Fate—novel) 56 *Kasr Ala Elmi* (A Palace over the Nile—novel) 57 *Alayam Alkhadra* (Green Days—short stories) 58 *Thoma Toshreik Alshams* (Then the Sun Rises—novel) 60 *Zhekrat Ba da* (Far Echoes—short stories) 61 *Leks Honek* (An Appointment There—novel) 62 *Aldabab* (The Fog—novel) 64 *Shaoun men Alkhawf* (A Little Fear—novel) 65 *Hayat El Hayah* (Life of Life—play) *Hathih Elloba* (This Toy—short stories) *Hina Ya nil Al Mizan* (When the Scales are Unbalanced—short stories)
 5 Nadi Street, Maadi U.A.R.

Abbar, Abdulhameed Al, Libyan politician b 1889 ed Keranic School
 Libyan Del. to Libyan Italian Peace Conf Rome 19 20 Del. to UN Lake Success Conf 48 mem Senate 52 Pres 61 Del. to Summit Conf of Arab States Cairo 63 Royal Counsellor 66-69 Libyan Italian and British decorations
 Al Abiyar Cyrenaica Libya.

Abbas, Ferhat, Algerian politician b 1899 ed Algiers Univ
 Formerly a chemist at Sétif Leader of *Association des Ehd uns rursulmans* 26-31 took part in org of the Algerian People's Union 38 published Manifesto of the Algerian People 43 founded *Amis du Manifeste et de la Liberté* (A.M.L.) 44 under detention May 45 March 46 took part in the formation of the *Union Démocratique du Manifeste Algérien* (U.D.M.A.) 46 elected rep to French Constitutional Assembly 46 later mem. of French Union Assembly elected to Algerian Assembly 48 and 54 Leader of U.D.M.A. 46-56 joined Nat Liberation Front

(F.L.N.) 55 mem F.L.N. del. to Eleventh Gen Assembly of UN 57 Prime Minister of Provisional Government of the Algerian Republic (in Tunisia) 58-61 Pres of the Chamber of the independent state of Algeria 62 63 under detention July 64 June 65
 Pubs *Le Jeune algérien* 31 *La Nuit Coloniale* 62
 Konba Algiers Algeria

Abbas Major Gen Khalid Hassan, Sudanese army officer and politician.
 Member Revolutionary Command Council May 69 Chief of Gen Staff Oct. 69-June 70 Minister of Defence Oct. 69-Ministry of Defence Khartoum Sudan

Abdoud, Gen. Ibrahim Sudanese officer and politician b 1900 ed Gordon Coll Khartoum and Military Coll Khartoum
 Entered Sudan Defence Force served 39-45 war with Sudanese contingent British Army in Eritrea Ethiopia and Libya Dep C in-C Sudanese Army 54 C in-C 56-64 Pres Supreme Military Council Prime Minister and Minister of Defence 58-64
 Suakin Sudan

Abdelkerim, Ahmad Ezzat D.Litt. United Arab Republic (Egyptian) historian b 19 June 1909 ed Cairo Univ
 Lecturer Asst Prof of Modern History Cairo Univ until 50 Visiting Prof Univ of Damascus 46-49 Prof of Modern History Ain Shams Univ 50-64 Dean of Faculty of Arts Ain Shams Univ 61-64 Vice-Rector 64 68 Rector 68 Visiting Prof Woodrow School of Foreign Affairs Univ of Virginia 52 Univ of Libya Benghazi 60-61
 Pubs *History of Education in Egypt under Mohamed Ali* 38 *History of Education in Egypt (From the Reign of Mohamed Ali to the British Occupation—3 vols)* 44 *Venice an Aristocratic Republic* (trans from French) 47 *Modern and Contemporary History of the Arab World* 55 *History of Syria in the 18th Century* 58 *Studies in Modern Arab Renaissance* 59
 Abbasiyah Cairo United Arab Republic

Abdel-Rahman, Alsha PH.D. (pen name Bint el Shaf) United Arab Republic (Egyptian) writer and university professor ed Cairo Univ
 Asst Lecturer Cairo Univ 39 Literary Critic *Al Ahrar* 42 Inspectress in Arabic Languages and Literature Ministry of Education 42 Lecturer in Arabic Ain Shams Univ 50 57 Asst Prof 57-62 Prof of Arabic Literature and Chair Univ Coll for Women 62 mem Higher Council of Arts and Letters 60 State Prize 36 Acad. of Arabic Language Award for Textual Studies 50 for Short Story 54
 Pubs *Russalei el Ghofram* by *Abul Ala* a 50 *New Values in Arabic Literature* 61 *The Koran Literary Interpretation* 62 *Ibn Sedda's Arabic Dictionary* 62 *Contemporary Arab Women Poets* 63 six books on illustrious women of Islam two novels four vols of short stories
 13 Agam Street Helopolis Cairo U.A.R.

Abdel-Rahman, Ibrahim Helmi, PH.D. United Arab Republic United Nations official b 5 Jan 1919 ed Univs of Cairo London Edinburgh Cambridge and Leiden
 Lecturer in Astronomy and Astrophysics later Asst Prof Cairo Univ 42 54 Sec-Gen. Council of Ministers 54 58 Dir Egyptian Atomic Energy Comm 54 59 mem. and Sec-Gen Nat. Science Council 56-58 mem Nat. Planning Comm 57-60 Dir Inst. of Nat. Planning 60-63 UN Commr for Industrial Devt. 63 66 Exec. Dir UN Industrial Devt. Org (UNIDO) 67 mem Egyptian Del. UNESCO Gen Conf 48 52 54 mem U.A.R. Del. to Int

WHO S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Abukhalat Joseph Ibrahim, Lebanese diplomatist b Zahle
Former Amb to Italy Austria Mexico for Dir Gen of Ministry of Foreign Affairs Amb to U.A.R. 55-66 for Perm. Del to the Arab League and later attached to its Central Admin. Minister of Educ 69-70. Con mdr of the Order of the Cedars several other foreign decorations
c/o Ministry of Education Beirut Lebanon

Abdeshi Mohamed Mahmoud n sc A.C.P. United Arab Republic (Egyptian) banker b. 15 Aug 1913 ed Cairo Univ Chartered Inst. of Patent Agents and American Univ Washington D.C. U.S.A.
Controller-Gen. Insurance Dept. Ministry of Finance 49-52 Dir.-Gen. Govt. Insurance and Provident Funds 53 Chair and Man. Dir. Development and Popular Housing Co. 54 55 Sub-Gov. Nat. Bank of Egypt 55-60 Man. Dir. 61-67 Chair 67-70 Chair Soc. al Insurance Org. 56-57 Chair and Man. Dir. Cairo Insurance Co. 56-57 Man. Dir. Cairo Bank 56-57 Chair Union de Banques Arabes et Francaises 70- Order of the Repub. 2nd Class
Publs. *The Art of Central Banking and its Application in Egypt* 57 *Central Banking in Egypt* 52
c/o Dr. Haim Abou Seid Helopolis, Cairo U.A.R.

Abuzaid Salah, Jordanian politician b 21 April 1925 ed Syrian Univ Damascus and Syracuse Univ New York
Teacher Irbid Secondary School 42 Chief Publicity Dept. Statistical Dept. Amman 50 Sec. Jordan Dert. Bd. 53 56 Controller of Press Press Dept. 56-57 Asst. Dir.-Gen. Hashemite Broadcasting Service 58 59 Dir. Gen. 6-64 Asst. Dir.-Gen. Nat. Guidance and Information 59-60 Dir.-Gen. 62 Chief National Guidance 6-64 Minister of Information 64 65 Culture and Information 6-68 Tourism and Antiquities 67-68 Amb to the U.K. 69-70 Arab Renaissance Med. Jordanian Star Cedar of Lebanon and several other medals
Publ. *Al Hussein bin Talal* 58
c/o University of Foreign Affairs Amman Jordan

Aci, Kamran, Turkish diplomatist b 2 March 1917 ed School of Political Studies Univ of Ankara
With Ministry of Foreign Affairs 41 served Ankara 41 43 45-47 Attaché Rio de Janeiro 43 45 Vice-Consul Mytilene Greece 47 49 First Sec. Helunk 49-51 Dir. of Section Dept. of Trade and Trade Agreements 51 53 First Sec. and Counsellor Wash nton 53 59 Deputy Dir. Gen. then Dir.-Gen. Dept. of Middle East, Africa and Asia, Ministry of Foreign Affairs 59-62 Amb to Ghana 62-64 to Morocco 64-66 to Tunisia 67-70 mem Turkish del. to 15th Session of Gen. Assembly of UN and to several meetings of CENTO and NATO Grand Cordon Kingdom of Morocco c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs Ankara Turkey

Ahour, Habib, Tunisian trade unionist
Secretary-Gen. Union Générale Tunisienne du Travail 64-65 mem. Bureau Politique Destour Socialist Party Nov 64 arrested June 65 sentenced to six months imprisonment March 66
Destour Socialist Party 10 rue de Rome Tunis Tunisia.

Akifin Cevat Turk sh diplomatist and politician b 98 ed Galata Saray Coll Istanbul and Univ of Geneva.
Sec. Turkish Consulate Gen. Geneva 20 Sec. Financial Comm. Lausanne Conf 22 Asst. Legal Adviser Fore Gen Office 23 Sec. Turkish Legation Warsaw 24 Principal Asst. Legal Adviser Foreign Office 25 Legal Adviser to Afghan Govt. 6 Chargé d'Affaires Irague 28 Counsellor to Turkish Embassy Teheran 30 Moscow 31 Dir.-Gen. Second Dept. Foreign Office 34 Dir. Gen. First Political Dept. 35 Min 37 Envoy Extraordinary to the Hatay 38 Deputy Sec.-Gen. Foreign Office 39 Ambassador to Moscow 42 Sec.-Gen. Foreign Office 43 Ambassador to U.K. 43-52 Ambassador to Italy 54-61 Senator 62 The Senate Ankara Turkey

Adamiyyat Faridun, P.R.O. Iranian diplomatist b 1920 ed Teheran and London Univs
Foreign Office 39 served Teheran London UN Ambassador to Netherlands until 63 to India 63-65
Publs. *Arab Khabir and Iran* (3 vols) *History of Iranian Diplomatic Relations with Russia Britain and Turkey The Bakhtiari Quest on*
c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs Teheran Iran.

Adamiyyat Tahmouress, Iranian diplomatist b 17 ed Entesaneh Elementary School Adab Secondary School Darfelenoun Secondary School Teheran and Teheran Univ
Government Service 36-38 Diplomatic Service 38 Second Sec Moscow 45 First Sec London (Consular Affairs) 50-52 Counsellor Moscow 53 56 Minister Moscow 59-61 Minister Rumania and Bulgaria 62 Ambassador to Kuwait 62 Ambassador to U.S.S.R. 63 66 Order of Taj Third Class
c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs Teheran Iran.

Adams Michael Evelyn M.A. British writer b 31 May 1920 ed Sedburgh School and Christ Church Oxford
Commonwealth Fund Fellowship in U.S.A. 54 55 Middle East Correspondent *The Guardian* 56-6 Asst. to Dir. Voluntary Service Overseas 64 67 Dir. of Information Council for the Advancement of Arab-British Understanding (CAABU) 68
Publs. *Sue and After* 58 *Umbria* 64 *Voluntary Service Overseas* 68 *Chaos or Rebirth* 68 *Handbook to the Middle East* (Ed tor) 71
Council for the Advancement of Arab-British Understanding 104 Grand Buildings Trafalgar Square London WC 2 England

Adams Sir Philip George Dayne, A.C.M.G. British diplomatist b 17 Dec. 1915 ed Lancing and Christ Church Oxford
Vice-Consul Beirut 39 41 war service 41 Third Sec. Cairo 41 43 Second Sec. Jeddah 45 47 Foreign Office London 47 51 First Sec. Vienna 51 54 Trade Commr Khartoum 54 56 Regional Inf. Officer Beirut 56-59 Foreign Office London 59-63 Consul Gen. Chicago 63-66 Amb to Jordan 66-70
Foreign and Commonwealth Office London S.W. 1 England

Adams, Robert McCormick, A.M. P.R.O. American anthropologist and archaeologist b 23 July 1926 ed. Univ of Chicago
Archaeological field work at Jarmo Iraq 50-51 Yucatán Mexico 53 joined staff of Univ of Chicago 54 Dir. Oriental Inst. 63 68 Prof. of Anthropology 63 Dean, Div. of Social Science 70- Field studies of irrigation and settlement patterns in central and southern Iraq 56-58 60 67 68 69 Iran 60-61 Fellow American Acad. of Arts and Sciences American Anthropological Assn American Assn for the Advancement of Science mem German Archaeological Inst. Nat. Acad. of Science
Publs. *City Inevitable a Symposium of Urbanism on and Cultural Development in the Ancient Near East* (co-editor with C. H. Kraeling) 60 *La d Behind Baghdad a History of Settlement on the Diyala Plains* 65 *The Evolution of Urban Society Early Mesopotamia and Pre hispania Mexico* 66 *The Uruk Cou byside* (with H. J. Nissen) 71 The Oriental Institute 1155 East 58th Street Chicago Illinois 60637 and 5201 South Kumbark Avenue Chicago Illinois 60615 U.S.A.

Adasani Mahmood n sc Kuwait engineer b 31 Jan 1934 ed Kuwait American Univ Beirut and Univ of Southern California.
Assistant petroleum engineer Kuwait Oil Co 53-60 petroleum engineer 60 Dir 60- Technical Asst. Gen. Oil Affairs Dept. Ministry of Finance and Oil 60-63 Dir. of Technical Affairs 63 66 Asst. Under Sec. for Oil Affairs

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

66-; Man. Dir. Salwa Construction Co.; mem. American Inst. Mechanical Engineers, Kuwait Soc. Engineers. *Publs. Oil of Kuwait, The Greater Burgan Field, North Kuwait Oil Fields.*
Ministry of Finance and Oil, P.O.B. 5077, Kuwait, Kuwait.

Adel, Omer Abdel Hamid, LL.B.; Sudanese diplomatist; b. 1923; ed. Sudan Schools and Kings' Coll., London Univ. Entered Govt. Service 42; Customs Officer 45-48; joined Sudan Police 48, studied in England 52-54; Barrister-at-Law (Gray's Inn) 55; Superintendent of Police (C.I.D.), Sudan 55; Private Sec. to Supreme Council of Republic 56; Ambassador to Italy 56-59; Perm. Rep. to UN 59-64; Head, UN Supervisory Comm., Cook Is. elections 65; Consultant for Implementation of UN Resolutions on Non Self-Governing Territories 65-66; Resident Rep. of UN Devt. Programme (UNDP) in Iraq Oct. 66-
c/o United Nations Headquarters, New York, N.Y. 10017, U.S.A.

Adib, Albert; Lebanese editor; b. Mexico 1 July 1908; ed. Egypt.

Editor many magazines, Cairo 27-30, Beirut 30-38; Pres. Acad. of Oriental Music, Beirut 33-38; Gen. Dir. Radio-Levant Broadcasting Station, Beirut 38-43; Editor and proprietor *Al-Adib* review, Beirut 42-; mem. various acads. and foreign cultural insts.; Chevalier of the Order of the Cedar.

Publ. *Liman* (poems) 52.
P.O. Box 878, Beirut, Lebanon.

Adly, Zakaria El; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) diplomatist.

Ambassador to People's Republic of China 62-68.
Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Cairo, United Arab Republic.

Adwok, Bong Gicomeko, Luigi; Sudanese schoolmaster and public servant; b. 1929; ed. Rumbek Secondary School and Inst. of Education, Bakht Er Ruda.

Schoolmaster 52-58; mem. Parl. March-Nov. 58; Headmaster Tembura Intermediate School 63-64; elected mem. Supreme Council of State Dec. 64, re-elected June 65, resigned June 65; mem. Central Exec. Cttee. Southern Front Party 64-67; mem. Sudan Constituent Assembly 67-69.
P.O. Box 2140, Khartoum, Sudan.

Afi, Ahmed Jaber; Yemeni government official; b. 1930; ed. High School, Sana'a.

Director of Schools, Hodeida Province 52-56; Under-Sec. for Educ. 56-58; Dir. Sana'a Hospital 58-60; Under-Sec. for Health 60-63; Amb. to Lebanon and Syria 63-69; Pres. Council of Petroleum Co. 69-; Minister of Educ. 70-
Al-rayni Street, Sana'a, Yemen Arab Republic.

Afifi, Ahmed; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) agriculturalist; b. 6 March 1910; ed. Abbassia Primary School, Ismail Secondary School, Cairo and London Univs. Lecturer, Cairo Univ. 34-46; Chief Plant Breeder, Egyptian Agricultural Org. 46-53, Sub-Dir.-Gen. 53-57, Dir.-Gen. 57-; mem. board of several orgs. under Ministries of Agric., Econ., and Scientific Research; various awards for agricultural achievements including prize for breeding new variety of cotton in Egypt.

Publs. *Cytological and Genetical Principles of Plant Breeding* (Arabic) 55, and many scientific papers in int. journals of genetics and cytology 33-53.

Exhibition Grounds, P.O.B. 63, Gezira, Cairo, United Arab Republic.

Aflak, Michel; Syrian politician; b. 10; ed. Greek Orthodox Lyceum, Damascus, and Univ. of Paris.

Former teacher, Damascus Lycée; Founder and Sec.-Gen. Baath Party 42-65; arrested Feb. 66; expelled from party 66; Minister of Education 54.

Publ. *Fi Sabil al-Ba'ith* 59.

Raouche, Beirut, Lebanon.

Afshar, Amir Aslan; Iranian government official; b. 21 Nov. 1922; ed. Berlin and Hindenburg Schools, and Univs. of Berlin, Greifswald, Vienna and Geneva.

Joined Ministry of Foreign Affairs 47, Sec., The Hague 50-54; Del. to Bandung Conf., Indonesia 55; Eisenhower Exchange Fellowship 55-56; mem. Parl. 56-61; Del. to UN Gen. Assembly 57, 58 and 60; Adjutant to the Shah 59-66; Plenipotentiary Minister 63; mem. High Political Council 63-66; Pres. Iranian Shipping Lines 60-67; Amb. to Austria 67-70; Amb. to U.S.A. 70-; Pres. Board of Governors of the Int. Atomic Energy Agency, Vienna; numerous decorations.

Publs. in German: *The Constitution of the Third Reich* 42, *The Administration of the Third Reich* 42, *Possibilities for the Economic Development of Iran* 43; in Persian: *The End of the Third Reich* 48, *God Created the Universe and the Dutch made Holland* 55; in English: *Report on America* 56. The Embassy of Iran, Washington, D.C. 20008, U.S.A.

Afshar, Amir Khosrow; Iranian diplomatist; ed. Geneva Univ.

Foreign Service 41-; served Washington, UN, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, London 41-57; Head, Political Section, Ministry of Foreign Affairs 57; fmr. Ambassador to German Fed. Rep.; Ambassador to France 64-66, to U.K. 69-
Iranian Embassy, 16 Princes Gate, London, S.W.7.

Aga Khan IV, H.H. Shah Karim; leader of the Ismaili Muslims; b. 13 Dec. 1936; ed. Le Rosey (Switzerland) and Harvard Univ.

Succeeded to title July 57; granted title His Highness by the Queen 57, His Royal Highness by Shah of Iran 59; Commr. Ordre du Mérite Mauritanien 60, Grand Croix Ordre National Côte d'Ivoire 65, Haute-Volta 65, Malgache 66, Ordre du Croissant Vert des Comores 66, Grand Cordon de l'Ordre du Tadj de l'Empire d'Iran 67, Hon. D.L. Pakistan 67.

1 rue des Ursins, Paris 4e, France.

Aga Khan, Prince Sadruddin; British and Iranian UN official; b. 1933; ed. Harvard Univ. and Harvard Univ. Graduate School for Arts and Sciences.

UNESCO Consultant for Afro-Asian Projects 58; Head of Mission and Adviser to UN High Commr. for Refugees 59-60; UNESCO Special Consultant to Dir.-Gen. 61; Exec. Sec. Int. Action Cttee. for Preservation of Nubian Monuments 61; UN Dep. High Commr. for Refugees 62-65, High Commr. 65-; Publ. *The Paris Review*; Founder and Sec. Harvard Islamic Asscn.; Pres. Council on Islamic Affairs, New York City; mem. Inst. of Differing Civilizations, Brussels.

Château de Bellerive, Collonge-Bellerive, Geneva, Switzerland.

Agranat, Shimon, LL.D.; Israeli judge; b. U.S.A. 1906; ed. Chicago Univ.

Went to Palestine 30; Advocate in private practice 31-40; Magistrate 40-48; Pres. District Court, Haifa 48-50; Judge, Supreme Court, Jerusalem 50-; Dep. Pres. 61-65, Pres. 65-62 Nayot Street, Rehavia, Jerusalem; and The Supreme Court, Jerusalem, Israel.

Ahardane, Mahjoubi; Moroccan politician; b. 1922.

Former soldier in the French Army; fmr. Sec.-Gen. Mouvement Populaire; Minister of Defence 63-64; Minister of Agriculture and Agrarian Reform Aug. 64-66; mem. Regency Council July 65; Minister of Nat. Defence 66-67.
c/o Ministry of National Defence, Rabat, Morocco.

Ahdab, Ibrahim El, L. en D.; Lebanese engineer and diplomatist; b. 1904; ed. Paris.

Practised engineering, Beirut; mem. and Pres. of Council for joint economic affairs of Lebanon and Syria 44; Minister to Turkey 47-53, to Switzerland 54-55; Amb. to the U.K.

WHOS WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

55-60 Dir of Political Affairs Ministry of Foreign Affairs
60-62 Amb to USA 62 68 Retd in July 68
Lebanese Embassy 2560 28th Street NW Washington
D.C. USA

Ahmed, Jamal Muhammed, b 1917 Sudanese diploma-
tist b 1917 ed Gordon Coll Khartoum Univ Coll
Exeter Devon and Balliol Coll Oxford
Teacher Sudan Govt Schools 39 44 mem Publ Bureau
Ministry of Education Sudan 46-49 Warden Univ Coll
Khartoum 50-56 Amb to Iraq 56 59 to Eth op a 59 64
Perm Rep to UN Jan Sept 65 Amb to UK Sept Dec
65 April 66-June 67 rtd 70 many decorations
Publs *Intellectual Origins of Egyptian Nationalism* 61
Suh Zu Hamar 70 *Reading in African Affairs* 69 transla-
tions into Arabic *The Federalist Papers Africa Redis-*
covered
POB 83 Khartoum Sudan

Ahmed S Habib b A Pakistani United Nations official
b 1 April 1925 ed Univ of Delhi
Administration Central Govt India 35 41 Finance and
Budget Officer Tata Iron & Steel Co India 41 47 Budget
Officer UN 49 50 Public Admin Adviser UN Commr
Libya 50 Adviser on Public Admin Ethiopia and Iraq
51 54 Chief Officer for Asia and the Far East UN Technical
Assistance Admin 55 59 Deputy Dir Bureau of Tech
Assistance Operations UN Headquarters 59 60 Chief
Admin Officer UN Mission in the Congo 60 62 Resident
Rep of Tech Assist Board and Dir of Special Fund
Programme Congo 62 64 Resident Rep of UN Devt
Programme Somalia 64-67 Libya 68
c/o United Nations UNDP P O Box 20 Grand Central
Station New York, NY 10017 USA

Ali Al Mohsin A Al, Yemeni diplomatist and politician
b 1932 ed Cairo Univ and Univ of Paris
School Teacher Aden 58 60 Int Confederation of Arab
Trade Unions 60-62 Minister of Foreign Affairs Yemeni
Republic Sept Dec 62 Perm Rep to UN Dec 62 65
65-66 67 69 Amb to USA 63 65 65 66 Foreign
Minister May July 65 Prime Minister Nov 67 Personal
Rep of Chair Republican Council 67 Amb to USSR
68 70 Prime Minister and Foreign Minister 70 Feb 71
Amb to France July 71

Publ *Conspiracy against Yemen*
Embassy of the Yemen Arab Republic Paris France

Ali Ahmed, Hocine, Algerian politician b 1926
Former mem of FLN 1st Dep assisted in drawing up
the Tripoli Programme 62 drafted decrees for workers
self management 63 leader of Socialist Forces Front
resistance movement in Kabyle mountains 63 64 arrested
tried and sentenced to death reprieved April 65
Algiers Algeria

Aky, Abdülhak, Turkish diplomatist b 92 ed Coll o
Political Sciences Istanbul
Entered Ministry of Foreign Affairs as Attaché 13 Sub Dir
State Records Office 23 Dir 24 Consul Valona Albania
25 Baku 28 Section Dir Ministry of Foreign Affairs 29
Dir of Dept of Affairs relating to League of Nations 31
Gen Dir First Political Dept 33 Chargé d'Affaires The
Hague 35 recalled to Ministry of Foreign Affairs as Dir
Second Political Dept with rank of Minister Minister to
Argentina 39 46 Chile 43 46 Minister to Syria 46 52
Ambassador to Poland 52 57 served in First World War
and participated in Kemal Atatürk's Revolution receiving
decorations in both mem of Turkish delts to various int
confs contributor *Middle East Review* Ankara mem
Acad D'plomatique Int Paris Acad of Political Sciences
of Columbia Univ American Society of Int Law and Int
Bar Assn Pres Permanent Cttee of Balkan Alliance 55
Publ in Turkish *System of Collective Security* 39 *The*
United Nations and Collective Security 49 *Turkish Foreign*

Policy after 1945 Problems of the Middle East Baghdad
Pact 59 La Guerre Froide 60 *Kemalist Diplomacy* 64
Teşvikiye İhlamuryolu Topağacı Ortaklar Apr 41
Istanbul Turkey

Akta, Abdul Rahman, M.D. D.C.H. Syrian doctor and
politician b 1926 ed Medical School of Damascus Univ
of London
Director Watani Hospital for Internal Medicine Aleppo
63 66 Minister of Health 66 67
Publs *B.C.G. Child Diseases for Student Nurses*
Al Minsaha Aleppo Syrian Arab Republic

Alam, Amir Assadollah, Iranian agriculturalist and
politician b 1919 ed Karaj Agricultural College Univ
of Teheran
Gov Gen of Baluchistan 45 48 Minister of the Interior
48 of Agriculture 49 of Labour 50 Superintendent of
the Pahlavi Estates and mem of the High Council for
their disposal 51 Minister of the Interior 55 57 Leader
Mardom (*People's Party*) 56-60 Prime Minister 62 64
Minister of the Imperial Court 66 Sec Gen Pahlavi
Foundation Chancellor Pahlavi Univ
Ministry of the Imperial Court Teheran Iran

Alami Musa, Jordanian philanthropist b 1897 ed
Trinity Hall Cambridge
Crown Counsel 26 37 founded Arab Devt Soc 43
founded orphanage and farm in desert near Jericho 51
region under Israeli occupation June 67
Rabiya Beirut Lebanon

Alamuddin, Sheikh Najib Salim, b A Lebanese airline
executive b 9 March 1909 ed American Univ of Beirut
and Univ Coll of South West Exeter England
Teacher of Engineering and Mathematics American Univ
of Beirut 30-33 Insp of Mathematics Educ Dept Govt
of Trans Jordan 33 36 Insp Gen of Customs Trade and
Industry Trans Jordan 39 40 Chief Sec Govt of Trans
Jordan 40 42 founded Near East Resources Co 41 Gen
Man Middle East Airlines 52 56 Chair and Pres 56-
Minister of Inform on and Tourism 65 Minister of Public
Works and Transport 66 mem Supreme Econ Council of
Lebanon Exec Cttee of Int Air Transport Assn Dir
several Lebanese companies numerous decorations
Middle East Airlines Alriban Beirut International Air
port Beirut Lebanon.
Telephone 272220

Alaoui, Moulay Ahmed, Moroccan politician
Minister of Tourism Arts and Crafts 63 Minister of
Tourism Information Arts and Crafts 63 66 Dir Royal
Cabinet mem Regency Council 65 Minister of Industry
and Mines 66 68
c/o Ministry of Industry and Mines Rabat Morocco

Alattar, Mohamed Said, Yemeni diplomatist b 26 Nov
1927 ed Ecole Pratique des Hautes Etudes à la Sorbonne
Inst d'Etudes de Développement Econ et Social
(I.E.D.E.S.) Univ de Paris
Research I.E.D.E.S. 60 6 Dir Gen Yemen Bank for
Reconstruction and Devt 62 65 Minister of Econ March
Aug 65 Pres Econ Comm Oct 65 Feb 66 Pres Board
Yemen Bank and Pres of Econ High Comm March 66-
Minister of Foreign Affairs Nov 67 69 Vice-Pres High
Cttee for Planning mem Int Assn of Sociology Perm
Rep to the UN 69-
Publs *L'Industrie d'ant en France* 61 *L'épicerie à*
Paris 61 Etude sur la croissance économique de l'Afrique
Occidentale 62 *Le marché industriel et les projets de l'Arabie*
Séoudite 62 *Le sous-développement économique et social du*
Yemen (Perspectives de la Révolution Yemenite) 64 Arabic
edn 65

Permanent Mission of the Yemen Arab Republic to the
United Nations 211 East 43rd Street Room 1904 New
York NY 10017 USA

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Alavi, Massan, M.B., D.O. (Oxon.), B.S., L.R.C.P., M.R.C.S.; Iranian ophthalmic surgeon; b. 1910; ed. London, Oxford Univ. and St. Thomas's Hospital.
Senior Ophthalmic House Surgeon and Clinical Asst. St. Thomas's Hospital; Dir. with rank of Brigadier of Eye, Ear, Nose and Throat Service, Iranian Army Medical Corps; Consultant Ophthalmologist Bank Mellî Hospital, Teheran; fmr. Lecturer, Teheran Univ.; Dir. Ophthalmological Unit, Teheran Univ.; Fellow Int. Coll. of Surgeons; fmr. mem. Constituent Assembly; fmr. mem. Majlis; Hon. Sec. Teheran Medical Asscn.; Chair. U.K. Univ. Society, Teheran; Man. Dir. Iranian Army Medical Journal.
Publ. *Sympathetic Ophthalmitis*.
Shah-Reza Avenue, Ferdowsi Square, Teheran, Iran.

Albright, William F., PH.D., LITT.D., D.H.L., TH.D., LL.D., D.H.C.; American orientalist and archaeologist; b. 24 May 1891; ed. Upper Iowa and Johns Hopkins Univs.
Dir. American School of Oriental Research in Jerusalem 20-29 and 33-36; W. W. Spence Prof. of Semitic Languages, Johns Hopkins Univ. 29-58, Prof. emeritus 58-; Dir. of Excavations at Gibeah of Saul, Tell Beit Mirsim and Bethel; Chief Archaeologist, Sinai 47-48, Beihan (S. Arabia) 50-51; mem. American Philosophical Soc., Nat. Acad. of Sciences, Amer. Acad. of Arts and Sciences; foreign mem. Austrian, Royal Danish, Flemish and Irish Acad.; corresp. mem. Acad. des Inscriptions et Belles Lettres; Pres. Amer. Oriental Soc. 35-36; Pres. Int. Org. Old Testament Scholars 56-59; Trustee American Schools Oriental Research, Inst. Mediterranean Affairs; Corresp. Fellow British Acad.; mem. (hon.) Société Asiatique, Royal Asiatic Soc., British Soc. for Old Testament Study, etc.; Hon. degrees from Yale, Harvard, Trinity Coll. (Dublin), St. Andrews, Utrecht, Oslo, Uppsala, Hebrew Univ. (Jerusalem); Gold Medal Archaeological Inst. America 67.
Publs. *Excavation at Gibeah of Benjamin* 24, *The Spoken Arabic of Palestine* 27, *The Archaeology of Palestine and the Bible* 32, *The Excavation of Tell Beit Mirsim* 32-43, *The Vocalisation of the Egyptian Syllabic Orthography* 34, *Recent Discoveries in Bible Lands* 36, *From the Stone Age to Christianity* 40, *Archæology and the Religion of Israel* 42, *Archæology of Palestine* 49, *Recent Discoveries in Bible Land*, 56, *The Biblical Period from Abraham to Ezra* 63, *History, Archaeology and Christian Humanism* 64, *The Proto-Sinaitic Inscriptions and their Decipherment* 66, *Yahweh and the Gods of Canaan* 68, Senior Editor *The Anchor Bible* 64.
3401 Greenway, Baltimore, Md. 21218, U.S.A.

Aldous, Philip Edward, B.COM., N.C.A.(N.Z.); New Zealand international civil servant; b. 7 Feb. 1918; ed. New Plymouth Boys High School, Univ. of New Zealand (Victoria), and Univ. Coll., Oxford.
With Reserve Bank of New Zealand 39-49 (active war service 39-44); H.B.M. Colonial Admin. Service, Northern Rhodesia 49-64; Under-Sec. Ministry of Finance, Zambia 65-69; Financial Adviser to Auditor-Gen., Ethiopia, for IMF 69-70; Financial Adviser and Sec. for Financial Affairs to the Sultanate of Oman 70-; Efficiency Decoration (Zambia).
P.O. Box 200, Department of Financial Affairs, Muscat, Sultanate of Oman.

Alfozan, Yusuf; Saudi Arabian diplomatist; b. 1913; ed. Bombay and Arabia.
Agent (Personal) to H.M. King Abdulaziz Ibn Saud (Bombay) 38; Saudi Arabian Consul-Gen., Palestine 39-41, Bombay 49-55; Editor *Shubbân's Voice* 36-38; Saudi Arabian Minister to India 55-57; Saudi Arabian Ambassador to India 57-65, to Iran 66-68, to Spain 68-.
Saudi Arabian Embassy, Hermanos Bécquer 4, Madrid, Spain.

Ali, Anwar, M.A., F.I.B.A.; Pakistani civil servant; b. 16 Feb. 1913; ed. Islamia Coll., Lahore.

Assistant Financial Adviser and Under-Sec., Ministry of Finance, India 43-47; Dep. Sec. Min. of Finance, Govt. of Pakistan 47-52, Joint Sec. 52-54; Dir. National Bank of Pakistan 49-53; Dir. State Bank of Pakistan 52-54; Dir. Middle Eastern Dept. Int. Monetary Fund, Washington 54-; Gov. Saudi Arabian Monetary Agency 58-; awarded title Sitara-e-Quaid-e-Azam 61 and Sitara-e-Pakistan 67. Office: Saudi Arabian Monetary Agency, Jeddah; Home: 39 Sharia Ali Ibn Abi Talib, Sharafia, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia.

Ali, Ali Sayed; United Arab Republic politician and trade union executive; b. 4 July 1925; ed. El Zaher Commercial School, Cairo.
District Sales Man. El Nasr Petroleum Co. until 63; petroleum union exec. since 48; Pres. Gen. Union of Petroleum, Mines and Quarries Workers; Gen. Sec. Arab Fed. of Petroleum Workers 63-; Chair. Workers' Educ. Asscn. 64-; mem. Nat. Assembly; Minister of State June 64-; ILO Expert on Workers' Educ.
The Arab Federation of Petroleum, Mines and Chemicals Workers, 5 Zaki Street Tewfikia Cairo United Arab Republic.

Alier, Abdel, LL.B., LL.M.; Sudanese politician; b. 1933, Bor District, Upper Nile Province; ed. Univs. of Khartoum, London, Yale.
Former advocate; District Judge in El Obeid, Wad Medani and Khartoum until 65; participant in Round Table Conf. and mem. Twelve Man Cttee. to Study the Southern problem 65; mem. Constitution Comms. 66-67, 68; fmr. mem. Law Reform Comm. and Southern Front; Minister of Supply and Internal Trade Oct. 69-June 70; Minister of Works June 70-July 71; Minister for Southern Affairs July 71-; mem. Board of Dirs., Industrial Planning Corp.; mem. Nat. Scholarship Board.
Ministry for Southern Affairs, Khartoum, Sudan.

Ali Mohammed, Sardar-i-Ala: Afghan politician; b. 1891; ed. Habibia Coll., Kabul.
Inspector of Schools 22; Vice-Minister of Education 24; Minister to Rome 26-27; Minister of Commerce 28; Minister of Education and Acting Foreign Minister 29; Minister of Foreign Affairs 47-53; Deputy Prime Minister 53-63; Minister of Court 63-.
Shahr-i-Nao, Kabul, Afghanistan.

Ali, Salem Rubia; Yemeni politician; b. 1934 Southern Arabia; ed. in Aden.
Formerly school-teacher and in private law practice; participated in activities of Nat. Front for the Liberation of Occupied Southern Yemen (FLOS) 63-67; mem. Gen. Command of Nat. Front Nov. 67; in exile 68-69; Chair. Presidential Council June 69-.
Presidential Council, Aden, People's Democratic Republic of Yemen.

Alican, Ekrem; Turkish politician; b. 5 May 1916; ed. Ankara Univ.
Inspector, Ministry of Finance 40-47; took up farming 47-50; mem. Democratic Party and Dep. for Kocaeli 50-55; expelled from Democratic Party 55 for attacking Govt.'s press legislation; helped found Freedom Party 56; lost seat in Assembly 57; Minister of Finance May-December 60; Pres. New Turkey Party 61-64; Dep. for Sakarya 61-; Dep. Prime Minister 62-63.
Grand National Assembly, Ankara, Turkey.

Alikhani, Ali Naghi; Iranian economist and politician; b. 1928; ed. Alborz Coll., Teheran, Univ. of Teheran and Univ. of Paris.
Former Econ. Adviser to Nat. Iranian Oil Co. and other orgs.; Minister of Economy 63-69; Chancellor, Univ. of Teheran 69-.
Teheran University, Teheran, Iran.

WHOS WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Alreza, Sheikh Mohamed Ibn Abdullah, Saudi Arabian merchant and industrialist b 1911 ed. Saudi Arabia and India.
Former Pres Chamber of Commerce and Industries Jeddah mem Admin Council Jeddah 46 Ex Pres Jeddah Benevolent Water Supply Cttee mem Board of Trustees of the Benevolent Falah School 34 Leader Saudi Arabian del to the 1st Islamic Econ Conf Pakistan 49 Chair of Jeddah Port Trust Project 50 Minister of Commerce and Industries 54 58 Ambassador to U A R March June 64 Pres Haji Abdullah Alreza & Co Ltd Haji Abdullah Alreza Libyan Trading Co Arab an Italian Engineering Contractors S p A. Rome, Arabian Petroleum Supply Co S.A.
c/o Chamber of Commerce and Industry Jeddah Saudi Arabia

Allegro, John Marco, British philologist and archaeologist b 17 Feb 1923 ed Wallington County Grammar School and Univ of Manchester
Royal Navy 41 46 Manchester Univ 47 52 research in Hebrew dialects Magdalen Coll Oxford 52 53 British rep on Int Ed tng Team for Dead Sea Scrolls Jerusalem 53 Lecturer in Comparative Semitic Philology and Hebrew Univ of Manchester 54 62 in Old Testament and Intertestamental Stud es 62 70 Adviser to Jordanian Govt on Dead Sea Scrolls 61 Trustee and Hon Sec Dead Sea Scrolls Fund 62-70
Pubs *The Dead Sea Scrolls* 56 64 *The People of the Dead Sea Scrolls* 59 *The Treasure of the Copper Scroll* 60 64 *Search in the Desert* 64 *The Shapira Affair* 65 *Discoveries in the Judean Desert* (Vol 5) 68 *The Sacred Mushroom and the Cross* 70 *The End of a Road* 70 *The Chosen People* 71
The Old Paragonage St Marks Isle of Man

Alfon Brig-Gen Yigal, Israeli soldier agriculturalist and politician b 10 Oct 1918 ed Kaduri Agricultural Coll. Univs of Jerusalem and Oxford
Joined Hagana 31 Commr of Palmach Company 41 in Syria and Lebanon with Allies Dep Commr Palmach 43 C in C. Palmach 45 48 charged with Hagana operations in Palestine 43 47 in command Upper Galilee Central Israel Jerusalem Corridor the Negev and N Sinai 47 48 Minister of Labour 61 63 Deputy Prime Minister and Minister for Absorption 63 69 Minister of Educ Dec 69 mem Exec Cttee Hakibbutz Hameuchad 3rd Sec Gen Achduth Ha avodah Socialist Party mem 3rd Knesset, 4th Knesset (resigned to take up Research Fellowship Oxford).
Pubs *The Story of Palmach* 51 (Book of Palmach) *Curtain of Sand* 60
Kibbutz Genossar Israel

Almogi Major Joseph, Israeli politician b 5 May 1910 ed secondary school
Came to Palestine 30 mem. Haganah Command 33 39 Prisoner of War Germany 41 45 Gen Sec Labour Council Haifa 45 59 Gen Sec Mapai Party 59-62 Minister of State 61-62 Minister of Housing and Development 62 65 joined Israel Labour List (Rafi Party) 65 Minister of Labour 68
120 Arlozorov Street Haifa Israel

Alpert Carl, Israeli journalist and university official b 12 May 1913 ed Boston Univ USA
Editor *The New Palestine* 40-47 Nat Pres American Young Judea 40-41 Nat Dir Educ Dept Zionist Org of America 47 52 emigrated to Israel 52 Dir Public Relations Dept Technion Israel Inst of Technology 51-68 Exec. Vice-Chair Technion Board of Govs 62 Nat Pres Asscn of Americans and Canadians in Israel

57 59 author int syndicated weekly column in 32 news papers
Technion Israel Institute of Technology Technion City Haifa Israel.

Ameli, Baqer, Iranian politician b 1912 ed. Univ of Teheran.
With Ministry of Justice 37 fmr adviser to Supreme Court Minister of Justice 64 67 mem Majlis mem Central Council of New Iran Party
Ministry of Justice Teheran Iran.

Amer, Lt-Gen Ali Ali, United Arab Republic (Egyptian) soldier
Head of Arab Unified Command 64-65 Military Asst. Sec Arab League 66-67
c/o Arab League Midan Al Tahrir Cairo United Arab Republic.

Amer, Subhi Ameen m d, Jordanian politician b 1912 ed American Univ of Beirut
Physician, Transjordan 38-46 Palestine Govt 47-48 Dir Govt Hospital Nablus 48 53 Chief Physician Nablus District 53 57 Asst Under Sec to Minister of Health 57 62 Minister of Health five times 62 67 Minister of Health Reconstruction and Devt Oct Dec 62 Dec 68 Minister of Health June-Sept 70 of Reconstruction and Devt Sept 70-
Ministry of Reconstruction and Development Amman Jordan

Amin, Mohamed El Amir, Sudanese airways official b 1 June 1919 ed Gordon Memorial Coll Khartoum
Attached to Office of Civil Sec (now Ministry of Interior) 38 48 Chief of Booking and Freight Office Sudan Airways 48 54 Sales Supr Sudan Airways 54 66 Gen Man Sudan Airways 66-68 Adviser Gen 68
Sudan Airways P O Box 253 Khartoum North Sudan

Amin, Moustafa, United Arab Republic (Egyptian) publisher b 14 ed Cairo and Georgetown Univ Washington DC USA
Ed *Akher Saa* 38 41 *Al Elnain* 41 44 publisher *Akhar El Yom* 44 65 *Akher Saa* 46-65 *Al-Gul* 50-65 *Al Akhar* (daily) 52 65 sentenced to life imprisonment Aug 66 mem Parl 45 49
Cairo U A R.

Amin, Osman Muhammad, d es l, United Arab Republic (Egyptian) university professor b 1905 ed Saida School Giza and Univs of Cairo and Paris
Member Egyptian Univ Mission Paris 31 39 Lecturer Faculty of Arts Cairo 39 Asst Prof Faculty of Arts, Cairo 48 Prof of Philosophy Cairo Univ Cairo 54 56 Head of Dept 57 Sec Egyptian Philosophical Society Pres Asscn Muhammad Abduh
Pubs *L Humanisme de F C S Schiller* (French) 39 *Muhammad Abduh* (French) 44 *Towards Better Universities* (Arabic) 52 *Philosophical Essays* (Arabic) 53 *The Pioneer of Egyptian Thought* (Arabic) 55 *Descartes* (Arabic) 4th edn 57 *Lights on Contentary Moslem Philosophy* (English) 58 *Schiller* (Arabic) 58 *Stone Philosophy* (Arabic) 2nd edn 59 Editor *Les Classiques de la Philosophie* (Arabic) 42 *Les Chefs-d oeuvre de la Philosophie Occidentale* (Arab c) 46 *Al Farabi* (Classification of Sciences) 49 *Ibn Rushd* (Compendium of Metaphysics) 58 translations of Kant and Descartes
22a Shama Muhammad Said Cairo U A R.

Amini, Ali, b 1909 ex Iran Iranian politician b 1 July 1907 ed Ecole de Droit Grenoble and Faculté de Droit Paris France
Alternative Judge Court of First Instance and Penal Branch Court of Appeal Teheran 31 Asst Dir Opium Admin Monopoly 33 Asst Dir Customs Admin 34 Dir Gen 36 Economic Dir-Gen Ministry of Finance 38

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Under-Sec. 40; mem. Chamber of Deputies Teheran and Deputy Prime Minister 40; Iranian rep. Int. Narcotic and Opium Confs. 49 and 50; Minister of Finance 52; led Iranian del. in negotiations with Int. Oil Consortium 54; Minister of Justice 55; Ambassador to U.S. 56-58; Prime Minister 61-62.

Publ. *L'institution du monopole de commerce extérieur en Perse*.

Parke Aminowleh, Teheran, Iran.

Amir, Rehavam; Israeli government official; b. 1 Jan. 1916; ed. Hebrew Teachers' Coll., Jerusalem. Military Gov., Western Galilee 50; joined Ministry of Foreign Affairs 50; Head of Personnel and Asst. Dir.-Gen. Admin. 50-53; Consul-Gen., London 53-58; Minister, Poland 58-63; Adviser on Arab Affairs, Prime Minister's Office 63-.

56 Hapalnach Street, Jerusalem, Israel.

Amiran-Pougatchov, Emanuel; Israeli composer; b. 1909, Russia.

Arrived in Israel 24; teachers included Yoel Engel and Prof. David Shor (Russia), Prof. S. Rosowsky (Israel), Sir Granville Bantock and Alec Roley (England); co-founder with Prof. Leo Kestenberg of Music Teachers' Seminary, Tel-Aviv; Officer-in-Charge of musical activities Israel Defence Forces 48; Directing Supervisor of Music Educ. in Ministry of Educ. and Culture; Founder and Chair. Los Jeunesses Musicales in Israel; mem. of Board ISME 68-. Compositions include: *Hashomer* (The Guard) for orchestra, *Evel* (orchestra), *A Symphonic Movement*, *Achrei Moti* (After my death) cantata, *Nachamu Ami* (cantata for mixed choir and orchestra), piano pieces, music for the theatre, and numerous songs which include *Ki Mitsion* (Out of Zion), *Mayim, Mayim* (Water, Water), *Hagez* (Shearing song), *Halleluyah*.

Office: Ministry of Education and Culture, Hadar-Daphna Building, Shderoth Hamelech Shaul, Tel-Aviv; Home: 39 Harav Friedman Street, Tel-Aviv, Israel.

Ammar, Abbas Moustafa, M.A., PH.D.; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) international official; b. 1907; ed. Cairo, Manchester, Cambridge and Columbia Univs.

Asst. Prof. of Social Anthropology and Socio-Economics, Cairo Univ. 42-47; Head of the Petitions Division of the Trusteeship Dept. of UN; Dir.-Gen. Rural Welfare Dept. Ministry of Social Affairs 50-51; Acting Dean Cairo School of Social Work 50-51; Dir. UNESCO Arab States Fundamental Education Centre, Egypt 52; Min. of Social Affairs 52-54; Min. of Education 54; Asst. Dir.-Gen. Int. Labour Organisation 54-64, Deputy Dir.-Gen. 64-.

Publs. Arabic: *Anthropological Study of the Arabs* 46, *Report on Adult Education and People's University for Workers* 47, *Report on Population Situation in Egypt* 53, *Re-organisation of the Egyptian Village in a Decentralised Administration* 54; English: *The Peoples of Sharqia: An Anthro-Socio-Economic Study of the Eastern Province of the Nile Delta* (2 vols.) 46.

2 rue Crespin, 1200 Geneva, Switzerland.

Ammash, Major-General Saleh Mahdi; Iraqi soldier and politician; ed. Military Coll.

Minister of Defence Feb.-Nov. 63; C.-in-C. Supreme Defence Council of Iraq and Syria Oct.-Nov. 63; Minister of Foreign Affairs Nov. 18th-21st 63; Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of the Interior July 68-70; Vice-Pres. 70-. Office of the Vice-President, Baghdad, Iraq.

Ammoun, Fouad; Lebanese jurist and politician; b. 26 Nov. 1899; ed. Beirut School of Law and Univ. de Lyon. President, Court of Appeal and of Cassation, Lebanon 35-42, Attorney-Gen. 42-43; Commr. of Govt. attached to Council of State 43-44; Joined Ministry of Foreign Affairs 44, Legal Expert 44-45, Gen. Sec. 45-56, 60-63; mem. Cttee. drafting Covenant of League of Arab States and numerous int. treaties 44-; Minister for Planning and

Nat. Economy Feb.-March 64; Minister for Foreign Affairs 64-65; Judge Int. Court of Justice 65- Vice-Pres. 70-; Chair. Lebanese Nat. Comm. UNESCO 45-55 60-63 and Cttee. Int. Econ. Relations 60-63; mem. del. to UN seven sessions between 48-63; Dr. h.c. Univ. of Monrovia. Publs. several juridical articles, notably an explanation of the *Code Correctionnel Libanais* (with Ph. N. Boulos and W. El Kassar).

The International Court of Justice, The Hague, Netherlands.

Amri, Gen. Hassan Al-; Yemeni Republican politician. Took part in the Revolution against the Imamate 62; Minister of Transport Sept.-Oct. 62, of Communications Oct. 62-April 63; mem. Council of the Revolutionary Command 62-63; Vice-President of Yemen 63-66; mem. Political Bureau 63-66; Prime Minister Jan.-April 65, July 65-Sept. 66; C.-in-C. Yemen Armed Forces, mem. Presidential Council and Prime Minister 67-July 69. Sana'a, Yemen.

Amuzegar, Jahangir, PH.D.; Iranian economist and politician; b. 13 Jan. 1920; ed. Univs. of Teheran, Washington and California.

Teaching Asst., Univ. of California, Los Angeles 51-53; Lecturer, Whittier Coll. 53, Univ. of Michigan 53-55; Asst. Prof. Pomona Coll., Claremont, California 55-56; Asst. Prof. Michigan State Univ., E. Lansing, Mich. 56-58; Assoc. Prof. Occidental Coll. and Univ. of Calif., Los Angeles 58-60; Brookings Research Prof. 60-61; Econ. Adviser, Plan Org., Govt. of Iran 56-57; Minister of Commerce, Iran 61-62; mem. Iranian Parl. 60; mem. Council of Money and Credit 61-62, High Econ. Council 61-62; mem. Board of Dirs. Bank Melli Iran 61-62; Chair. Board, Foreign Trade Co. 61-62; Minister of Finance 62; Chair. High Council of Nat. Iranian Oil Co. 62; Ambassador-at-Large, Chief Iranian Econ. Mission, Washington, D.C. 63-. Publ. *Technical Assistance in Theory and Practice: The Case of Iran* 66.

Iranian Economic Mission, 2233 Wisconsin Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20007, U.S.A.

Amuzegar, Jamshid, M.S., PH.D.; Iranian politician; b. 25 June 1923; ed. Univs. of Teheran, Cornell, Washington.

United Nations Expert, Mission to Iran 51; Chief, Engineering Dept. 52-55; Deputy Minister of Health 55-58; Minister of Labour 58-59, of Agriculture 59-60; Consulting Engineer 60-64; Minister of Health 64-65, of Finance 65-; Chair. Int. Civil Service Advisory Board of UN. Tajrish, Teheran, Iran.

Anderson, James Norman Dalrymple, O.B.E. M.A. LL.D., F.B.A.; British educationalist; b. 29 Sept. 1908; ed. St. Lawrence Coll., Trinity Coll., Cambridge.

Missionary (Egypt Gen. Mission) 32-40; Capt. Libyan Arab Force 40-41; Major (Political Officer for Sanusi Affairs) 41; Lieut.-Col. (Sec. for Arab Affairs, Civil Affairs Branch, G.H.Q., M.E. 43, Political Sec. 43); Col. (Chief Sec., Civil Affairs Branch) 44-45; lectured on Islamic Law in Cambridge 47-50; Lecturer in Islamic Law, School of Oriental and African Studies, Univ. of London 47; Reader in Oriental Laws, Univ. of London 51; Prof. of Oriental Laws Univ. of London 53-; Head of Dept. of Law, School of Oriental and African Studies 53-; Lecturer in Mohammedan Law, Council of Legal Educ. 53-; Visiting Prof., Princeton Univ. and New York Univ. Law School 58, Harvard Law School 66; Chair. U.K. National Comm. of Comparative Law 58-60; Dir. Inst. of Advanced Legal Studies, Univ. of London 59-; Dean, Faculty of Law, Univ. of London 64-69; Pres. Soc. of Public Teachers of Law 69-70; mem. Native Law Advisory Panel 56-, Panel of Advisory Jurists to Northern Nigerian Govt. 58, 62; Vice-Pres. Int. African Law Asscn.; mem. Int. Cttee. of

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Comparative Law 63-7. Libyan Order of Independence, Class II
Public The World's Religions (Gen. Editor) 50, Islamic Law in Africa 54, Islamic Law in the Modern World 59, Changing Law in Developing Countries (Editor) 63, Family Law in Asia and Africa (Editor) 68, Into the World The need and limits of Christian involvement 68 Christianity the Witness of History 69 Christianity and Comparative Religion 70 contributions on Islamic Law, etc., to various learned journals
 12 Constable Close, London, N W 11, England

Anezzi, Aly Nureddin; Libyan government official and diplomatist b 1904, Benghazi ed Benghazi Messina Marsala Pescara Florence Naples Univ and Oriental Inst. and Inst. of Grenoble in Naples
**Secretary Real Estate Office 31, Govt Librarian 33, Councillor, Benghazi 34, Dir Awqaf, Benghazi 35 41, political work Egypt 41 51, Arab League 45 51 mem Parl, Libya 52 55 Minister of Finance 53 55 Govt Nat Bank of Libya 55 61, Amb to Lebanon and Jordan 61 62, Minister of Petroleum Affairs 63 64 Chair Sahara Bank 64 70 Libya Insurance Co., Nat Navigation Co 64 Chair Intellectual Soc of Libya 66 Olympic Cttee 67 69 First Class Order of Libyan Independence 54, First Class Order from Lebanon 62, First Class Order of Jordan 62
 Home 2 Karawan Street, P O Box 3760, Tripoli Libya. Telephone 32127**

Anzari, Eng. Abdol Reza; Iranian politician b 1923; ed Karaj Agricultural Coll, Teheran Univ and U.S.A. Former Deputy Dir of Nat Econ, Ministry of Econ; Treas Ministry of Labour, Govt Khuzistan Province, Minister of the Interior 66-68, Man Dir Khuzistan Water and Electricity Authority, founder mem Mellian Party, Javid Medal
 Ministry of the Interior, Maidan Ark, Teheran, Iran

Anzari, Houshang, M.A. Iranian politician, b 1928, ed England, U.S.A. and Japan
 Successively Special Reporter of Int. News Service and Int. News Photos, Press Attaché of Publication and Propaganda Dept in Japan, Commercial Attaché in Japan, Econ Attaché, Tokyo Chief, Supervisory Comm of Public Supplies mem High Council on Iranian Aviation, Technical Under Sec., Ministry of Commerce Special Ambassador in African countries, Amb to Pakistan and Ceylon 65-66, Minister of Information 66-67, Amb to U.S.A. 67-69 Minister of Economy 69
 Ministry of Economy, Maidan Arg Teheran Iran

Anzari, Dr. Mir Najmuddin; Afghan educationist, b 1913, ed Habibia and Univ of New York
 Formerly Principal Teacher Training School, Kabul Dean Coll. of Letters, Kabul Univ., and Deputy Pres Ministry of Educ., Afghan Rep to Special Political Cttee UN Gen Assembly Supreme Court Judge Oct 1967-
 Afghan Supreme Court, Kabul, Afghanistan

Anihimos, Mgr.; Cypriot ecclesiastic
 Metropolitan of Kitium Leader of Nat Front
 c/o Archbishopric of Cyprus, P O Box 1130 Nicosia, Cyprus

Appleton, Most Rev. George, M.A. MBE British ecclesiastic b 20 Feb 1902 Windsor ed County Boys' School Maidenhead, Selwyn Coll., Cambridge and St Augustine's Coll., Canterbury
 Ordained deacon 25 priest 26, Curate, Stepping Parish Church 25 27 Missionary in charge S.P.G. Mission, Irrawaddy Delta 27 33 Warden Coll. of Holy Cross, Rangoon 33 41, Archdeacon of Rangoon 43 46, Dir of Public Relations Govt of Burma 45 46 Vicar of Headstone 47 50, Sec Conf of British Missionary Societies 50-57, Rector of St Botolph, Aldgate London 57 62 Archdeacon of London and Canon of St Paul's Cathedral 62 63,

Archbishop of Perth (Australia) 63-69 Anglican Archbishop in Jerusalem 69
 Public *John's Witness to Jesus 55 In His Name 56, Glad Encounter 59, On the Eightfold Path 61, Daily Prayer and Praise 62, Acts of Devotion 63, One Man's Prayers 67*
 St Georges Close, P O Box 1248, Jerusalem Israel, 12 Watwick Square London S W 1, England
 Telephone 87708 (Jerusalem), or 834 9558 (London)

Aql, Michel; Lebanese lawyer, b 1917, ed. Faculté de Droit, Paris
 Five times elected mem of Council of Lawyers Asscn., thrice Sec-Gen Lebanese Lawyers' Asscn., represented Beirut Bar at int congresses, Pres of Bar Asscn 66-67; Ordre National du Cédre
 Lebanese Lawyers' Association, Beirut, Lebanon

Arafat, Yasser (pseudonym of Mohammed Abed Ar'ouf Arafat) Palestinian resistance leader, b 1929 Jerusalem; ed Cairo Univ
 Joined League of Palestinian Students 44 mem Exec Cttee 50, Pres 52 56 formed, with others, Al Fatah movt 56 engineer in Egypt 56 Kuwait 57 65 Pres Exec Cttee of Palestine Nat Liberation Movement (Al Fatah) June 68 now also Pres Cen Cttee, also Chair Palestinian Nat. Council Gen Commr Palestinian Revolutionary Forces, Palestine Liberation Organization Colomban Street, Off Sadat Street, Dr Raji Nasr Building, Ras Beirut Lebanon
 Telephone 296803

Araji, Ali Muhideen Al-; Iraqi civil engineer, b 9 Aug 1926, ed Iraqi primary and secondary schools and Durham Univ., England

Civil engineer, with Iraq Devt Board 51-53, Govt Oil Refineries Admin (GORA) 53 54, Iraq Petroleum Co at Kirkuk and Pipeline Stations 54 57, Plant Engineer and Chief Construction Co-ordinator at Dora Refinery, Govt Oil Refineries Admin 57-59, Civil and Off site Engineer Kellogg Int. Corp., London 59 62, Dir. of Projects, Govt. Oil Refineries Admin 62 64, Dir-Gen Oil Planning and Construction Admin, Ministry of Oil 64 mem Iraqi Del to the Fifth Arab Congress Cairo 64, attended numerous confs in connection with major oil projects and refineries
 Oil Planning and Construction Administration Ministry of Oil, Baghdad, Iraq

Arar, Abbas; Iranian diplomatist, b 1906, ed Teheran and Europe
 Entered diplomatic service 31, Asst Chief, Third Political Div., Foreign Ministry 43 First Sec. Berne 45, First Sec. Counsellor, and Chargé d'Affaires, Washington 46, 49 and 50, Dr. Fourth Political Div., Foreign Ministry 51; Counsellor, Embassy, Baghdad 53, Chargé d'Affaires and Minister, Washington 53 and 54-56, Dr Gen Political Affairs, Foreign Ministry 58, Ambassador to Japan 58, concurrently to Republic of China, Minister of Foreign Affairs 59 60 Ambassador to Iraq 60-62, Minister of Foreign Affairs 62 67, Ambassador to U K 67 69
 c/o Foreign Ministry, Teheran, Iran

Arazi, Tuvia; Israeli diplomatist; b 1912, ed Hebrew Univ., Univ de Paris and Ecole des Langues Orientales Vivantes Paris
 Joined Political Dept Jewish Agency 38, transferred to Ministry of Foreign Affairs 48, Counsellor, Ankara 50-52, Minister Counsellor, Buenos Aires 52-56, Ambassador to Peru, Bolivia Ecuador and Colombia 56 60, Dir British Commonwealth Dept., Ministry of Foreign Affairs 61-62, Amb to Cyprus 62 69, mem Del to Lausanne Conf 48, mem. Del to UN 49 56 and 57
 Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Jerusalem, Israel

Arkan, I. Galip; Turkish actor and stage manager, b 1894; ed Military School, Istanbul
 Employed in Turkish state theatres 14-, Teacher State

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Conservatoire; actor and senior stage-manager, Istanbul Municipal Theatre; Palmes Académiques. Publ. Eleven plays; Books: *Diction in the Theatre, Make-Up*; thirty-five translations from the French. Şehir Tiyatrosu, Beyoğlu, Istanbul, Turkey.

Arđalan, Ali Gholi; Iranian diplomatist; b. 1901; ed. Coll. of Political Science, Teheran and Univ. of Berlin. Served Berlin 26, Washington 32-33, Paris and Ankara 36-43; Minister Ankara 46-48; Under-Sec. and later acting Sec. of State, Ministry of Foreign Affairs 48-49; Ambassador to the U.N. 50-55; Del. to Gen. Assembly 50-54; Leader, Del. to Japanese Peace Conf. 51, Conf. on Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance 51-54, Narcotics Commission 52-54, Int. Opium Conf. 53; Minister without Portfolio 55; Minister of Mines and Industry 55, of Foreign Affairs 55-58; Ambassador to U.S.A. 58-60; Rep. of Man. Dir., Nat. Iranian Oil Co., Southern Province 60-61; Ambassador to the U.S.S.R. 61-63, to German Fed. Repub. 63-65; Dean, Inst. of Mass Communication, Teheran 67; holds decorations from govts. of Iran and many foreign countries. Publ. *Persian Economy in World Economy* (publ. in Berlin) 28. c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Teheran, Iran.

Ardon, Mordechai; Israeli (b. Polish) artist; b. 13 July 1896; ed. Bauhaus, Weimar and Munich Acad. of Fine Arts. After working in Berlin and teaching in the Itten School of Art, moved to Palestine 33; Adviser on Art to Ministry of Education and Culture, Jerusalem. Ardon House, Yefoh Nof Quarter, Jerusalem, Israel.

Aref, Lt.-Gen. Abdul-Rahman Mohammad (brother of late Pres. Abdul Salam Aref); Iraqi army officer and politician; b. 1916; ed. Baghdad Military Acad. Joined Army 36; took part in July 58 Revolution, Chief of Gen. Staff Armoured Corps Dept. 58-61; Commdr. 5th Div. Feb. 63-Nov. 63; assisted in overthrow of Gen. Kassem 63; mem. Regency Council 65; Asst. Chief of Staff Iraqi Armed Forces Dec. 63-64; Acting Chief of Staff 64, Chief of Staff 64-68; Pres. of Iraq April 66-68; also Prime Minister 67. c/o Embassy of Iraq, 22 Queen's Gate, London, S.W.7, England.

Arfa, Maj.-Gen. Hassan; Iranian general, politician and diplomatist; b. 95; ed. Mil. colleges in Turkey, Switzerland and France, Ecole Supérieure de Guerre, Paris. Commissioned 14; Mil. Attaché in London 26; Commdr. Mil. Acad. 32; Commdr. 1st Guards Cavalry and A.D.C. to H.M. Reza Shah 31; Commdr. Mil. Acad. 32; Inspector-Gen. of Cavalry 36; Lecturer, Staff College 36; Deputy Chief of Staff 42; Commdr. 1st Army Division 42; A.D.C. to H.M. Mohammed Reza Shah 42; Deputy Chief of Staff 42; Chief, Intelligence Dept. of Army 42; Commdr. Teheran Training Centre 42; Gov. of roads, railways and ports 43; Chief of Staff, Iranian Army 43-46; rtd. 47; Leader of Asiatic Group 47; Leader of Nat. Movement Party 51; Minister of Communications 51; Ambassador to Turkey 58-61, to Pakistan 62-63; Order of Homayun 1st class. Publ. Numerous military manuals and articles in military magazines; *Under Five Shahs* 64, *The Kurds* 66. c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Teheran, Iran.

Aris, Thabet Al-; Syrian politician and diplomatist. Former Minister to Yugoslavia; Minister of Culture and Nat. Guidance, Syrian Region of U.A.R. 60, Minister of Culture and Nat. Guidance, U.A.R. Central Govt. 60-61, of Social Affairs Aug.-Oct. 61; Minister of State, Syrian Arab Republic May-Oct. 64; Ambassador to Czechoslovakia, concurrently accredited to Hungary 64-67, 68-70. c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Damascus, Syrian Arab Republic.

Arkell, Rev. Anthony John, M.B.E., M.C., D.LITT., F.S.A.; British archaeologist; b. 29 July 1898; ed. Bradfield and Queen's Coll., Oxford. 2nd-Lieut. Royal Flying Corps 16; Flying Off. Royal Air Force 18; Sudan Political Service 20-38; Chief Transport Officer Sudan Govt. 40-44; Commr. for Archaeology and Anthropology, Sudan Govt. 38-48; Chair. and Editorial Sec. *Sudan Notes and Records* 46-48; Lecturer in Egyptology, Univ. Coll. London 48-53; Reader in Egyptian Archaeology, Univ. of London 53-63; Archaeological Adviser to Sudan Govt. 48-54; mem. German Archaeological Inst. 53-; British Ennedi Expedition 57. Publ. *Early Khartoum* 49, *The Old Stone Age in the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan* 49, *Shaheinab* 53, *History of the Sudan* 55, 2nd ed. 61, *Wanyanga* 64. The Vicarage, Cuddington, Aylesbury, Buckinghamshire, England.

Armouti, Mohamed Nazzal; Jordanian diplomatist, b. 16 July 1924; ed. Amman Secondary School, Salt Coll.; Univ. of Damascus, and Exeter Univ., England. Former Sec.-Gen. Ministry of Interior, House of Notables and House of Reps.; fmr. Insp.-Gen. Income Tax Dept.; Legal Adviser to Ministry of Finance; fmr. Gov. of Irbid, Ma'an, Salt, Hebron, Nablus, Kerak and Amman Districts; Under-Sec. Ministry of Interior, then Minister of Interior 64-65; Ambassador to Tunisia, Algeria and Libya 66, to Kuwait 67-70; numerous decorations. c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Amman, Jordan.

Arzanjani, Hassan, DR. RER. POL.; Iranian lawyer and politician; b. 1922; ed. Saint-Louis High School and Law School. Head of Rural Co-operatives Dept., Agric. Bank 40-; Law Practice 41-61; founded Azadi (Liberal) Party 44; Editor *Darya* (daily) 44-52; Sec. Democratic Party 52; Dep. to Parl. 46-; Minister of Agriculture 61-63; Ambassador to Italy 63-65; Democrat. Publ. *Government's Sovereignty in International Organisations* 56, *Political Speeches* 62. Nyavaran, Avenue Bou-Ali 376, Teheran, Iran.

Arslane, Emir Maquid Toufik; Lebanese politician; b. 1905; ed. Beirut. Minister of Defence 43, 60-64, 69-70; Grand Cordon of the Libyan Order of Independence and several foreign decorations. Khaldé, Beirut, Lebanon. Telephone: 242-980.

Arthur, Sir Geoffrey George, K.C.M.G., M.A.; British diplomatist; b. 19 March 1920; ed. Christ Church, Oxford. War service 40-45; joined H.M. Foreign Service 47, served in Baghdad 48-50, Ankara 50-53, London 53-55, Bonn 56-58, Cairo 59-63; Counsellor, Foreign Office, London 63-67; Amb. to Kuwait 67-68; Asst. Under-Sec. of State, Foreign and Commonwealth Office 68-70; British Political Resident, Bahrain 70-. Foreign and Commonwealth Office, Whitehall, London, S.W.1, England.

Asfia, Sati; Iranian mining engineer and politician; b. 1916; ed. Polytechnic Inst., Ecole des Mines, Paris. Professor of Economic Geology, Teheran Univ. 39-62; Deputy Dir. Plan Org. 54-61, Man. Dir. 61-68; Minister of State and Deputy Prime Minister 68-70, of Econ. and Devt. 70. c/o Ministry of Economy, Teheran, Iran.

Asha, Rafik El, M.B.A.; Syrian diplomatist; b. 1910 Damascus; ed. American Univ. of Beirut and New York City Univ. Former bank official and finance analyst; Prof. of Banking, Econs. and Accounting, Baghdad 32-41; joined Syrian Civil Service 41 and served as Deputy Dir.-Gen. of Supplies, Ministry of Supplies, Damascus; Chargé d'Affaires, Cairo 44-45; Acting Consul-Gen., N.Y. 45-47, Consul-Gen. 47-52;

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

First Counsellor, Syrian Embassy Washington 51, Minister Plenipotentiary June 52. Chargé d'Affaires a.i. Aug. 52; Alternate Gov. Int. Bank for Reconstruction and Devt. 52-53. Del. to UN Gen. Assembly 46-60, alternate rep. Security Council 47-48, Acting Perm. Del. 48-51, Chargé d'Affaires Perm. Del. to UN 53-58. Pres. Trusteeship Council 56-57, Pres. Arab League Council 59. U.A.R. Dep. Perm. Rep. to UN 59-61, Ambassador to Romania 61, to USSR 61-62, Sec.-Gen. Ministry of Foreign Affairs 62-64. Syrian Perm. Rep. to UN July 64-65. Senior Financial Adviser to Admin. of UNDP 68. c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs Damascus Syria.

Ashtioti, Costas; Cypriot diplomatist, b. 1908. ed. Pancypran Gymnasium, Nicosia and London School of Economics. Former journalist and editor, Govt. Service 42. Asst. Commr. of Labour 48, Dir. Gen. Ministry of Foreign Affairs 60. mem. Cypriot Delegation to UN and Int. Coms., High Comm. in U.K. 66-67, Hon. M.B.E.

Publ. Labour Conditions in Cyprus During the War Years 1937-45. Cyprus High Commission, 93 Park Street, London, W. 1, England.

Ashraf Ahmadi, Ali, LL.B. Iranian judge and politician, b. 1910 Behbahan, ed. High School Shiraz and Univ. of Tehran.

Chief Magistrate Province of Tehran 47-49. Chief Justice Province of Khooristan 50. Chief Criminal Court Tehran 51. Chief Justice Province of Isfahan 53. Gov. Isfahan 53-55. Judge Supreme Court 55. Deputy Prime Minister 56-60. Sec. Royal Council 56-61. Minister of State 60-61. Deputy Dir. Pahlavi Foundation 62. Chief 12th Branch Supreme Court 63. Senator 64. Scientific Order 1st Class, Taj and Class Homayoun 1st Class. **Publ. Law and Justice in Ancient Imperial Iran 60. Five Years in the Service of His Majesty the Shahanshah (2 vols.), Ten Years' Work and Endeavour. 12 Years of Efforts for Reconstruction of New Iran. Iran in the Past and Present 176.** Television Avenue, Abbas Abad Tehran, Iran.

Ashraf Al-Habibi, Amir Saleh bin Hussain, c.m.g. Amir of Beihan, b. 1932, ed. Intermediate School Crater, Aden. Succeeded to Amirate on death of grandfather 36, assumed full responsibility 51, in Saudi Arabia Aug. 67. Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.

Atmah, Bashir, M.D., Syrian doctor and politician, b. 1910, ed. Syrian Univ., Paris School of Medicine. Teacher, School of Medicine Damascus 33. Prof. 45, United Arab Republic Minister of Public Health 58. Syrian Premier April Sept. 62. Dep. Prime Minister Sept. 62-63. School of Medicine, Damascus Syrian Arab Republic.

Asnag, Abdallah Al-Majid Al-; Yemeni trade union official and politician b. 1933. Senior Reservation Officer Aden Airways 51-62, leader, People's Socialist Party, Gen. Sec. Aden Trade Union Congress until Dec. 62-63-65, imprisoned Dec. 62 Dec. 63, now Head of Political Bureau Front for Liberation of Occupied South Yemen (FLOSY). Taiz Yemen Arab Republic.

Assaad, Kamel El, LL.B., Lebanese politician, b. 1929, ed. Law Faculty, Beirut and Univ. de Paris. Practising lawyer, Deputy 53, Mayor of Marjayoun, Minister of Education 61-64, Pres. Chamber of Deputies 64-65. Minister of Water Resources and Health 66. Hamaieh Imm. Haddat, Beirut Lebanon.

Attad, Gen. Hafez; Syrian army officer and politician, b. 1925. Minister of Defence and Command of Air Force Feb. 66. Nov. 70. Prime Minister and Sec. Baath Party Nov. 70. Pres. of Syria Feb. 71. Office of the President, Damascus, Syria.

Atali, Ahmed, DR. VET.; Iranian university professor; b. 1911 ed. Univ. of Paris. Member Biology Council, Teheran, Teheran Univ. Academic Council Univ. Senate Publications Soc.; Prof. of Physiology, Pharmacology and Therapeutics, Teheran Univ., and first Dean of Faculty of Veterinary Medicine. Publ. Books on therapeutics, pharmacodynamics pharmacology, etc. Avenue Kakh, Teheran, Iran.

Atalla, Anton Abden-Nur; Jordanian lawyer, banker and politician, b. 18 Oct. 1897, ed. American Univ. of Beirut and Law School, Jerusalem. Crown Counsel 24-27, Magistrate 28-31, Senior Magistrate 32-37, Judge of District Court Palestine 37-43. Senior Partner A. & H. Atalla and Co., Advocates, Jerusalem 43-48, Regional Gen. Manager, Arab Land Bank, Jordan 48-63. Dep. Gen. Manager 60-63. 64, mem. Jordan House of Reps.; Chair House Finance Cttee 54-56, Minister of Foreign Affairs 63 July 64, mem. Senate 63, Minister of Foreign Affairs June 70. Gen. Man. Arab Land Bank Jordan 64, Gov. Rotary Int. District East Mediterranean 66-67. Jordanian Star First Degree, several foreign decorations. c/o The Senate House, Amman, Jordan.

Atassi, Lt.-Gen. Louai; Syrian army officer and politician, b. 1926, ed. Syrian Military Acad. and Staff Officers' Coll., Homs. Took part in Palestinian war 48, opposed Syrian break with Egypt 61, Garrison Command Aleppo April 62, Mdt Attaché, Syrian Embassy, Washington 62-63, C-in-C of Syrian Armed Forces, Pres. of Revolutionary Council 63. Damascus Syrian Arab Republic.

Atassi, Nureddin, M.D., Syrian politician, b. 1929, ed. Damascus Univ. Minister of the Interior Aug. 63. Deputy Prime Minister Oct. 64. mem. Syrian Presidential Council May 64 Dec. 65, Pres. of Syria 66-70. also Prime Minister 68-70. Sec. Gen. Syrian Baath Party 66-Oct. 70. Damascus Syrian Arab Republic.

Attegy, Abdulrahman Salim Ali; Kuwaiti diplomatist and politician b. 5 April 1928 ed. High School Kuwait. Secretary General Policy Dept., Kuwait 49-59. Dir.-Gen. Health Dept. 59-61, Del. to UN 60-61, to WHO Geneva 61 to UN Gen. Assembly 61, Amb. to USA 62-63, Under Sec. Ministry of Foreign Affairs 63-67. Minister of Finance and Oil 67. Ministry of Finance and Oil P.O. Box Safat 9 Kuwait.

Athari, Mohammed Bahjat; Iraqi editor, b. 1904 ed. Baghdad. Prof. of Arabic Literature and Language 26, Dir. of Awqaf, Baghdad 36, Dir.-Gen. of Awqaf Iraqi Republic 58, Specialist Insp. in Arabic Language, Ministry of Educ. 37-41, 48-58, Chief Editor *Islamic World* (magazine), mem. of Advisory Council of Islamic Univ., Medina, Linguistic Soc. Iraq Egypt, Syria, and of many educational, political and Islamic societies.

Publ. *Adlam al-Iraq* 24, *Al-Mujmal* 27, *Al-Madkhal* (7 eds.) 31-38, author of two diwans of poems, also other books and various literary and scientific essays. Najeeb Pasha Quarter 116-8 Baghdad Iraq.

Athenagoras I; Archbishop of Constantinople and Oecumenical Patriarch, b. 1886 ed. Theological School of Halki, Istanbul. Metropolitan of Corfu 24-30, Archbishop of America 30-48, Archbishop of Constantinople, New Rome, and Oecumenical Patriarch 48. Fener, Istanbul Turkey.

Atiya, Aziz Suryal, M.A., PH.D., LL.D., F.R.HIST.S.; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) historian and writer; b. 7 July 1898, ed. Univs. of Liverpool and London.

Charles Beard Fellow and Univ. Fellow, Univ. of Liverpool 30-32; History Tutor, School of Oriental Studies, Univ. of London 33-34; Prof. of Medieval and Oriental History, Univ. of Bonn 35-38; Prof. of Medieval History, Cairo Univ. 38-42; Prof. of Medieval History and Chair. of History Dept. Alexandria Univ. 42-54; President Higher Institute of Coptic Studies, Cairo; consultant to Library of Congress, Washington, D.C. 50-51; visiting lecturer U.S. Univs., Univ. of Zurich and Swiss Inst. of Int. Affairs 50-51; Medieval Acad. Visiting Prof. of Islamic Studies, Univ. of Michigan, Ann Arbor 55-56; Luce Prof. of World Christianity, Union Theological Seminary, and Visiting Prof. of History, Columbia Univ., New York 56-57; Visiting Prof. of Arabic and Islamic History, Princeton Univ. 57-58; mem. Inst. for Advanced Study, Princeton 58-59; Senior Prof. Language and History, Center for Intercultural Studies, Utah Univ. 59-; corresp. mem. UNESCO Int. Comm. for the Scientific and Cultural History of Mankind; corresp. mem. Coptic Archaeological Soc.; mem. Medieval Acad. of America, mem. Board of Trustees American Assn. for Middle East Studies. Pubs. *The Crusade of Nicopolis* 34, *The Crusade in the Later Middle Ages* 38, *Egypt and Aragon—Embassies and Diplomatic Correspondence between 1300 and 1330* 38, *Kitab Qawanin al-Dawawin by Saladin's Wasir ibn Mammati* 43, *History of the Patriarchs of the Holy Church of Alexandria* 48, *Monastery of St. Catherine in Mt. Sinai* 49, *The Mt. Sinai Arabic Microfilms* 54, *Crusade, Commerce and Culture* 62, *The Crusades—Historiography and Bibliography* 62, *History of Eastern Christianity* 68, etc. (all books in either English or Arabic).
8 Sharia Wadi el-Nil, Maadi, near Cairo, U.A.R.; and 1335 Perry Avenue, Salt Lake City, Utah, U.S.A.

Attiga, Ali Ahmed, B.Sc., M.Sc., Ph.D.; Libyan economist; b. 31; ed. Univ. of Wisconsin and Univ. of California, U.S.A.
Assistant Economic Adviser, Nat. Bank of Libya 59-60, Dir. of Research 60-64; Under-Sec. Ministry of Planning and Devt. 64-67; mem. Supreme Council for Petroleum Affairs 64-; Minister of Planning 68-69.
Via Verdone 10, Garden City, Tripoli, Libya.

Attiya, Mahmoud Ibrahim, B.Sc.; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) geologist; b. 1900; ed. Cairo and Imperial Coll. of Science and Technology, London.
Assistant Lecturer, School of Engineering, Giza 23-25; Geologist, Geological Survey of Egypt 29, Asst. Dir. 39, Dir. 49; Dir.-Gen. Mines and Quarries Dept. 54-56; Tech. Dir. Mineral Wealth Co. and Sinai Manganese Co., Cairo 56-; delegated Prof. of Geology, Cairo Univ.; A.R.C.S. London 29; F.G.S. London 30; mem. Inst. d'Egypte 46; mem. Board of the Desert Inst. of Egypt 50; mem. Egyptian Acad. of Sciences 50; mem. Conseil d'Administration de la Société de Géographie d'Egypte 51; State Prize in Geological and Chemical Sciences; Order of the Republic (Egypt).
Pubs. *Notes on the Underground Water in Egypt* 42, *The Barramiya Mining District* 48, *New Mode of Occurrence of Iron-Ore Deposits* 49, *Iron-Ore Deposits of Egypt* 50, *Ground-Water in Egypt* 53, *Deposits in the Nile Valley and the Delta* 54, *Iron-Ore Deposits of the District East of Aswan* 55.
13 Sharia el-Malek el-Mozaffar, Geziret el-Rada, Cairo, U.A.R.

Aulaqi, Sheikh Mohamed Farid Al-; see Farid Al-Aulaqi.

Aulaqi, Mohammad Salah; Yemeni trade unionist and politician.
Former Sec. Aden Labour Fed.; Minister of Defence 68-70. Ministry of Defence, As Shaab, People's Democratic Republic of Yemen.

Avidar, Brig.-Gen. Yosef; Israeli soldier and diplomatist; b. 7 May 1906, Keremenitz, Poland.
Came to Palestine 25; with Hagana from 25; mem. Chief Command 37-48; Dir. Mil. Industry 45-46; Deputy Chief, Gen. Staff 46-47, Quartermaster-Gen. I.D.F. 48-49; Brig.-Gen. Commdr. Northern Command 49-52; Commdr. Central Command 52-53; Head, Gen. Staff 54-55; Amb. to U.S.S.R. 55-58; Dir.-Gen. Ministry of Labour 59-60; Amb. to Argentina 61-65; Dir. Gov. Corps. Authority 66-68; Comptroller of Histadrut 68-.
The General Federation of Labour in Israel—Histadrut, Jerusalem.
Home: 5 Mevo Yoram, Jerusalem, Israel.

Avidom (Mahler-Kalkstein), Monahem, B.A.; Israeli composer; b. 6 Jan. 1908; ed. American Univ. Beirut, and in Paris.
Lecturer on theory of music, Hebrew Conservatoire of Music, Tel-Aviv 36-, and Music Teachers' Training Coll. Tel-Aviv 45-; Sec.-Gen. Israel Philharmonic Orchestra 46-; Vice-Pres. Board of Dirs. Acum Ltd. (Composers and Authors Assn.), Dir.-Gen. 56-; Dir. Arts Dept. Jerusalem Convention Centre 52; Pres. League of Composers 58-; mem. Nat. Arts Council 62-; recipient of the Israel State Prize in Arts 61, and many other awards for music.
Compositions include: *A Folk Symphony* 47, *Symphony No. 2 David* 48, *Mediterranean Sinfonietta* 51, 2 Piano Sonatinas 49, *Concertino* for violinist Jascha Heifetz, *Concertino* for cellist Gregor Piatigorsky 51, *Alexandra Hashmonaith* (opera in 3 acts) 52, *Jubilee Suite, Triptyque Symphonique The Crook* (opera in 2 acts) 65, *B-A-C-H Suite* for chamber orchestra, *Sinfonietta* 66, *Twelve Changing Preludes* for piano 68, *Symphonic Variés* for chamber orchestra 69, *The Farewell* (opera in 1 act) 70, concerto for strings and flute, music for strings, symphonies 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7, psalms and cantatas, septet for woodwind, piano and percussion, string quartet No. 2, quartet for brass instruments.
30 Semadar Street, Ramat-Gan, Israel.

Avinon (Grossman), Rouben, B.A.; Israeli writer and educationalist; b. 12 Aug. 1905; ed. New York Univ.
Lecturer in English, Herzlia Hebrew Coll., Tel Aviv 29, Head of Dept. of English 46-49; mem. Exec. P.E.N. Centre in Israel 42-56; del. of Hebrew P.E.N. to Int. P.E.N. Congress, Zürich 47, Venice 49, Dublin 53; Inspector-Gen. of English Studies, Department of Education, Ministry of Education and Culture 50-52, Editor-in-Chief all literary publications in memory of heroes of Israel's War of Liberation (by special appt. of Ministry of Defence) 52-; mem. Exec. of Hebrew Writers' Assn. 53-56, 60-64.
Pubs. *Arbaa Iyim (Four Islands)*, *Av Ubito (Father and Daughter)* 34, Poetry: *Shirim* 31, *Idiliyoth (Idylls)* 34, *Aley Dvai (Leaves of Woe)* 48, *Shirath Enayim Velelav (Song of Eyes and Heart)* 49, *Hebrew Anthology of English Verse* 44, *Hebrew Anthology of American Verse* 53, *Hebrew-English Dictionary, Collected Poems (1930-50)* 50, *Hebrew Anthology of English Verse* (revised and complete edn.) (Tchernichowsky Prize for Model Translations 58) 56, *A Tree I Planted* (poems) 58, *Images of Yore* 64, *Along My Lanes* (Poems 1950-1970) 71; Editor of anthology of works of heroes of Israeli War at request of Prime Minister, 4 vols. 52, 58, 61, 70 and of abridged English edn. *Such Were Our Fighters* 65; Co-editor of Shakespeare's Tragedies in Hebrew and translator of three thereof 59; editor of series of booklets for youth; many translations of English works into Hebrew.
103 Rothschild Boulevard, Tel-Aviv, Israel.

Avni, Tzvi; Israeli composer; b. 2 Sept. 1927, Germany.
Arrived in Israel as a child; studied with Abel Ehrlich, Paul Ben-Haim and Mordecai Seter, Tel-Aviv Acad. of Music,

with Aaron Copland and Lukas Foss at Tanglewood Mass and electronic music at Columbia Univ
Compositions include *Songs for Soprano and Orchestra* 57 *Woodwind Quintet* 59 *Prayer* for string orchestra 61 *Summer Strings* for string quartet 62 *Chaconne for Harp* 62 *Capriccio* for orchestra 63 *Vocalise* (electronic music) 64 *Two Pieces for Four Clarinets* 65 *Meditations on a Drama* for chamber orchestra 66 (ACUM Prize) *Collage* for Mezzo Soprano Fl Perc and electronic tape 67 *Yerushalayim Shel Ma ala* for mixed choir and orchestra 68 *Chirash Habayit* for mixed choir and orchestra 68 *Five Fantomisms* for eight players 68 *Aheda* for chamber groups and narrator 69 *String Quartet No 2* (Liberson Prize 69) *Requiem for Sounds* (ballet music) *Eva Der* ballet music 70 *Holiday Metaphors* for symphony orchestra 70 Office Central Music Library Huberman Street Tel Aviv Home 7 Zangwill Street Tel Aviv Israel

Avnon, Zvi, Israeli diplomatist b Warsaw 27 Nov 1902 ed Dairy Coll Bolsward Agricultural Coll Wageningen (Netherlands) and Univ of Utrecht
Former Dir Consular Div Israeli Foreign Ministry subsequently Asst Dir Gen fmr Dutch Consul Jerusalem Minister Denmark 57-58 Ambassador to Denmark 58-61 Minister Bulgaria 61-67
Ministry of Foreign Affairs Jerusalem Israel

Avriel, Ehud, Israeli diplomatist b 19 Oct. 1917 ed. High School Vienna
Israeli Minister to Czechoslovakia 48 concurrently to Hungary 49 Minister to Romania 50 Dir Gen Prime Minister's Office Jerusalem 51-57 Ambassador to Ghana and to Liberia 57-60 Ambassador to Congo 60-61 Dep Dir Gen. Ministry of Foreign Affairs 61-65 Ambassador to Italy Feb 66-68 concurrently accred. to Malta May 66-68 elected Chair World Zionist Action Cttee Jerusalem mem Knesset 55
Neotche Mordechai Upper Galilee Israel Ministry of Foreign Affairs Jerusalem Israel

Awadallah, Abu Bakr, Sudanese jurist b 1917 ed School of Law Gordon Coll Khartoum.
District Judge El Obeid resigned to become Speaker of Sudanese House of Representatives 54-57 Judge of the Supreme Court 57 Chief Justice Oct. 61 May 67 Prime Minister and Minister of Foreign Affairs May 69-Oct 69 Minister of Foreign Affairs Oct 69 July 70 and Justice Oct 69
Ministry of Justice Khartoum Sudan

Aybar, Mehmet Ali, LL B Turkish politician b 1910 ed French schools and Univ of Istanbul
Formerly published *Hur Zincirli Hürriyet* Chair Türkiye İpçi Partisi 62
Türkiye İpçi Partisi, Genel Müdürlüğü Ankara Turkey

Ayyoubi, Mahmoud, Syrian politician b 1932
Former Dir Gen for Admin Affairs Euphrates Dept Minister of Educ 69 Minister of Educ and Deputy Prime Minister 70 Vice-Pres of Syria April 71
Office of the Vice President Damascus Syria.

Azem, Abdul Rahman El, Syrian diplomatist b 1922 ed. American Univ and French Faculty of Law Beirut M P 47 mem Syrian Constituent Assembly 49 Minister of Finance 50-51 54 Ambassador to Egypt and Sudan 56-58 Perm Rep to Arab League 56-58 Ambassador of the United Arab Republic to Spain and Japan 58-61 Ambassador of the Syrian Arab Republic to the U K 62-64 Grand Cordon du Nil and Grand Cordon de la République (Egypt) Grand Cruz de Isabel La Católica (Spain) and other decorations
Hama Syrian Arab Republic

Azkoul, Karim, PH D Lebanese former diplomatist b 15 July 1915 ed Jesuit Univ of St Joseph Beirut and Univs of Paris Berlin Bonn and Munich

Professor of History Arab and French literature and Philology in various colls in Lebanon 39-46 Dir of an Arabic publishing house and of a monthly Arabic review *The Arab World* in Beirut 43-45 mem of the Lebanese del to UN 47-50 acting perm. del to UN 50-53 Head of UN Affairs Dept Ministry for Foreign Affairs 53-57 Head of the Permanent Delegation of Lebanon to UN 57-59 Consul General in Australia 59-61 Ambassador to Ghana, Guinea and Mali 61-64 to Iran and Afghanistan 64-66 Prof of Philosophy Chair of Humanities Div Beirut Coll. for Women Order of Cedar (Lebanon) Order of St. Sepulchre (Jerusalem) Order of St. Marc (Alexandria) Order of the Brilliant Star (Republic of China) Order of Southern Star (Brazil) Order of St. Peter and Paul (Damascus)

Public Reason and Faith in Islam (in German) 38 and a similar work in Arabic 46 *A Study on Freedom of Association* (French English Russian Spanish) 68 trans *Conscientism* (Nkrumah) 64 *Arabic Thought in the Liberal Age* (Hourani) 68
Debs Bldg Alsady St Ashrafieh Beirut Lebanon.

B

Baalbaki, Leila Ali, Lebanese novelist b 1936 ed Univ Saint Joseph Beirut.
Publs (novels) *Je Vis Les Dieux monstres Un Bâleau de Tendresse pour la Lune*
rue Amir Aïman Imm. Tousbahgi Beirut Lebanon.

Bahkian, Khatchik Diran, Lebanese politician b 1924 Cyprus ed Collège Italien Beirut Faculté Française de Droit Beirut Faculté de Paris Univ of London
Barrister Deputy for Beirut 57-60 64-68 mem Parl Comm on Justice Pres Traffic Comm. Minister for Admin Reform 60-61 Minister of Public Health 68-69 Minister of Tourism 69
Place de l'Etoile BP 939 Beirut Home Rue Abnne Achrafieh Beirut Lebanon
Telephone 233 850 (Office) 322 013 (Home)

Bachi, Roberto, Israeli statistician b 16 Jan 1909 ed. Univ degli Studi Rome
Professor of Statistics in Italian universities including Palermo 36 Genoa 37 Prof of Statistics and Demography Hebrew Univ of Jerusalem 45 Head of Dept of Statistics 47-60 Dean Faculty of Social Sciences 53-54 Pro-Rector 59-60 planned Central Bureau of Statistics State of Israel, Govt. Statistician and Scientific Dir Central Bureau of Statistics 48 Fellow American Statistical Soc Israel Acad of Sciences and Humanities mem Int Statistical Inst and of many int and nat learned socs
Publs *Mobility of Population in the Large European Towns* (Italian) 32 then about 140 papers and books in English Italian Hebrew French and Spanish on statistical method demography health social and geographical statistics *Graphical Rational Patterns a New Approach to Graphical Presentation of Statistics* 67
Chovever Zion Street 19 Jerusalem Israel

Badawi, Mohamed Kamel, United Arab Republic industrialist b 23 March 1901 ed Lycée Français Alexandria
Established enamel ware factory 34 Pres Egyptian Bonded Warehouses 54-61 Alexandria Insurance Co 55-61 Soc Pharos for tourism and transportation 59-61 Pres Alexandria Chamber of Commerce mem Board of Dir Amalgamated Ice Factories 59-61 Bank of Alexandria 58-61 Municipal Comm 50-61 Admin of Public Transportation 52-61
Publs *Chambers of Commerce and Their Mission* 56 *Rotary Clubs* 65
45 Kafraabou Roshdy Alexandria U A R.

Badeau, John Stothoff, B.Sc., S.T.M., D.D., LL.D.; American educationalist; b. 24 Feb. 1903; ed. Union, Rutgers and Columbia Univs. and Union Theological Seminary. Prof. of Philosophy, and Dean Faculty of Arts and Sciences, American Univ. at Cairo 36; Regional Chief, Middle East, O.W.I. 43; Pres. American Univ. at Cairo 45-53; Pres. Near East Foundation 53-61; Ambassador to United Arab Republic 61-64; Dir. Middle East Inst., Columbia Univ., New York City 64-; Special Consultant, Dept. of Health, Education and Welfare; Trustee, American Univ. of Cairo, Union Theological Seminary, Near East Foundation, and Middle East Inst., Washington, D.C., American Research Centre in Arab United Republic. Pubs. *East and West of Suez* 43, *Emergence of Modern Egypt* 53, *The Lands Between* 57, *The American Approach to the Arab World* 68. Middle East Institute, Columbia University, New York, N.Y., U.S.A.

Badra, Mohamed; Tunisian diplomatist; b. 26 Aug. 1900; ed. at Tunis and Lyons. Director Tunisian Chamber of Commerce 27-42; Founder and Pres. Soc. Tunisienne de Filature et de Tissage 42-48; Pres. Tunisian Chamber of Commerce 48-50; Minister of Social Affairs 50-52; Rep. to UN 52-55, 63; Minister of Agriculture 55-56; in charge of Tunisian Pavilion at Brussels Expo. 56-58; Ambassador to Libya 58-62, to Syria and Kuwait 62-63, to United Arab Republic and Kuwait, concurrently Rep. to Arab League 63-65, to Italy and Greece 65-69. Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Tunis, Tunisia.

Baghdady, Abdel Latif; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) politician; b. 1917; ed. Mansoura School, Cairo and Military Coll., Cairo. Military and air force instructor and sometime Comdr. Cairo/West Nile Aerodrome; Minister of War 53-54; Minister of Municipal and Rural Affairs 54-57; Vice-Pres. U.A.R.; Minister of Planning U.A.R. 58-62, in charge of Production and concurrently Minister of Treasury 61-62; mem. Presidency Council 62-64; under house arrest 64-6. Sharia El Oroba, Heliopolis, Cairo, U.A.R.

Baghdady, Hassan; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) horticulturalist and politician; b. 1909; ed. Higher School of Agriculture, Giza and Univ. of California. Professor of Horticulture, Univ. of Alexandria 41-58; Under-Sec. Ministry of Supply 58-59; Minister of Land Reform, Egyptian Region, U.A.R. 59-61; Rector Univ. of Alexandria. Pubs. many books and articles on horticulture. Alexandria University, Shatby, Alexandria, U.A.R.

Bahar, Abdul Aziz Al-, B.A.; Kuwaiti businessman; b. 1929; ed. American Univ., Beirut. Executive, Ministry of Public Works; Dir.-Gen. of Housing Dept. 55-60; Dir.-Gen. Kuwait Fund for Arab Econ. Devt. 61-62; Chair. Commercial Bank of Kuwait, S.A.K. 62-; Chair. Kuwait Nat. Industries 63-65; Dir. Rifbank, Beirut 67; Dir. United Bank of Kuwait 66-; Chair. Kuwait Foreign Trading, Contracting and Investment Co. 65-; Acting Chair. Commercial Bank of Dubai 69-; Dir. Kuwait Chamber of Commerce 64-; Hon. Consul of Costa Rica. P.O. Box 460, Kuwait City, Kuwait.

Baharoon, Zain Abdu; Yemeni politician; ed. locally. Managing Partner, Brothers Trading Co.; Vice-Pres., Aden Chamber of Commerce; mem. Aden Legislative Council 62-63; Minister of Finance, First Aden Nat. Govt. Jan.-July 63; Chief Minister of Aden State July 63-65. Aden, People's Democratic Republic of Yemen.

Bakdash, Khalid; Syrian politician; b. 1912; ed. Damascus Inst. of Law. Member of Parl. 54-58; Sec.-Gen. Syrian Communist Party

self-imposed exile in East Europe 58-66; returned to Syria April 66. Ave. Akrad, Damascus, Syria.

Bakir, Anwar, D. en D.; United Arab Republic postal executive; b. 24 Nov. 1914; ed. Univs. of Cairo and Paris. Former Dir. of Int. Services, U.A.R. Postal Service; fmr. Dir. of Posts of U.A.R., now mem. Admin. Council; Sec.-Gen. Arab Postal Union; del. to numerous confs. of A.P.U. and int. postal confs. General Secretariat, Arab Postal Union, 28 rue Adly, Cairo, United Arab Republic.

Bakoush, Abdel Hamid; Libyan politician; b. 1933. Trained in legal practice; Minister of Justice Jan. 64-Oct. 67; Prime Minister and Minister of Justice 67-Sept. 68. c/o Office of the Prime Minister, Tripoli, Libya.

Bakr, Field Marshal Ahmed Hassan; Iraqi army officer and politician; b. 1914; ed. Military Academy. Army career 36-; Comdr. First Infantry Brigade 57; Forced to retire from Iraq Army 59; Prime Minister of Iraq Feb. 63 and Nov. 63; Vice-Pres. of Iraq Nov. 63-Jan. 64; Amb. Jan.-Sept. 64; Pres., Prime Minister and C-in-C. of Armed forces July 68-. Office of the President, Baghdad, Iraq.

Bakri, Dr. Bashir El-; Sudanese diplomatist; b. 1918; ed. Univs. of Cairo, Oxford and Paris. Member of many Sudanese dels. to UN and other int. centres; Ambassador to France 57-61, to the Netherlands, Belgium and Spain 59-61, to Nigeria 61-64; Chair. El Nilein Bank 64-. El Nilein Bank, P.O. Box 466, Khartoum, Sudan.

Bakri-Wahab, Laman, B.A.; Iraqi cultural official; b. 8 Jan. 1929; ed. Fine Arts Inst., Baghdad and Baghdad Univ. Editor-in-Chief *New Iraq Magazine* 60-61; Supt. Arabic Press Dept., Ministry of Culture and Guidance 63-64; Man. Nat. Symphony Orchestra 64-66; Dir. Nat. Museum of Modern Art 67-. 44/2/55 Sulikh, Ahdamia, Baghdad, Iraq.

Balafrej, Ahmed; Moroccan politician; b. 1908; ed. Univs. of Paris and Cairo. Secretary-General in Istiqlal (Independence) Party 44-; later exiled by French, returned to Morocco 55; Minister of Foreign Affairs 55-58; Prime Minister May-Dec. 58; Ambassador-at-Large 60-61; Dep. Prime Minister June 61; Minister of Foreign Affairs 61-Nov. 63; Personal Rep. of King with rank of Minister 63-. The Royal Palace, Rabat, Morocco.

Barakat, Fayek, DIP. ECON.; Jordanian businessman; b. 1925; ed. Rashidiya Govt. School, Jerusalem, and Jerusalem Coll. Assistant Supply Officer, Controller of Light Industries 44-48; Dir. Jerusalem Chamber of Commerce 52-. Publ. *The Economy of Jordan* 62. Jerusalem Chamber of Commerce, P.O. Box 151, Jerusalem Israel.

Barakat, Gamal Eddine, LL.B., B.LITT.; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) diplomatist; b. 1921; ed. Cairo Univ., Acad. of Int. Law, The Hague and Oriel Coll., Oxford. Third Sec., London 50-52; with Political Dept., Ministry of Foreign Affairs 53-55; Consul-Gen. Aleppo 55-58; Counsellor Washington 58-60; Head of Service Training Dept., Ministry of Foreign Affairs 61-63; mem. Org. of African Unity Expert Cttee., Addis Ababa 63-64; Ambassador to Uganda 64-68, and to Burundi 67-68; Amb. to Finland Oct. 68-; Order of Merit (4th Grade) 58, Order of the Republic (2nd Grade) 64. Pubs. *Status of Aliens in Egypt* 49, *Lectures on Diplomacy and Diplomatic Terminology in Arabic* 62. Embassy of the United Arab Republic, Stenbackinkatu 22, Helsinki, Finland.

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Barakat, Ghaleb, B.A. : Jordanian civil servant b 1927, ed. American Univ Beirut
Teacher Nat. Coll., Tripoli 49-50, Teachers' Coll., Tripoli 50-52, Asst. Dir 51-52 Chief Clerk Jordan Tourist Service 52-53 Press Attaché 53-54 Tourist and Press Attaché, Royal Jordan Embassy, Rome 54-60 Dir of Tourism 60-, Dir Jordan Pavilion Brussels Exhbn 58, Commr Gen Jordan Pavilion New York World's Fair 64, Pres Arab Int. Tourist Union 64, Dir Gen Tourism Authority 66-, Dir Gen Ministry of Tourism and Antiquities 68, Jordanian Belgian and Vatican decorations Ministry of Tourism and Antiquities P O B 224, Amman Jordan.

Baramki, Dimitri Constantine, B.A. PH.D. : Jordanian archaeologist b. 1909 ed St George's School, American Univ of Beirut Univ of London
Teacher, Jerusalem 24-26 Student Inspector of Antiquities Palestine 27-28 Inspector 29 Senior Archaeological Officer 45 Archaeological Adviser and Librarian American School of Oriental Research Jerusalem 49-51 Curator of Museums 51 Asst Prof of Ancient History, American Univ of Beirut 51-53 Associate Prof 53 Prof 55 UNESCO Expert in Prehistoric Archaeology, accred to Libya 63-65 excavated numerous sites in Palestine
Pubs: Numerous articles in the Quarterly of the Dept of Antiquities Palestine and in other publications
American University of Beirut, Beirut, Lebanon

Barbour, Walworth, A.B. : American diplomatist b 4 June 1908 ed Harvard Univ
Served Naples 31 Athens 32 Baghdad 36 Sofia 39 Cairo 41, Baghdad and Cairo 42 with American Rep to exiled Greek and Yugoslav Govts, Cairo 43 Athens 44 Asst. Chief Div of Southern European Affairs Dept of State, Washington 45 Chief, Div of Southeast European Affairs 47 Counsellor with rank of Minister, Moscow 49 Dir Office of Eastern European Affairs 51, Dep Asst. Sec. of State for European Affairs 54-55 Minister and Dep Chief of Mission American Embassy, London 55-61, Ambassador to Israel 61
American Embassy, Tel Aviv, Israel

Bargach, M'Hamed, L. és D. : Moroccan banker and politician b. 25 June 1918 ed Lycée Gouraud Univ Moham med V, Rabat and Inst. des Etudes de Droit International The Hague
Former Dir Gen Ministry of Nat Defence Chargé d'Affaires Paris, Chef du Cabinet to the Deputy Prime Minister in charge of Econ Affairs High Commr of the Plan for the Formation of Services, Vice-Gov. Banque du Maroc 67, Minister of Devt. 64-67, also of Agriculture July 67-69
317 avenue Mohammed V, Rabat Morocco

Bar-Ilan, Tuvia, PH.D. : Israeli chemist and university administrator b. 28 Dec. 1912, ed Polytechnic Inst. of Brooklyn and Hebrew Univ., Jerusalem
Migrated to Palestine from USA 23 research worker Weizmann Inst of Science Rehovot 36-43 War Dept analyst and British army officer 43-46 Commr Scientific Corps Jerusalem area Israeli Defence Forces 47-48, manufacturer of plastic products 49-66 Dir Bar-Ilan Univ Ramat Gan 58-63 Dir Bar-Ilan Univ Extension Div (Ashkelon Safed and Jordan Valley) 65, Pres Bnei Brith Holon 59-62 Chm. Exec Ctee Nat Religious Party Holon 63-66 mem Board of Higher Studies 61-65 Town Councillor Holon 60-
Pubs. Articles and patents on organic chemistry and plastics.
3 Azar Street, Holon Israel.

Barakat, Reuben : Israeli diplomatist and administrator b. 5 June 1906 ed Paris and Strasbourg Univs
Settled in Palestine 26 Gen Sec Soldiers Welfare Ctee

40-46 Histadrut Del to WFTU ICFITU 49 U K 49-50, to UN Istanbul 51, Dir Political Dept., Histadrut, founder mem Asian Socialist Conf., mem. Exec. Bureau ICFITU, mem Socialist Int., Central Ctee of Mapai Ambassador to Norway 60-61, Sec. Gen Mapai 62-66 mem. Knesset 66-, Speaker of Knesset 69-70
55 Arlossoff Street Holon, Israel

Barmada, Rashad, Syrian lawyer and politician, b 1913, ed Aleppo, Law School Damascus
Practised law in Aleppo Dep for Aleppo 47, 49 54 61-, Minister of Interior 50-51, of Defence 55, Dep Premier April 62-Sept 62, Minister of Education Sept 62 March 63
Damascus Syrian Arab Republic

Barpal, Josef : Israeli shipping executive b Russia 1898, ed Univ., Russia
Zionist, Rumania settled in Palestine 25 mem of Kibbutz Ramat David, assisted illegal immigration, Co-founder ZIM Israel Navigation Co Ltd 45 and subsidiary Shoham ZIM Israel Navigation Co Ltd, 7-9 Ha atsmat Road Haifa, Israel

Barroli, Joel : Israeli (b Italian) diplomatist b 1920 ed Univ of Rome Law School and Hebrew Univ., Jerusalem
Ministry of Foreign Affairs 51 First Sec and Counsellor Buenos Aires Chargé d'Affaires 61 Montevideo and Havana 55-61 Deputy Dir W. European Div Ministry of Foreign Affairs 61 Dir Latin American Div 62-63 Deputy Perm Rep to UN 63-69 concurrently Amb to Haiti Sept 63-69 Dir Div of Cultural and Scientific Relations Ministry of Foreign Affairs 70
Division of Cultural and Scientific Relations Ministry of Foreign Affairs Tel Aviv Israel

Barloelci, Athos, DR ECON SC : Italian business executive b 28 Oct. 1902 ed Ca Foscari Venice
Commissary of Italian U.M.A. (Unione Motori Agricoli) Rome Italy 42 Gen Sec Chamber of Commerce Mogadishu Somalia 50-, Founder and Gen Man of Somali company Nuova Farmacia Centrale Ltd (importer and wholesaler and distributor of pharmaceutical products in Somali Republic) 60-, Founder and Gen Sec Somali Int. Fair, Mogadishu 52
P O Box 373, Mogadishu Somalia.

Barlur, Moshe : Israeli diplomatist b 27 Oct 1919 ed Germany and Palestine
Went to Palestine 38 with Jewish Agency 46-48 joined Ministry of Foreign Affairs 48, Perm Rep to UN Geneva 63
Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Jerusalem, Israel

Baruni, Omar : Libyan diplomatist b 1921, ed Muslim High Coll., Tripoli
Under-Sec for Foreign Affairs 58-62 Ambassador to USSR 62-64, Minister of State Jan-March 64 Minister of the Interior March Oct 64 Minister of State for Parliamentary Affairs Oct 64 March 65 Minister of Finance 65
Publ *The Spaniards and the Knights of St John of Jerusalem in Tripoli* (in Arabic) 51
c/o Ministry of Finance Tripoli Libya

Barzani, Gen Mustafa : Iraqi politician, b 1904
Founder and leader, Kurdish Democratic Party led revolts in Kurdistan 34 43 45 46 exiled to USSR 46-58 returned at invitation of Gen Kassem 58, in rebellion against the Central Govt 65 70
Rania Village Sulaimanyah Province Iraq

Basheer, Tahseen M. : United Arab Republic (Egyptian) diplomatist ed Univ of Alexandria and Harvard Univ
Former Instructor in Political Econ Univ of Alexandria fmr Dir Palestine Section Dept of Inf., Ministry of

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Presidential Affairs; Consul, San Francisco 61-64, also Dir. Inf. and Press Dept., San Francisco; mem. U.A.R. Del. to Non-Aligned Conf. 64; Acting Dir. Arab League Office, London 65-66; Dir. of UN Arab League Office, New York.

Arab League Office, c/o U.A.R. Permanent Mission, 900 Park Avenue, New York, N.Y., U.S.A.

Basher, Sayed Taha; Sudanese medical doctor and politician; b. 2 June 1922, Swakin; ed. Gordon Memorial Coll. and Univ. of Khartoum.

Assistant neurologist 54-56; dipl. in psychiatry, London Univ. 56; psychiatric specialist 57-59; Senior psychiatric specialist 59-69; Minister of Labour May 69-70; now Minister of Health; mem. WHO scientific advisory cttee., exec. cttee. of the Int. Union for Psychiatry, Sudanese medical board, exec. cttee. of Psychiatry Soc. of Africa, Sudanese Philosophical Soc. council and Nat. Vocational Front.

Ministry of Health, Khartoum, Sudan.

Basmaci, Ferid; Turkish banker; b. 13 Feb. 1911, Istanbul; ed. Faculty of Econ. and Commerce, Istanbul. Treasure, Türkiye İş Bankası 53-58, Vice-Pres. 58-60, Man. Galata Branch 60-66, Senior Vice-Pres. 66-67, Pres. 67-; Chair. Sınai Yatırım ve Kredi Bankası 67-, Industrial Devt. Bank of Turkey 69-. Türkiye İş Bankası A.Ş., Ulus, Ankara; Home: Vali Dr. Reşit Caddesi 73, Çanakaya, Ankara, Turkey. Telephone: 124383 (Home).

Basri, Meer S.; Iraqi poet, writer and economist; b. 1911; ed. Baghdad.

Official, Iraqi Min. for Foreign Affairs; Chief of Section and Acting Dir. of the Protocol; Dir. *The Iraq Directory* 35; Sec., and later Dir., Baghdad Chamber of Commerce 35-45; Contoller Commercial Exchange 37-38; Asst. Iraq Commr. Int. Paris Exhibition 37; Editor *Chamber of Commerce Journal* 38-45; del. Int. Business Conf., Rye, N.Y. 44; Dir. Eastern Commercial Corp'n. Ltd. 45-49; mem. Iraqi P.E.N. Club; mem. Gen. Council and Admin. Council, Baghdad; Dir. of Information, Date Assn. of Iraq 47; Fellow, Royal Asiatic Soc., London 50; Dir. of various companies 53-.
 Publs. *Essays on Iraqi Economy* (Arabic) 48, *Echoes of the Lyre* (poetry), *Men and Shadows* (short stories), *Dictionary of Economic Terms and Theories* (Arabic, English and French), *Travels of Nijeholt* (trans.), *Role of Arab Men of Letters* 69, *Leaders of Thought in Modern Iraq*; poetry, short stories, literary criticism, etc.
 18 Aslami Street, Saadoun, Baghdad, Iraq.

Battle, Lucius Durham, B.A., LL.B.; American diplomatist; b. 1 June 1918; ed. Univ. of Florida. Special Asst. Sec. of State 49-53; First Sec., Copenhagen 53-55; Deputy Exec. Sec. NATO 55-56; Vice-Pres. Colonial Williamsburg Inc. and Williamsburg Restoration Inc. 56-61; Special Asst. to Sec. of State 61-62, Asst. Sec. of State for Educational and Cultural Affairs 62-64; Amb. to the U.A.R. 64-67; Asst. Sec. of State for Near Eastern and South Asian Affairs 67-68; Chair. U.S. Del. to UNESCO 62, to Ministers of Educ., Org. of American States; Vice-Pres. for Corporate Relations, Communications Satellite Corp'n. 68-.
 950 L'Enfant Plaza South, S.W., Washington, D.C. 20024, U.S.A.

Bayani, Mehdi, Ph.D.; Iranian librarian; b. 1906; ed. Univ. of Teheran. Librarian, Nat. Teachers' Coll., and Lecturer, Faculty of Literature, Teheran Univ. 33; Head of Education Dept., Ispahan Province 40; Special Inspector and Asst. Dir. of Education Dept., Ministry of Art and Industry 41; Dir. Nat. Library of Teheran 42-; Dir. of Imperial Library 57-; Dir.-

Gen. The Nat. Library 57; Prof. Nat. Teachers' Coll. 61-; Prof. Faculty of Art 63-.

Editor: *Nimuneh-Sukhan-i-Farsi* 38, *Rahnemaye Ganjineh Koran* 48, *Specimens of Fine Writing from the National Library, Teheran* 48. *Specimens of Fine Writing from the Imperial Library of Iran* 51, *Ahval va Athare mir Emad* 52, *Khochnevisan* (vol. 1) 66.

Publs. *Three Essays of Sheikh Shahabod-din Suhrawardi* 38-40; *Essay Sawanih-fel-Eshq Ahmad Ghazzali* 43; *Badaya ol-Azman* (Tarikhe Afzal) 47. Imperial Library, Qolestān Palace, Teheran, Iran.

Bayar, Celal; Turkish politician; b. 1883. Minister of Nat. Economy 21; Minister of Reconstruction and Settlement (when Turkish and Greek populations were exchanged in accordance with Treaty of Lausanne) 23; founded İş Bank 24; Minister of Nat. Economy 32; Prime Minister 37-39; Vice-Pres. Republican People's Party during Presidency of Kemal Atatürk; undertook leadership of new Democratic Party founded 46; Pres. of the Republic May 50-60; arrested and detained May 60; death sentence passed and changed to life imprisonment 61; released Nov. 64; pardoned 66. Ankara, Turkey.

Bayoomi, Husain Aly; Yemeni politician. Former Minister of State, Aden Govt.; Minister of Civil Aviation and Acting Minister of Agriculture, Federal Govt. 65-66; Minister of Nat. Guidance and Information 66-67; nominated to form first Govt. of South Arabian Fed., but withdrew from task 67; Gen. Sec. United Nat. Party. As Shaab, People's Democratic Republic of Yemen.

Bayramoğlu, Fuat; Turkish diplomatist; b. 1912; ed. School of Political and Administrative Sciences, Istanbul, and Univ. of Liège. Entered Diplomatic Service 39; mem. Gen. Directorate of Press and Publication Cttee. 43; Head of Secretariat Prime Minister's Office 44-46; Chair. Press Dept. Cttee. 46; Dir. in Foreign Ministry 48; Consul, Cyprus 49; Consul Gen., Jerusalem 51-53; Dir.-Gen. Consular and Claims Dept., Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Ankara 53-57; Ambassador to Norway 57-59, to Iraq 59-60, to Iran 60-62, to Italy 62-63; Sec.-Gen. Ministry of Foreign Affairs 63-64; Ambassador to Belgium 64-67, to Italy 67-69, to U.S.S.R. 69-. Turkish Embassy, Moscow, U.S.S.R.

Bayülken, Ümit Halâk; Turkish diplomatist; b. July 1921; ed. Ankara Univ. Joined Ministry of Foreign Affairs 44, served Frankfurt, Bonn, Dir. Middle East Section 51-53; Political Adviser to UN Del. 53-59; mem. Turkish Del. to Cyprus Joint Cttee., London 59-60; Dir.-Gen. Policy Planning Group, Ministry of Foreign Affairs 60-63, appointed Minister Plenipotentiary; Asst. Sec.-Gen. for Political Affairs 63-64; Sec.-Gen. Ministry of Foreign Affairs 64-66; Ambassador to U.K. 66-69; Perm. Rep. to UN 69-; Head of several overseas dcls. since 52, Orden Isobel la Catolica, German Grand Cross of Merit, Hon. G.C.V.O. 67. Publs. several papers on the Cyprus question. Permanent Mission of Turkey to the UN, 866 United Nations Plaza, Suite 525, New York, N.Y. 10017, U.S.A.

Bazzaz, Abdul Rahman Al; Iraqi scholar, diplomatist and administrator; b. 20 Feb. 1913; ed. Baghdad Univ. and King's Coll., London. Teacher 39-63; Prof. of Jurisprudence and Dean, Coll. of Law, Baghdad Univ. 55-59; Prof. of Arab Nationalism, Arab League Inst. of Higher Arabic Studies 59-63; Ambassador to U.A.R. 63, to U.K. 63-65; Sec.-Gen. Organisation of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) 64-65; Deputy Prime Minister, Minister of Foreign Affairs and Acting Oil Minister Sept. 65; Prime Minister 65-Aug. 66; under fifteen years detention 69; released Nov. 70. Hammersmith Hospital, 150 Du Cane Road, London, W.12.

Public Land Law in Iraq 40 *Principles of General History of Law* 40 *Iraq From Mandate to Independence* 54 *Principles of Jurisprudence* 55 *Discourses on Law and Islamic Law* 58 *From the Spirit of Islam* 59 *Pages from the Recent Past* 60 *From the Inspiration of Arabism* 61 *The Unitary State and the Federal State* 61 *Studies in Arab Nationalism* 62 (2nd edn) *This is our Nationalism* 64

Beaumont Sir Richard Ashlton, KCMG OBE British diplomatist b 29 Dec 1912 ed Repton Coll and Oriel Coll Oxford

Entered Consular Service 36 served Beirut 36 Damascus 38 war service 41-44 joined Foreign Office 45 served Mosul 46-47 Chargé d'Affaires Damascus 47-48 Consul Gen Jerusalem 48-49 Caracas 50-53 Baghdad 53-58 Imperial Defence Coll 58-59 Head of Arab in Dept Foreign Office 59-61 Ambassador to Morocco 61-65 Amb to Iraq 65-67 to United Arab Repub 69 British Embassy Kasrah El Dabara Cairo U A R

Becker, Aharon, Israeli labour leader b 28 Dec 1906 ed secondary school

Came to Palestine 24 Sec Histadrut Ramat Gan 29-32 Sec Textile Workers Union 33-34 mem Exec Labour Council Tel Aviv 34-43 Man. Dir Industrial Dept Co-op Wholesale Soc 43-47 Head Supply Miss on Ministry of Defence 48-49 Chair Histadrut Trade Union Dept 49-61 Sec Gen of Histadrut 61-69 mem Labour Party Secretariat Governing Body of ILO Bank of Israel Knesset Exec Cttee Histadrut

Publs numerous articles and booklets on economic and labour problems

66 Keren Kayemet Boulevard Tel Aviv Israel

Bedjaoui Mohammed, Algerian politician b 21 Sept 1929 ed Univ of Grenoble and Institut d'Etudes Politiques Grenoble

Lawyer Coll of Appeal Grenoble 51 research worker at Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique (CNRS) Paris 55 Legal Counsellor of the Arab League in Geneva 59-62 Legal Counsellor Provisional Republican Govt of Algeria in Exile 58-61 Dir Office of the Pres of Nat Constituent Assembly 62 mem Del to UN 62 Sec Gen Council of Ministers Algiers 62-63 Pres Soc. Nat. des chemins de fer algériens (SNCF) 64 Dean of the Faculty of Law Algiers Univ 64 Minister of Justice and Keeper of the Seals 64-70 Amb to France 70 Carnegie Endowment for Int Peace 56 Ordre du Mérite Alaouite Morocco Ordre de la République U A R

Publs *International Civil Service* 56 *Fonction publique internationale et influences nationales* 58 *La révolution algérienne et le droit* 61

Embassy of Algeria rue Hamelin 18 Paris 166 France and 18 rue Luciani El Bar Algiers Algeria

Bedri, Abdul Kader el, Libyan politician Minister of Housing and State Property until July 67 Prime Minister July Oct 67

c/o Office of the Prime Minister Tripoli Libya

Begin, Menachem, M Jura Israeli politician b 1913 ed Warsaw Univ

Active in Jewish Youth Movement Betar Chair Betar in Czechoslovakia 36 in Poland 39 confined in Siberian labour camp by Moscow Comm of N K V D 40-41 came with Polish army to Palestine 42 C in C Irgun Zvai Leumi 43 leading revolt against British rule in Palestine mem. 1st 2nd 3rd 4th and 5th Knessets (Israel Parl.) Minister without Portfolio 67-70 Founder and Mnr Chair Herut (Freedom Movement)

Publs *The Revolt personal memoirs of the Commander of Irgun Zvai Leumi* 49 *The White Nights* 1 Rosenbaum Street Tel Aviv Israel

Bahry, Mamoun Ahmed a Sudanese civil servant and politician b 1925 ed Victoria Coll Alexandria and Brasenose Coll Oxford

Former Dep. Perm. Under Sec Ministry of Finance and Economics Mnr Chair Sudan Currency Board four Chair Nat Technical Planning Cttee 62 First Gov Central Bank of Sudan 58-63 Gov IMF and IBRD for Sudan Chair Cttee of Nine preparing for African Devt Bank 63 Minister of Finance and Econs 63-64 Pres of African Devt Bank 64-70

African Development Bank Abidjan Ivory Coast

Behnia, Abdolhassan, Iranian banker b 5 Jan 1920 ed Univ of Paris

Professor Technical Faculty Teheran Univ 42-67 Dir Gen Ministry of Roads and Communications 46-47 Chair and Man Dir Irrigation Org 50-55 Minister of Roads and Communications 60 Dir of Technical Bureau of Plan Org 61-64 Chair and Man Dir Bank Rahni Iran 65 Bank Rahni Iran Ferdowsi Street Teheran and 41 Avenue Heravi Saltanatbad Teheran Iran

Bekata, Hifzi Oguz, Turkish politician b 17 March 1911 ed Ankara Univ

Deputy for Ankara 43-50 57-60 mem Constituent Assembly 61 Minister of State June-Oct 62 of the Interior 62-63 Senator for Ankara 61 Republican People's Party Publs *Aydın Dini Adamları* 64 *Birinci Cumhuriyet* 60 *Dağların Ardi* 65 *Hükümet Hakkında Konuşmalar* 67 Atatürk Bulvarı 237/9 Kavaklıdere Ankara Turkey

Bel Abbes Youssef M D Moroccan physician and politician b 15 Aug 1921 ed Marrakesh Medical Coll of Algiers and Paris

Joined Public Health Service 49 Dir several hospitals then Insp Gen of Health Minister of Health 58-61 of Health and Educ 61-62 of Educ 62-65 Mayor of Marrakesh and Pres Provincial Council Amb to U A R 65-66 to Italy 67-69 to Algeria 69-70 Minister of Foreign Affairs Oct 70-

Ministry of Foreign Affairs Rabat Morocco

Bel Kacem, Cherif, Algerian politician

Former Mnr Armée de Libération Nationale Deputy for Tlemcen Questeur Nat Ass Minister of Nat Orientation 63-64 Minister of Education 64-65 mem. Revolutionary Council and Dir of Information July 65-67 mem Bureau Politique F L N 65-67 Minister of Finance and Planning March 68-70

c/o Ministry of Finance and Planning Algiers Algeria

Belkhdja, Tahar, Tunisian engineer and diplomatist b 1931 ed Ecole supérieure d'Agriculture Tunis

Students del to Political Bureau of Neo Destour Party 58-59 mem Tunisian del to UN Gen Assembly 59 Sec. of State at Foreign Ministry Oct 59 Jan 60 Dir of Foreign Affairs Jan 60-61 Chargé d'Affaires Paris Jan July 61 Ambassador to Senegal also accredited to Guinea Mauritania and Ivory Coast 61-66 Ordre de l'Indépendance Ordre de la République Tunisienne and other decorations c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs Tunis Tunisia

Bellagha, Bechir, Tunisian trade unionist b 21 Feb 1920 ed Collège Alaoui Tunis

First trade union post 45 Fine Arts 45-52 arrested 52-55 later attached to Office of Minister of Labour elected to Parl 57 Gov of Béja Region 57-64 Sec Gen of Union Générale Tunisienne du Travail 65 mem Political Bureau of Destour Socialist Party Grand Cordon de l'Ordre de l'Indépendance de Tunisie and other decorations 29 place M Hamed Ali Tunis Tunisia

Ben Abbes, Youssef, M D Moroccan physician and politician b 15 Aug 1921 ed Marrakesh Medical Coll of Algiers and Paris

Joined Public Health Service 49 Dir several hospitals then Insp Gen of Health Minister of Health 58-61 of Health and Educ 61-62 of Educ 62-65 Mayor of Marrakesh and Pres Provincial Council Ambassador to U A R

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

65-66, to Italy 67-69, to Algeria 69-70; Minister of Foreign Affairs Oct. 70-.

Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Rabat, Morocco.

Benabdallah, Abdel-Aziz; Moroccan professor; b. 28 Nov. 1923; ed. Univ. of Algiers.

General Dir. for the Conservation and Registry of Land Properties 57; Dir. of Higher Educ. for Scientific Research 58-61; Dir. of Nat. Arabization Centre 61-68; Dir.-Gen. Perm. Office for the Co-ordination of Arabization in the Arab World, Arab League, Rabat 69-; Prof., Faculty of Arts, Mohamed V Univ., Rabat and also Dar-el-Hadith Inst., al-Qarawiyine Univ., Rabat.

Publs. many works in Arabic and French on various subjects including history, philosophy, geography and linguistics.

Bureau Permanent d'Arabisation, 8 rue des Antilles, Rabat, Morocco.

Ben-Aharon, Yitzhak; Israeli administrator; b. 1906, Bukovina, Austria; ed. Berlin High School for Political Science and Econs.

Went to Palestine 28; founder of Kibbutz Givat Hayim; Sec. Tel-Aviv Labour Council 38-39; Lieut., British Army, Second World War, prisoner-of-war 41-45; mem. Knesset 49-62; Minister of Transport 59-62; mem. Knesset 69-; Sec.-Gen. Histadrut Dec. 69-.

Publs. *Listen Gentile, Michtavim Leumi, Bepheta Temura*. Kibbutz Givat Hayim (Meyuhad), Doar Hedera, Israel.

Ben Alla, Hadj; Algerian politician.

Former Capt. in French Army; imprisoned 56-62; mem. Bureau Politique, F.L.N. 62; First Vice-Pres. Nat. Assembly 62-63, Pres. 63-65; arrested July 65, released Nov. 70.

Algiers, Algeria.

Ben Ammar, Hassib; Tunisian politician; b. 1924; ed. Paris.

Mayor of Tunis 64-65; mem. of Central Cttee. of Destour Socialist Party 64-; Gouverneur-Préfet of Tunis 65-69; Amb. to Italy 69; Chair. Political Bureau of Destour Socialist Party 69-70; Minister of Defence 70-.

Ministry of Defence, Tunis, Tunisia.

Ben-Ari, Mordechai; Israeli (b. Transylvania) airline executive; b. Sept. 1920; ed. Univ. of Jerusalem, Israel.

Arrived in Palestine 40, joined Kibbutz; fought in Israel's War of Independence; later Dir. of Immigration Operations in Austria and E. Europe; joined El Al Israel Airlines 50, Man. of Freight and Mail Dept., Head of Commercial Div. 58, Vice-Pres. (Commercial) 60-67, Pres. of El Al Israel Airlines Ltd. July 67-.

El Al Israel Airlines Ltd., Lod Airport, Israel.

Benawa, Abdul Raouf; Afghan writer and administrator; b. 1913; ed. Ganj Public School, Kandahar.

Member Language Dept. Afghan Acad. 39; mem. Words Dept. Afghan Acad. and Asst. Information Dept. 40; Dir. Publ. Dept. Afghan Acad. 41; Gen. Dir. *Pashtu Tolana*; Sec. Afghan Acad. and Dir. *Kabul* magazine; proprietor of weekly magazine *Hewad*; mem. History Dept. 50, Dir. Internal Publ. Dept. 51, Gen. Dir. 52; Press Attaché India 53-56; Pres. Radio Kabul 56-63; Press and Cultural Counsellor, Cairo 63-.

Publs. *Women in Afghanistan, Mir Wiess Neeka, Literary Sciences, Pushtu Songs, De Ghanamo Wazhai, Pushtoonistan, A Survey of Pushtoonistan, Rahman Baba, Pir Mohammad-Kakar, Khosh-hal Khan se Wai, Pushtoo Killi*, Vol. 4, *Kazim Khan-e-Shaida*; translations: *Mosa-fir Iqbal, Geetan-Jali Tagoor, Da Darmistatar Pushtoo Seerane, Leaders of Pashtoonistan, History of Hootaki, Preshana asfar* (poem), *Da zra khwala, Pashto writers today* (2 vols.), *Pashto reader for schools, Pachakhan* (A leader of Pashtoni), *Lande* (public poems); plays: *I-Zoor gonahgar* (Old

criminal), *Ishtebah* (Confusion), *Kari bar asal, Aashyanac aqab, Zarang, Chaohi der khater, Hakoomat baidar*.

Afghan Embassy, Cairo, United Arab Republic; and Ministry of Information and Culture, Kabul, Afghanistan.

Ben-Baruch (Schwartz), Shalom; Israeli journalist; b. 29 Nov. 1886; ed. Odessa Univ., Russia.

Dir. Palestine Telegraphic Agency until 35; fmr. Dir. *Palestine Bulletin* and Jerusalem branch of daily *Haboker*; Founder *Echo of Jerusalem*.

Publs. *The Arab Question, The Poetry of Saul Tchernichovsky, The Jewish Question at the Peace Conference, The Shekel, The Zionist Organisation, Herzl in His Diaries, Herzl in His Letters* 40, *Jabotinsky the Nation's Fighter* 42, *Max Nordau in His Letters* 44, *Diaspora and Palestine* 45, *Ussishkin in His Letters* 49, *Jerusalem in the New Hebrew Poetry* 54; edited *The United Nations Organisation* (essays) 52.

Ben-Yehudah Street, Jerusalem, Israel.

Ben Bella, Mohammed; Algerian politician; b. 1916.

Warrant Officer in Moroccan regiment during Second World War (decorated); Chief O.S. rebel military group in Algeria 47; imprisoned 49-52 (escaped); directed Algerian nat. movement from exile in Libya 52-56; arrested Oct. 56; held in France 59-62; Vice-Premier, Algerian Nationalist Provisional Govt., Tunis 62; Leader, Algerian Political Bureau, Algeria 62; Premier of Algeria Sept. 62-June 65, President of Algeria Sept. 63-June 65, concurrently Minister of Interior Dec. 64-June 65; overthrown by military coup and imprisoned 65; Lenin Peace Prize 64. c/o Ministry of Justice, Algiers, Algeria.

Bendor, Shmuel; Israeli diplomatist; b. Belfast 21 June 1909; ed. Liverpool Univ.

Emigrated to Palestine 32; became English teacher, later Vice-Principal, Haifa Reali School; joined Air Force with rank of Wing Commr. after establishment of State of Israel; with Ministry of Education 49; Dir. of U.S. Dept. Foreign Ministry 50; Counsellor to Israeli Embassy, Paris 54; Minister to Czechoslovakia 57-59, to Rumania 59-61; Dir. Western European Dept., Foreign Ministry 61-63; Deputy Dir.-Gen. Prime Minister's Office 63-66; Dir. Foreign Relations Atomic Energy Comm. 66-69; Dir. Foreign Relations and Sec. Council for Higher Educ. 69-.

Ministry of Education and Culture, Jerusalem, Israel.

Benedictos (Vassilios Papadopoulos); Greek orthodox ecclesiastic; b. 1892; ed. Greek Orthodox Hieratic School, Jerusalem, and Athens Univ.

Clerk, Patriarchal Offices, Jerusalem 14; ordained deacon 14; accompanied the then Patriarch to Damascus during World War I; studies in Law and Theological Schools, Athens Univ. 21-25; rep. of Patriarch of Jerusalem at World Christian Conf. of Faith and Order, Geneva 27; Exarch of the Holy Sepulchre in Athens 29-46; ordained priest and Archimandrite 46; mem. Holy Synod, Jerusalem Patriarchate 46-; Legal Adviser and Chair. Pending Property Cttee. 47; Chair. Financial Cttee. 50; rep. of Patriarch, Internationalisation of Jerusalem Trusteeship Conf. 50; Archbishop of Tiberias 51; Greek Orthodox Patriarch of Jerusalem 57-; Grand Cross of King George of Greece, Grand Cross and Cordon of Patriarchate of Antioch, Jordanian and Lebanese orders.

Publs. Numerous historical and legal works.

Greek Orthodox Patriarchate, P.O. Box 4074, Jerusalem, Israel.

Bénézit, Jacques Charles Victor; French oil executive; b. 7 Oct. 1913; ed. Ecole Polytechnique, Ecole des Mines. Mining engineer, Nancy, Paris; Dir. Exploration/Production Dept. 55; Dir. Compagnie Française des Pétroles; Pres. and Dir.-Gen. Compagnie Française des Pétroles (Algérie); Vice-Pres. Compagnie Générale de Géophysique; Dir. French Petroleum Co. of Canada Ltd., Compagnie

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

des Pétroles Total Libye Société d'étude des marchés européens du gaz d'Hassi R Mel transporté par canalisations (SOMAREL) and several other companies Chevalier Légion d'Honneur

Compagnie Française des Pétroles 5 rue Michel Ange Paris 16e and 89 avenue de Villiers Paris 17e France

Benfelloun, Ali, A ès n Moroccan public servant and diplomatist b 1927 ed College Moulay Idriss de Fes and Faculty of Law Paris

Casablanca Court of Justice 50 Ministry of Justice (Civil Affairs Dir and Sec-Gen) 55 Chair Cities establishing Supreme Court and Nationality Code Govt Lawyer to Int Comm. of Conciliation and Arbitration Geneva 57 Ambassador to the United States and to Canada 62-63 Dir Office Chénien des Phosphates 65-67 Minister of Justice 67 68 Order of the Throne
129 rue du Prince Moulay Abdallah Casablanca Morocco

Ben Gurion, David, Israeli politician b 16 Oct 1886 ed privately and Istanbul Univ

Settled in Palestine 06 evoked by Turks as Zionist 15 went to US where one of organizers of Jewish Legion in which he himself served under Gen Allenby mem Gen Council Z onist Org 20 one of organizers of Jewish Labour Party (Mapai) and Gen Federation of Jewish Labour (Histadruth) and Sec Gen of Federation 21 35 Chair Jewish Agency for Palestine 35 48 proclaimed independence of Israel May 14th 1948 founder mem of Parl 48-70 Head of Provisional Govt. and Minister of Defence from then to March 49 Prime Min ster and Minister of Defence 49-53 leader of Mapai (Labour) Party 48-65 expelled 65 formed Israel Labour List 65 Minister of Defence 55-63 Prime Minister 55 63 Hon D Phil (Hebrew Univ of Jerusalem) 57 Hon LL D (Brandeis Rangoon Univ) Balik Literary Prize for Judaica 52 Hadassah Hennetta Sroid Award 58

*Publs Self-Government of Villayets 14 Eretz Israel 18 We and our Neighbours 20 The Labour Movement and Revisionism 1935 From Class to Nation 33 55 Mishmarot (essays on Labour Zionism) 35 The Struggle (5 vols) 47 50 Israel at War 50 Vision and Implementation (5 vols) 51 57 Nezaeh Israel 53 Rebirth and Destiny of Israel 54 Mima amad Leam 55 En la Patria Libre 54 The Sinai Campaign 59 Israel Before and After Sinai 62 Israel Years of Challenge 63 Ben Gurion looks back 65 Dvarim Kehava yatum Talks with Arabs The Restored State of Israel (2 vols) Mishtarim LePaula Iyunim Balanach 69 Zichronoth 71 many essays and articles
Kibbutz Sdeh Boker Israel*

Ben Haim, Paul, Israeli composer b 5 July 1897 ed. State Acad of Music and Univ of Munich

Composer pianist and conductor in various cities in Germany 20-33 moved to Palestine 33 and settled in Tel Aviv teaching composition and piano guest conductor Jerusalem Radio Orchestra and Israel Philharmonic Orchestra, Dir New Jerusalem Acad of Music 49-54 Hon Pres Israeli Composers Asscn awarded Engel Prize of Tel Aviv Municipality for 1st Symphony 45 and for 2nd Symphony 53 awarded Israel State Prize 57 for symphonic work *The Sweet Psalmist of Israel* Cross of Merit (1st Class) of the German Fed Repub 68

Works include two symphonies *Evocation* for violin and orchestra *Pastorale* for clarinet and strings Concerto for piano and orchestra Concerto for strings *Liturgical Cantata The Sweet Psalmist of Israel* Chamber music songs etc

Aharonovitz Street 11 Tel Aviv Israel

Ben Halim Mustafa, Libyan engineer and politician b 1921 ed The Egyptian Univ Alexandria

Began career with Egyptian engineering firm Minister of Works and Communications in first Cyrenaican Govt 50 Minister Province of Cyrenaica 52 54 Federal Minister of

Communications 54 Prime Minister 54 57 simultaneously Minister of Foreign Affairs April 55 Nov 56 Special Adviser to the King 57 58 Ambassador to France 58-60 Chair Libyan Engineering and Construction Co Ltd and other companies
c/o Libyan Engineering and Construction Co Ltd P O Box 1060 Tripoli Libya

Benhima Ahmed Taibi (brother of Mohamed Benhima, g v) Moroccan diplomatist and politician b 13 Nov 1927 ed Univs of Nancy and Paris

Chargé d'Affaires Paris 56-57 Ambassador to Italy 57 59 Sec Gen of Ministry of Foreign Affairs 59 61 Perm Rep to UN 61-64 Minister of Foreign Affairs 64 66, Dir Cabinet of the King 66-67 Perm Rep to UN 67 Permanent Mission of Morocco to the UN 757 Third Ave., 23rd Floor New York, N Y 10017 USA

Benhima, Mohamed m D (brother of Ahmed Benhima g v) Moroccan physician and politician b 25 June 1924 ed Faculté de Médecine de Nancy France

Chief Medical Officer Had Coat District 54 56 Chief of Central Service for Urban and Rural Hygiene 56-57 Head of Personal Office of Minister of Public Health 57-60 Sec Gen Ministry of Public Health Jan June 60 Gov of Provinces of Agadir and Tarfaya 60 61 Minister of Public Works 61 62 63-65 67 of Commerce Industry Mines Handicrafts and Merchant Marine 62-63 Minister of Nat Educ 65 67 Prime Minister July 67 69 Minister of Agriculture and Agrarian reform 69 decorations from Govts of Belg um, Morocco Sweden Eth opia Tunisia Libéria and United Arab Republic
Km 5 500 Route des Zaers Rabat Morocco

Benjenk, Munir P, b sc (econ) Turkish public servant b 1924 ed English Lycée and Robert Coll Istanbul and London School of Econom cs

Worked with BBC Reading 49-51 served with Turkish Army in Korea 51 52 with OEEC (now OECD) Paris 53-63 mem. Perm Mission to Washington of OEEC 53 57 Dir Sardinian Village Devel Project 59-60 Asst Dir Devel Dept. OECD 62-63 with Int Bank for Reconstruction and Devel 63 Head of Econ Advisory Mission Algeria 64 Head of North Africa Div 65-67 Deputy Dir Middle East and North Africa Dept 67-68 Deputy Dir Europe Middle East and North Africa Dept 68 69 Dir 70- Ordine al Merito della Repubblica Italiana 1308 28th Street NW Washington D C 20007 and International Bank for Reconstruction and Development 1818 H Street NW Washington D C 20433 USA

Ben Khedda Ben Yousef, Algerian politician b 1920 Minister of Cultural and Social Affairs Algerian Provisional Govt 58 Jan 60 Missions Moscow and Peking 60 61 Prime Minister Algerian Provisional Govt Tunis 61-62 Algiers 62 placed under arrest July 64
c/o Ministry of Justice Algiers Algeria

Ben Lamlih, Ahmed, b A Moroccan diplomatist b 1916 ed Univ of Cairo

Participated in nat liberation movement at The Maghreb Office Cairo 41 56 Minister to United Arab Repub 56-59 Head Afro-Asian Dept at Ministry of Foreign Affairs 59 61 Amb to Iraq 61-62 to U A R 62 65 to Iran and Turkey 65 68 Head Middle East and Arab League Dept at Ministry of Foreign Affairs 68 70 Amb to Libya 71 Moroccan Embassy 16 Sharia de Gasperi Tripoli Libya

Benler, Talat, Turkish diplomatist b 1915 ed Izmir Int Coll

Ministry of Foreign Affairs 38 Berne 40-45 Ministry of Foreign Affairs 45 49 Karachi 49-50 Washington 50-53 Asst Gen Dir Dept III Ministry of Foreign Affairs 53 55 Adviser to Turkish Del to UN 55 57 Gen Dir Depts I and II Ministry of Foreign Affairs 57 60 Ambassador to

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Afghanistan 60-64, to Sweden 64-68; Ministry of Foreign Affairs 68-70.
Ankara, Turkey.

Ben Mansour, Abdelwahab; Moroccan radio official and politician; b. 1920; ed. Al Qarawiyn Univ., Fez. Political prisoner before leaving school; returned to North Africa, Algeria after Second World War and acted as liaison officer between Algerian and Moroccan Nationalists before independence; after independence, teacher then Head of Arab Services, Radiodiffusion Marocaine; Dir. of Political Affairs, Ministry of the Interior 63; mem., then Head of Royal Cabinet 64; Dir.-Gen. Radiodiffusion Télévision Marocaine 65; attends numerous int. confs.; numerous awards including named "Historiographer of the Realm" 63. Radiodiffusion Télévision Marocaine, 1 Zenkat Pierre Parent, Rabat, Morocco.

Bennani, Khalil; Libyan bank governor; b. 1920; ed. privately. Acting Mayor of Benghazi 52; Councillor of Interior and Education 52, of Public Health 53, of Education 53; Dep. Chief of Royal Cabinet 54-61; Gov. Bank of Libya 61-70; several awards. c/o Bank of Libya, P.O. Box 1103, Tripoli, Libya.

Ben-Natan, Asher; Israeli soldier and diplomatist; b. 15 Feb. 1921; ed. Geneva Univ. Secretary and Treas. Madorot-Zeraim Kibbutz 38-44; Immigration organizer, Europe 44-47; Ministry of Foreign Affairs 48-51; Gen. Man. Red Sea-Inkodesh Co. 55-56; Rep. of Ministry of Defence 56-59; Dir.-Gen. Ministry of Defence 59-65; Amb. to German Fed. Repub. 65-70, to France 70-. Embassy of Israel, avenue de Wagram 143, Paris 17c, France.

Ben Salah, Ahmed; Tunisian politician; b. 13 Jan. 1926; ed. Collège Sadiki, Tunis and Univ. of Paris. Teacher, Lycée de Sousse 48-51; Del. Tunisian Trade Union Movement at Int. Confederation of Trade Unions, Brussels 51-54; Sec.-Gen. Union Générale Tunisienne du Travail 54-56; Sec. of State for Public Health and Social Affairs 57-60, for the Plan and Finance 61-64, for the Plan and Nat. Economy 64-69, for Educ. Sept. 69-70; Asst. Sec.-Gen. Destour Socialist Party 64-70; imprisoned 70-. c/o Ministry of Justice, Tunis, Tunisia.

Ben Seddik, Mahjoub; Moroccan trade union leader; b. 1925. Secretary-General Union Marocaine du Travail 60-; Pres. All-African Trade Union Fed. 64-66, 71-; mem. Secretariat-Gen. Union Nat. des Forces Populaires; imprisoned July 67; mem. Admin. Council, Org. Internationale du Travail. Union Marocaine du Travail, 222 avenue des Forces Armées Royales, Casablanca, Morocco.

Bentov, Mordechai; Israeli journalist and politician; b. 28 March 1900; ed. Inst. of Technology, Warsaw Univ., Jerusalem Law Classes. Founder and Chief Editor *Al-Hamishmar* 43-48 and 49-55; Signatory of Declaration of Independence 48; elected mem. Knesset (Israel Parl.) 49, 51, 55, 59, 61; Minister of Labour in Provisional Govt. 48-49; Minister of Development 55-61; Minister of Housing 66-69; mem. Jewish Agency Del. to UN, Lake Success 47; Del. to Zionist Congresses, Round Table Conf., London 38, World Jewish Congress, U.S.A. 44, Geneva 53; mem. Secretariat, United Workers' Party (Mapam); Chair. Economic Affairs Cttee. of the Knesset 51; mem. World Exec. Hashomer Hatzair; Exec. Histadrut and Zionist Action Cttee. Pubs. *The Case for a Bi-National Palestine* 46, *Israel Economy at the Crossroads* 65. Ministry of Housing, Jerusalem; and Mishmar Haemek, Israel.

Bentsur, Shmuel; Israeli diplomatist; b. 1906; ed. Univ. of Commerce. First Sec. and Consul, Budapest 48-50; Chargé d'Affaires 51-52; Dir. E. European Div., Ministry of Foreign Affairs 52-56; Minister to Austria 56-58; Dep. Dir.-Gen. Ministry of Foreign Affairs 58-62; Amb. to Switzerland 62-68; now Insp.-Gen. Foreign Service and Amb. at Large. Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Tel-Aviv, Israel.

Ben Yahya, Prince Abdul Rahman; Yemeni Royalist politician. Deputy Prime Minister until 67; Prime Minister 67-68; mem. Imamate Council 67-68; in exile 68-.

Ben Yahya, Mohammed Sodik; Algerian diplomatist; b. 1934. Closely associated with Ferhat Abbas in Tunisia and Yazd 59-62; Ambassador to U.S.S.R. 62-65; undertook several missions for President Ben Bella 63-65; Ambassador to U.K. 65; mem. Algerian Del. to UN 65-66; Minister of Information 66-70, of Higher Educ. and Research 70-. Ministry of Higher Education, Algiers, Algeria.

Berenblum, Isaac, M.D., M.Sc.; Israeli pathologist and experimental biologist; b. 26 Aug. 1903; ed. Bristol Grammar School and Leeds Univ. Riley-Smith Research Fellow, Dept. Experimental Pathology and Cancer Research, Leeds Univ. Medical School 29-36; Beit Memorial Research Fellow, Dunn School of Pathology, Oxford Univ. 36-40; Departmental and Univ. Demonstrator in Pathology, Oxford Univ. 40-48; in charge of Oxford Univ. Research Centre of British Empire Cancer Campaign 40-48; Special Research Fellow, Nat. Cancer Inst., Bethesda, Md., U.S.A. 48-50; Head of Dept. of Experimental Biology, The Weizmann Inst. of Science, Rehovoth, Israel 50-; Visiting Prof. of Oncology, Hebrew Univ., Jerusalem 50-56; mem. Israel Research Council 52-57; Jack Cotton Prof. of Cancer Research, The Weizmann Inst. of Science, Rehovoth, Israel 62-; mem. Israel Acad. of Sciences and Humanities. Pubs. *Science versus Cancer* 46, *Man Against Cancer* 52, *Cancer Research Today* 67. Weizmann Institute of Science, Rehovoth; and 33 Ruppiner Street, Rehovoth, Israel.

Berger, Morroo, Ph.D.; American educator and writer; b. 25 June 1917; ed. Columbia Univ., New York. Assistant Prof., Princeton Univ. 52-58, Assoc. Prof. 58-61, Prof. of Sociology 62-; Dir. Program in Near Eastern Studies, Princeton Univ. 62-68; mem., Chair. Joint Cttee. of Near and Middle East, of American Council of Learned Soci. and Social Science Research Council 62-69; Consultant to U.S. Office of Educ. 65-68; mem. Governing Boards, American Research Center, Egypt, American Research Inst., Turkey 64-; Pres. Middle East Studies Asscn. 67; Chair. Council on Int. and Regional Studies, Princeton Univ. 68-. Pubs. *Equality by Statute* 52, 67, *Bureaucracy and Society in Modern Egypt* 57, *The Arab World To-day* 62, *Madame de Staël on Politics, Literature and National Character* 64, *Islam in Egypt Today* 70; Editor *New Metropolis in the Arab World* 63; numerous articles in learned journals and contributions to encyclopaedias. 422 1879 Hall, Princeton University, Princeton, New Jersey 08540, U.S.A.

Bergman, Shmuel Hugo, Ph.D.; Israeli philosopher; b. 25 Dec. 1883; ed. Prague and Berlin Univs. Philosopher and critic; Dir. Jewish Nat. and Univ. Library in Jerusalem until 35; Prof. of Philosophy Hebrew Univ., Rector 35-38, Dean Faculty of Humanities 52-53; mem. Board of Govs., Hebrew Univ.; mem. Inst. Int. de Philosophie, Israel Acad. of Sciences and Humanities. Pubs. *Untersuchungen zum Problem der Evidenz der inneren Wahrnehmung* 08, *Das philosophische Werk*

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Bolsans 10, Das Unendliche und die Zahl 13, Javne und Jerusalem 19, The Philosophy of Kant 27, Der Kampf um das Kausalgesetz in der jüngsten Physik 29, The Philosophy of Maimon 32, Present-day Thinkers 35, Theory of Knowledge 41, Pensadores Judios Contemporaneos 44, Science and Belief 45, Judaisa Religions filosofer 1 var generation 50, Introduction to Logic 53 God and Man in Modern Thought 56, Believing Thinkers 59 Faith and Reason 61, Schelling on the Sources of Eternal Truths 64, Men and Ways, Philosophical Essays (Hebrew) 67, The Philosophy of Solomon Naimon 67, Heaton and Earle 68, English Trans The Quality of Faith 70 History of Modern Philosophy I (Hebrew) 70
51 Ramban Road, Jerusalem, Israel.

Bergmann, Ernst David, PhD, Israeli chemist and university professor, b 18 Oct. 1903, ed. Berlin Univ. Lecturer Berlin Univ 28-33, Immigrated to Palestine 33, Scientific Dir. Daniel Sieff Research Inst. (now Weizmann Inst. of Science), Rehovoth 33-51, Prof. of Organic Chemistry, The Hebrew Univ. Jerusalem 53, Dir. Scientific Dept. Ministry of Defence 48-66, Chair, Israel Atomic Energy Comm. 52-66, Chair, Science Section, Israel Acad. of Sciences and Humanities Hon. Sec. D. (Haifa Inst. of Technology), Hon. Ph.D. (Univ. of Montpellier), Rothschild Prize 62, Israel Defence Prize 66, Israel Prize 68
Pubs. *Organic Chemistry* (with W. Schlenk), *Isomerism and Isomerisation*, *Acetylene Chemistry* and many articles in scientific journals
8 Keren Kayemeth Street, Jerusalem, Israel

Berinson, Zvi, SC. DIR., B.A.; Israeli judge, b 1907, ed. Scots Coll. (Safad, Israel), Jesus Coll. Cambridge, and Gray's Inn, London
Lecturer, Scots Coll. 29-31, Legal Adviser and Dir. Municipal Dept. Gen. Fed. of Jewish Labour, Palestine 36-49, Dir.-Gen. Ministry of Labour, Israel Govt 49-53, Justice, Supreme Court 54, Lecturer on Labour Law and Social Insurance, Hebrew Univ. 53; Chair, Israel Soc. of Criminology, League of Societies for the Rehabilitation of Offenders in Israel, Council of Israel Opera; Hon. Pres. Public Council for the Prevention of Noise and Air Pollution in Israel, Vice Pres. Int. Prisoners' Aid Assn.; Head of Israeli Del. to Int. Labour Conf. 49-53, 58, 59
The Supreme Court of Israel, Jerusalem, Israel

Berk, Mehdi; Turkish politician
Fmr. Dir.-Gen. Emlek Kredi Bankası Minister of Reconstruction and Town Planning 57-59, Deputy Prime Minister 59-60, arrested May 60, sentenced to life imprisonment, released 65, Dir. Gen. Nurmatal Akbank 66, Pres. Union of Chambers of Commerce Chambers of Industry and Commodity Exchanges of Turkey 70
Etiler, Camlik Sokak 6 Istanbul, Turkey

Berk, Mükerrrem; Turkish musician, b 1917, ed. Istanbul Conservatoire
Joined Presidential Symphony Orchestra 37, Principal Flute and Woodwind leader 41, Admin. Dir. 60-68, Gen. Dir. State Opera and Ballet 69; many tours in U.S.A., United Kingdom, W. Europe, Scandinavia, Middle East, India, Pakistan and U.S.S.R.
Cumhuriyetkapi Senfoni Orkestrasi, Talatpaşa Bulvarı 38/A, Ankara, Turkey

Berk, Nurullah; Turkish artist, b 1906, ed. Acad. of Fine Arts, Istanbul, Paris Acad. and Léger and Lhote studios, Paris
Teacher in Acad. of Fine Arts Istanbul, exhibited UNESCO Int. Art Exhbn., Paris 47, Exhbn. of Turkish Art, Musée Carnetschi, Paris 47, Exhbn. of Turkish Art, Amsterdam 48, Turin Art Club Exhbn. 50.

Pubs. Turkish Sculpture, Leonardo da Vinci, Art in Modern Turkey, La Peinture Turque, Bellinis
Kuyuluubustan Sokak 19/3 Nisantag, Istanbul, Turkey.

Berque, Jacques, D. ès L., French oriental sociologist, b 4 June 1910, ed. Univ. of Algiers and Univ. de Paris à la Sorbonne
Early career as Admin. Officer in Morocco, UNESCO specialist in Egypt 53-55, Dir. of Studies École des hautes études Sorbonne 55, Prof. of Social History of Contemporary Islam, Coll. de France 56, Commr. du Oussam Alaouti (Morocco), Chevalier Légion d'Honneur and Palmes académiques (France), Commr. du Mérite Syrien
Pubs. *Structures sociales du Haut Atlas 55, Les Arabes 57, Les Arabes d'her à demain 60, Le Maghreb entre deux guerres 62, Dépossession du monde 64, L'Égypte, impérialisme et révolution 67, L'Orient Second 70*
Collège de France, Paris 5e, France

Bertini, Gary; Israeli conductor, b 1 May 1927, Besarabia; ed. Israel, Conservatorio Verdi, Milan, Conservatoire Nat. Paris and studies under Arthur Honegger. Founder and Dir. RINAT Chamber Choir 55, Founder Jeunesses Musicales d'Israel, teacher of conducting at Rubin Acad. of Music, Artistic Dir. and Conductor Israel Chamber Ensemble, has conducted many orchestras in Israel and abroad and has premiered much contemporary Israeli music, composer of symphonic and chamber music, ballets, incidental music to more than 40 plays, and music for films and radio
Office: The Israel Chamber Ensemble, 103 Ibn Gvirol Street, Tel Aviv, Home 5 Basel Street, Tel Aviv, Israel

Besse, Antonin Bernard; French company director, b 22 Feb 1927
Chairman Besse group of companies (import, export, finance maritime affairs) 51-65, Chair. Besse Int. S.A. (finance), mem. Int. Council of United World Coils; Chevalier de l'Ordre de la Couronne
P.O. Box 8203, Beirut, Lebanon

Bierbach, Dr. Martin; German diplomatist, b 1928
First Sec. in Ministry of External Affairs 54-55, Counsellor to G.D.R. Embassy in Peking 55-59, Consul-Gen. Cairo, 59-62, Dir. of Arab Affairs, Ministry of External Affairs 62, Ambassador to U.A.R. 69
Embassy of the German Democratic Republic, Cairo, U.A.R.

Bilgehan, Cihat; Turkish lawyer and politician, b 1923
Deputy for Balikesir 61, Minister of Educ. Jan.-Nov. 65, Minister of State 65-66, Minister of Finance 66-69, Deputy Chair. Justice Party
c/o Ministry of Finance, Ankara, Turkey

Binder, Leonard; American university professor, b 20 Aug. 1927, ed. Boston Latin School, Harvard Coll. and Harvard Univ.
Assistant Prof. Univ. Coll. of Los Angeles 56-61, Assoc. Prof. and Prof. Univ. of Chicago 61, Chair. Dept. of Political Science 64-67, Chair. Cttee. on Near Eastern Studies 63-65, mem. New Nations Cttee. 61, Fellow Center for Advanced Studies in the Behavioral Sciences 67-68; Field Research in Pakistan 54-55, in Iran 58-59, in Egypt 60-61, in Lebanon 64, in Tunisia 64, 65, 66
Pubs. *Religion and Politics in Pakistan 60, Iran: Political Development in a Changing Society 61, The Ideological Revolution in the Middle East 64*, Editor *Politics in the Lebanon 65*, also numerous articles in periodicals
Department of Political Science, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois 60637, U.S.A.

Birgi, Muharrem Nuri, LL.B., Turkish diplomatist, b 1908, ed. Univ. of Paris and Faculty of Law, Geneva
Joined Ministry of Foreign Affairs 32, served Warsaw 35-39, Ministry of Foreign Affairs 39-41, Paris 41, Madrid 42, Co-Dir.-Gen. First Political Dept., Ministry of Foreign

Affairs 44; Dir.-Gen. Dept. of Int. Affairs 45, Dept. of Co-ordination 46, Dept. of Consular Affairs 46, Second Political Dept. 50; Adjutant to Sec.-Gen. Ministry of Foreign Affairs 51; Under-Sec. Ministry of Foreign Affairs 52-54, Sec.-Gen. 54-57; Ambassador to Great Britain 57-60; Perm. Del. NATO 60-; head of Turkish del. to London Conference on Suez 56. Permanent Turkish Delegation to NATO, North Atlantic Treaty Organization, NATO Headquarters, Brussels 39, Belgium.

Bishti, Ahmed; Libyan politician; ed. Italian School, Tripoli and Cairo Univ. Doctor in Tripoli 55-61; Joined Ministry of Health 61; Dir. of Govt. Hospitals, Tripoli 62-63; Minister of Health 63-64; Ambassador to the Lebanon 64-65; Minister of Foreign Affairs 65-68; Amb. to Turkey 68-69. Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Tripoli, Libya.

Bitar, Salah Eddine El-; Syrian politician; b. 1912; ed. Damascus and Univ. of Paris. Secondary school teacher in Damascus 34-42; entered politics 42; co-founder, with Michel Aflak, of Arab Resurrection Party and Editor of party organ; left Syria after Shishakly coup 52; later returned and took part in merging of Renaissance and Socialist parties to form Baath Party; elected to Parliament after overthrow of Shishakly 54; Minister of Foreign Affairs 56; head of Syrian Del. to UN Gen. Assembly 57; Minister of Culture and Nat. Guidance, U.A.R. 58-59; Prime Minister of Syrian Arab Republic March-May 11, 63, May 13, 63-Nov. 63; concurrently Minister of Foreign Affairs May 63-Nov. 63; Vice-Pres.-Council of Revolutionary Comm. Nov. 63-May 64; Prime Minister and Vice-Pres. Council of Presidency May; Oct. 64; Prime Minister and Foreign Minister Jan.-Feb. 66, expelled from Baath Party Oct. 66. Pacific Hotel, Beirut, Lebanon.

Bitat, Rabah; Algerian politician; b. 1927. Member Front de Libération Nationale (F.L.N.); imprisoned 55-62; fmr. Minister of State, Algerian Provisional Govt., Tunis, later Algiers; mem. Political Bureau (in charge of Party Org.) July 62-63; Dep. Premier Sept. 62-May 63; Third Deputy Premier May 63-Sept. 63; left Algeria July 64, returned Dec. 64; Minister of State July 65-66; Minister of State in Charge of Transport 66-. Ministry of State in Charge of Transport, Algiers, Algeria.

Blegen, Carl William, B.A., Ph.D.; American archaeologist; b. 27 Jan. 1887; ed. Minnesota and Yale Univs., American School of Classical Studies, Athens. Secretary American School of Classical Studies, Athens 13-20, Asst. Dir. 20-26, Act Dir. 26-27; Prof. of Classical Archaeology Cincinnati Univ. Graduate School of Arts and Sciences 27-57, Prof. Em. 57-, Dir. Dept. of Classics 50-57; Attached to Office of Strategic Services, Washington 42-45; Cultural Attaché American Embassy, Athens 45-46; Dir. American School of Classical Studies, Athens 48-49; mem. American Philosophical Soc., American Philological Asscn., Archaeological Inst. of America, German Archaeological Inst. and other foreign acads. and insts.; corresp. Fellow British Acad.; Fellow American Acad. of Arts and Sciences; hon. degrees from Oslo, Salonika, Oxford, Cambridge, Athens, Jerusalem and Cincinnati Univs.; First Gold Medal of Archaeological Inst. of America 66. Pubs. *Korakou: A Prehistoric Settlement near Corinth* 21, *Zygouries: A Prehistoric Settlement in the Valley of Cleonae* 28, *Acrocorinth* (in collaboration) 30, *Prosymna* (with Elizabeth Blegen) 37, *Troy* (in collaboration) Vol. I 50, Vol. II 51, Vol. III 53, Vol. IV 58, *Troy and the Trojans* 63, *The Palace of Nestor at Pylos* (Vol. I) (with Marion Rawson) 66. 9 Plutarchou, Athens 139, Greece.

Blige, Suat; Turkish judge.

Professor of Int. Law Ankara Univ.; mem. European Nuclear Energy Court 60-65; Vice-Pres. NATO Appeals Comm. 66-; Judge at European Court of Human Rights 66-. European Court of Human Rights, Strasbourg, France.

Borromeo, Giovanni Lodovico; Italian diplomatist; b. 8 April 1911; ed. Univ. of Pavia. Served Nice 41-43, Locarno 45-46, Charleroi 46, Liège 46-50, London 56-58, Vatican 63-69; Amb. to Libya 69-. Italian Embassy, 1 Shara Uahran, Tripoli, Libya.

Bouabid, Abderrahim, LIC. EN DROIT; Moroccan lawyer; b. 23 March 1920; ed. schools in Salé, Rabat and Univ. de Paris. Administration Sec. Istiqlal, mem. del. on Moroccan situation, Paris 44-45, Istiqlal del. to round table at Aix les Bains 55, Moroccan del. to Celle St. Cloud; Minister of State in first Moroccan Govt. 56; Ambassador to France 56; Minister of Finance in Balafrej Govt., Minister of Nat. Econ. and Finance, Beklai Govt. 57; took part in left-wing split of Istiqlal, leader of Union Nationale des Forces Populaires (U.N.F.P.) 59-; elected mem. Gen. Secr. U.N.F.P. by II Congress 62; Deputy for Kénitra 63; lawyer for U.N.F.P. in trial for plot against King Hassan II Nov. 63-April 64; Head U.N.F.P. del. to Govt. consultations 65. Plateau de Bettana, Salé, Morocco.

Boudali, Nouri; Tunisian trade unionist; b. 20 March 1919. Entered trade unionism 36; helped found Union Générale Tunisienne du Travail (with Ferhat Hached), Sec.-Gen. 52-54, 65-66; Middle East Rep. to ICFTU 54-56; mem. Nat. Assembly; mem. Central Cttee. Destour Socialist Party. Union Général des Travailleurs Tunisiens, place M'hamed Ali, Tunis, Tunisia.

Boudiaf, Mohammed; Algerian politician; b. 1929. Founder mem., Front de Libération Nationale (F.L.N.); imprisoned 56-62; fmr. Minister of State, Algerian Provisional Govt., Tunis, Deputy Premier 61-62; mem. Political Bureau (Guidance and External Affairs); imprisoned June-Nov. 63; Pres. Nat. Cttee. for Defence of the Revolution 64-; sentenced to death *in absentia* 65. Comité National pour la Défense de la Révolution Algérienne, Paris, France.

Boulares, Habib; Tunisian journalist and politician; b. 1932. Editor-in-Chief of *As Sabah* 55-60; Dir. Tunis Radio and Television 60-61; Dir. of Information, Agence Tunis-Afrique Presse 61-64; Chief of Press of Destour Socialist Party 64-65; studied in Paris 65-70; Minister of Information 70-. Publ. *Murad III* (drama). Ministry of Information, Tunis, Tunisia.

Boumazza, Bechir; Algerian politician. Leader of the Front de Libération Nationale (F.L.N.); fmr. Minister of Labour; Minister of Nat. Economy Sept. 63-Dec. 64; Minister of Industry and Energy Dec. 64-July 65; Minister of Industrial Production 65-66; mem. of Council of Revolution 65-66; Minister of Information 66; joined opposition OCRA 66. Algiers, Algeria.

Boumedienne, Colonel Houari (real name: **Mohammed Boukharouba**); Algerian army officer and politician; b. 1927; ed. Islamic Inst., Constantine, Al Azhar, Cairo, and Military Schools. Former Teacher, Guelma; Commr. Armée de Libération Nationale, Tunis 60-62, Algiers 62-; Minister of Nat. Defence 62-; First Vice-Premier 63-65; Head of Revolutionary Council June 65-; Prime Minister July 65-. Revolutionary Council, Algiers, Algeria.

Boumendjel, Ahmed, Algerian politician b 1908
Former lawyer *tar mem.* Democrat *Union of the Algerian Manifesto* (UDMA). Political Adviser to Provisional Govt of the Algerian Republic Head Algerian Del Melun Conf June 60 mem. Algerian Del Evian Conf May 61 *smr mem* Algerian Nat. Revolutionary Cttee Minister of Reconstruction Works and Transport Sept 62 Dec 64 Officer in Charge UN Inst. for Training and Research (UNITAR) Geneva Dec. 65
Algiers Algeria

Bourguiba, Habib Ben Ali, Tunisian politician b 3 Aug 1902 ed Collège Sadiki Lycée Carnot Univ of Paris, Ecole Libre des Sciences Politiques.
Active in politics and journalism since 28 mem Destour Party 21 broke away, and formed Néo-Destour Party (outlawed by the French) 34 imprisoned by the French 34 36 and 38 43 escaped to Middle East 45 travelled to promote Tunisian independence 45 49 world tour 51 during Tunisian negotiations with French Govt arrested 51 placed under surveillance at Tabarka (Jan) imprisoned at Remada (March) in solitary confinement Ile de la Galite (May) until 54 released 54 under surveillance in France 54 55 during negotiations returned to Tunisia following Franco-Tunisian Agreements 55 Pres Tunisian Nat Assembly Prime Minister Pres of the Council 56-59 59 concurrently Minister of Foreign Affairs and Defence 56-59 Pres of Republic 57 Pres Destour Socialist Party Ordre du Sang Ordre de la confiance en diamants.

Publs La Deslour et la France 37 La Tunisie et la France 34
The Presidency Tunis Tunisia

Bourguiba, Habib, Jr., L.ès D Tunisian diplomatist and politician b 9 April 1927 ed Collège Sadiki Lycée Carnot de Dijon Faculté de Droit Paris and Grenoble Univs
Collaborated in nat. liberation movement, especially 57 54 lawyer in training Tunis 54 56 Counsellor Tunisian Embassy Washington 56-57 Ambassador to Italy 57 58 to France 58-61 to U.S.A. 61-63 concurrently to Canada and Mexico Sec.-Gen. to Presidency of the Repub 64 Asst. Sec.-Gen. Destour Socialist Party 64 mem. Nat. Assembly 64 Sec. of State for Foreign Affairs Nov 64-70 Minister of Justice 70

Destour Socialist Party 10 rue de Rome Tunis Tunisia.

Bourhan, Ali Aref (see Ali Aref Bourhan)

Bouri, Wahbi El, Libyan politician and diplomatist b 23 Jan 1916 ed. Univs of Naples and Siena
Deputy Chief of Royal Cabinet, later Master of Ceremonies of Royal Palace Libya 48 53 Counsellor of Embassy Cairo 53 56 Under-Sec. of Foreign Affairs 56-57 Minister of Foreign Affairs 57 59 Minister of State for Parliamentary Affairs 59-61 Minister of Justice 61-62 Minister of Petroleum Affairs 62-63 Perm Rep of Libya to UN 63-65 65 70 Minister of Foreign Affairs March 65 Oct 65
c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs Tripoli Libya

Boustany, Fouad Ephrem, DR ÈS LETTRES Lebanese scholar b 15 Aug 1906 ed Beirut-el Kamar Coll and Univ St. Joseph Beirut
Teacher in Arab Literature Islamic Insts. and History of Arab Civilization Institut des Lettres Orientales 33 Dir Ecole Normale 42 53 Prof. of Near Eastern History and Civilizations Inst des Sciences Politiques 45 53 Prof. of Arab Literature Islam c Philosophy and Arab History Acad. Libanaise des Beaux Arts 47 53 Rector Univ Libanaise 53 Sec.-Gen. Lebanese Nat. Comm. for UNESCO 48 55 Sec. Gen. Int. Comm. for Translation of Classic Works 49- Dr h c Univs of Lyon 57 Austin Texas 58 Georgetown Washington D.C. 58 decorations from Lebanon France Vatican Spain Italy Iran Tunisia Morocco and Senegal

Publs Au temps de l'Emir 26 Ar Rawas (critical studies) 27 Pourquois 30 Histoire du Liban sous les Chéhab of Emir Haidar Chéhab (with Dr A. Rustem) 33 35 Bagdad capitale des lettres obsscurées 34 Le rôle des chrétiens dans l'établissement de la dynastie Omayyade 38 Le style oral chez les Arabes préislamiques 41 Al Magami al Hadith (5 vols) 46-50 Cinq jours à travers la Syrie 50 Encyclopédie Arabica (7 vols) 56 67
Université Libanaise Beirut Lebanon

Boutaleb, Abdelhadi, Moroccan politician b 23 Dec 1923 Fez ed Al Qarawiyn Univ
Professor of Arab c History and Literature and Tutor to Prince Moulay Hassan and Prince Moulay Abdallah Founder mem. Democratic Party of Independence 44 51 campaigned through the Party for Moroccan independence and for th s purpose attended UN Session Paris 51 and Negotiating Conf at Aix-le-Bains 54 56 Minister of Labour and Social Questions in Bekkai Govt 56 Chief Editor of journal *Al Royal Am* 56-61 Amb to Syria Feb 62 Sec. of State Ministry of Information Nov 62 Ministry of Information Youth and Sports Jan. 63 Minister of Information Youth and Sports June 63 Interim Minister in Charge of Mauritania and Sahara Nov 63 Minister of Justice 64 67 of Nat. Educ. and Fine Arts 67 Minister of State 68 Minister of Foreign Affairs 69-70 decorations include Commr of the Throne of Morocco Grand Cordon of the Republic of U.A.R. and Commr du Mérite Sportif of France
Publs. Many cultural and literary works
19 Meknes Avenue Rabat Morocco

Boutaleb, Abdelhadi, L.ès L. Z.ès D Moroccan politician b 30 June 1928 ed Lycée de Fès Lycée Louis-le-Grand Paris the Sorbonne and Faculté de Droit Paris
Director-General Ministry negotiating Independence for Morocco 55 56 Lawyer at Casablanca 57 58 Dir. Civil Service Dept. 59-60 Dir. of Admin. Municipal and Local Affairs Ministry of the Interior 60-64 Dir. Royal Cabinet 64 Under Sec. of State for the Interior Aug 64 June 65 Minister of Work and Social Affairs 65 68 Minister of Public Works and Communications 68-69 of Justice 69-70 Minister of Labour Employment and Professional Training Sept 70 decorations from German Fed Repub Ghana Tunis a United Arab Repub and Liberia.

Ministry of Labour Employment and Professional Training Rabat and 8 rue Tedders Rabat Morocco

Bouteflika, Abdul Aziz, Algerian politician b 1935 ed Morocco
Former Capt. Nat. Liberation Army (A.L.N.) and Secretary Gen. Staff Minister of Sports 62 63 Minister of Foreign Affairs Sept 63 mem. F.L.N. Political Bureau 64 mem. *Revolutionary Council 65*
Ministry of Foreign Affairs Algiers Algeria.

Boutros, Fouad, Lebanese lawyer and politician b 1920 ed Coll des Frères Beirut.
Judge Civil and Mixed Commercial Court, Beirut 44 47 Judge Mil Tribunal and Court Lawyer 47 50 Govt Lawyer 51 57 Minister of Nat. Educ. and of the Plan 59-60 mem. Chamber of Deputies 60- Minister of Justice 61-64 Vice Pres of the Council Minister of Educ. and Defence 66-67 Minister of Foreign Affairs 68 69 numerous decorations and honours
Ministry of Foreign Affairs Beirut Lebanon

Bouvet, Jacques Etienne, French engineer b 15 Jan 1909 ed Ecole Polytechnique and Ecole des Ponts-et-Chaussées
Assistant Dir. Public Works Cameroon 34 40 Dir. Martinique 40 43 Chief Engineer Hydraulic Service Oran Algeria 43 46 Engineer with Seine Navigation 46 Dir. S.A.C.T.A.R.D. (Soc. Auxiliaire de Co-ordination des Travaux d'aménagement du Rhône à Donzère Mondragon)

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

47-53; Dir. E.G.T.H. (Entreprise des Grands Travaux Hydrauliques) 53-57; Prés. Dir.-Gén. S.O.P.E.G. (Soc. Pétrolière de Gérance) 57-; Prés. Dir.-Gén. S.O.T.H.R.A. (Soc. de Transport du Gaz Naturel d'Hassi-er-r'Mel à Arzew) 60-67; Dir.-Gén. 67-; Prés. Dir.-Gén. S.E.T.R.E.L. (Soc. d'études pour le transport du Gaz d'Hassi-er-r'Mel par Canalisations Transméditerranéennes) 60-64; Pres., Dir.-Gen. S.P.M.R. 69-; Chevalier Légion d'Honneur, Chevalier du Mérite Saharien.

Major engineering works include: enlargement of dry-dock at Fort de France, Martinique; improvement of the fall at Donzère-Mondragon and Montelimar power stations; 24 x 22 inch pipeline Haoud-el-Hamza-Bougie and 24 x 20 inch pipeline Hassi-er-r'Mel/Arzew.

37 avenue Pierre Ier de Serbie, Paris 8e, France.

Bouziri, Najib; Tunisian diplomatist; b. 1925; ed. Sorbonne, Paris and Ecole libre des sciences politiques (public and private law).

Joined Néo-Destour Party (now Destour Socialist Party) 41, mem. Central Cttee. 64-; practised law in France; mem. Tunisian del., autonomy negotiations 54-55; served with Home and Foreign Ministries 55-56; Chargé d'Affaires, Paris 56; Chef de Cabinet, Foreign Ministry 57-58; Ambassador to Italy 58-61, to German Federal Republic 61-64; Sec. of State for P.T.T. Feb.-Nov. 64; 2nd Vice-Pres. Nat. Assembly 64-65; Amb. to U.S.S.R. March 65-, concurrently to Poland Feb. 67-; mem. Tunisian del. to confs. on Maritime Law, Geneva 60, Diplomatic Relations, Vienna 61, Consular Relations, Vienna 63; Chair. Admin. and Budgetary Cttee. of UN Gen. Assembly 65.

Embassy of Tunisia, ul. Kachalova 28, Moscow, U.S.S.R.

Bozbeyli, Ferruh; Turkish lawyer and politician; b. 21 Jan. 1927.

Practised law until Oct. 65; Pres. of the Nat. Assembly 65-; Justice Party rep. for Istanbul.

Grand National Assembly, Ankara, Turkey.

Brahimi, Lakhdar; Algerian diplomatist; b. 1934; ed. Medersa Algiers, Institut des Sciences Politiques, Algiers, and Ecole libre des Sciences Politiques, Paris.

Student Leader 53-56; Perm. Rep. of F.L.N. and later of Provisional Govt. of Algeria in South East Asia 56-61; Gen. Secretariat Ministry of External Affairs 61-63; Amb. to U.A.R. and Sudan 63-69; Perm. Rep. to Arab League 69-71; Amb. to U.K. July 71-.

Algerian Embassy, 6 Hyde Park Gate, London, S.W.7.

Braidwood, Robert J.; American archaeologist and anthropologist; b. 29 July 1907; ed. Michigan, Berlin and Chicago Univs.

Field archaeology in Iraq, Illinois, Syria, New Mexico, Iran and Turkey; Prof. of Anthropology and Old World Prehistory, Univ. of Chicago 54-; Corresp. mem. Deutsches Archäologisches Institut, Österreichische Akademie der Wissenschaft, American Acad. of Arts and Sciences, Nat. Acad. of Sciences, American Philosophical Soc.

Publs. *Excavations in the Plain of Antioch I* (with Linda Braidwood) 59, *Prehistoric investigations in Iraqi Kurdistan* (with Bruce Howe, et. al.) 61.

Oriental Institute, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill. 60637, U.S.A.

Brinckmann, Rudolf, DR. IUR.; German banker; b. 8 Feb. 1889, Smyrna, Turkey; ed. Oriental Seminar, Berlin, Munich, Bonn and Greifswald Univ.

Entered Deutsche Bank, Istanbul 15, M. M. Warburg and Co., Hamburg 20-, partner 38, name changed to Brinckmann, Wirtz and Co. 41; Chair. German Orient Foundation; Pres. German-Iranian Chamber of Commerce; Dir. many business firms and int. orgs.; Grosses Bundesverdienstkreuz; Order of Homayoun; Chevalier de la Légion d'Honneur.

Börnsenerstrasse 1, Aumühle, Hamburg, German Federal Republic.

Brown, L. Dean; American diplomatist; b. 1920, U.S.A.; ed. Wesleyan Univ. and Imperial Defence Coll., London. Served in U.S. Army 42-46; joined U.S. Foreign Service 46; postings to Congo, Canada, France, U.K., Morocco, Senegal; Amb. to Senegal and The Gambia 67-70; Amb. to Jordan 70-.

American Embassy, Amman, Jordan.

Bukhari, Dr. Ahmed, M.B., B.CH., D.P.H.; Sudanese physician; b. 1 Jan. 1910; ed. Gordon Memorial Coll., Kitchener School of Medicine and London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine.

General Duty Doctor 33-54, including service in the South combating sleeping sickness; Medical Officer of Health, Khartoum Province 54-57; mem. Parl. 57-58, 64-; Minister of Health June 65-May 67; Umma Party.

Publ. *Filariasis in Southern Sudan* 39.

P.O.B. 303, Khartoum, Sudan.

Bull, Lieut.-Gen. Odd; Norwegian air force officer and United Nations official; b. 28 June 1907; ed. Vestheim School, Oslo Univ. and Norwegian Army Acad.

Norwegian Army 28-31, Air Force 31-40, in Norway, U.K. and Canada 40-45, Norwegian Air Force 45-48; Deputy Chief of Air Staff, Royal Norwegian Air Force 48-51; Deputy Chief of Staff Operations, Allied Air Forces, N. Europe 51-53; Air Commdr., N. Norway 53-56, Commdr. Tactical Air Forces 56-58, 58-60; Exec. mem. in charge of Military Observers, UN Observation Group, Lebanon 58; Chief of Air Staff, Norwegian Air Force 60-63; Chief of Staff, UN Truce Supervision Org. in Palestine 63-70; participated in security arrangements for Pope Paul during his pilgrimage to Holy Land; Grand Cross, Order of St. Olav; UN Medal in the Service of Peace (twice).

Publ. *Norway in the Last War: the Participation of the Norwegian Air Force outside Norway* (co-editor).

c/o Ministry of Defence, Oslo, Norway.

Bullard, Sir Reader William, K.C.B., K.C.M.G., C.I.E.; British diplomatist; b. 5 Dec. 1885.

Acting Vice-Consul, Beirut 09-10, Vice-Consul, Bitlis 10-11; Acting Consul, Trebizond 12, Erzerum 13, Basra 14; Civil Adviser to Principal Military Gov., Basra 14; Political Officer, Kifri 18; Deputy Revenue Sec., Mesopotamia 19; Military Gov., Baghdad 20; Middle East Dept., Colonial Office 21; British Agent and Consul, Jeddah 23-25; Consul, Athens 25-28, Addis Ababa 28; Consul-Gen., Moscow 30, Leningrad 31-34; Minister to Saudi Arabia 36-39, to Persia 39-44, Ambassador 44-46, retd. 46; Dir. Inst. of Colonial Studies, Oxford 51-56; mem. Governing Body School of Oriental and African Studies, Univ. of London 53-65; mem. Buraimi Oasis Arbitration Tribunal 54-55.

Publs. *Britain and the Middle East* 52 (revised 64), *The Camels Must Go* (autobiography) 61; Ed. of *The Middle East* 3e. 58 (Oxford University Press).

46 Plantation Road, Oxford, England.

Burg, Yosef, DR. PHIL.; Israeli politician; b. 31 Jan. 1909; ed. Univs. of Berlin and Leipzig, Pedagogical Inst., Leipzig, Rabbinical Seminary Berlin, and Hebrew Univ. of Jerusalem.

Directorate, Palestine Office, Berlin 36; Nat. Exec. Mizrahi; Zionist Gen. Council 39-51; mem. Exec. Hapoel Hamizrachi 44-; Deputy Speaker First Knesset (Israeli Parl.) 49-51; Minister of Health, Govt. of Israel 51-52; Minister of Posts and Telegraphs 52-58; Minister of Social Welfare 59-70, Minister of the Interior 70-; Hapoel Hamizrachi (Religious Workers) Party.

6 Ben Maimon Street, Jerusalem, Israel.

Burgan, Salih Khalil, M.D.; Jordanian politician; b. 1918; ed. American Univ. of Beirut.

Physician, Transjordan Frontier Forces 43-46, Dir. of Arab Physicians, T.F.F. 46-48; Private Physician, Zerka 48-63; M.P. 61-63; Minister of Health April 63-July 64.

of Social Affairs and Labour Feb. 66, Sept. 66, 67-69, of Public Health Sept. 66-Aug. 67, of Social, Labour, Home, Municipal and Rural Affairs April 67-69 mem. of Senate 63-69 Regional Dir I.L.O. Beirut 66, Al Kawkab Medal (1st Grade) Grand Knight of the Holy Tomb ILO, P.O.B. 4656, Beirut, Lebanon

Burns, Norman, M.A. American economist and educationalist, b. 14 Nov. 1905, ed. Wittenberg Univ., Ohio, Yale Univ. and Univ. of Montpellier France
Assistant Prof. of Econ. American Univ. of Beirut 29-32, U.S. Govt. Service as Foreign trade economist U.S. Tariff Comm., Dir. Foreign Service Inst. of State Dept., Dep. Dir. for Near East and South Asia Int. Cooperation Admin., Econ. Adviser, UN Relief and Work Agency, Beirut, Dir. United States Operations Missions, Amman 34-61, Pres. American Univ. of Beirut 61-65, Vice Pres. American Near East Refugee Inc. Washington 68 mem. Board of Govs. Middle East Inst., Washington Hon. LL.D. (Wittenberg Univ.), Commr. Order of Cedar of Lebanon 65
Publs. *The Tariff of Syria* 33 *Government Budgets of Middle East Countries* (Editor) 56 *Planning Economic Development in the Arab World* 59, *Education in the Middle East* 65, *Application of Technology and the Cultural Heritage* 65, *Management Factor in Economic Development* 70
3813 North 37th Street, Arlington, Va. 22207 U.S.A.

Burroughs, Ronald Arthur, C.M.C. British diplomatist b. 4 June 1917 ed. St. John's School, Leatherhead and Trinity Coll., Cambridge
Fleet Air Arm 40-45 Foreign Office 46 Second Sec., Rio de Janeiro 47-49 Consul Marseilles 49-50 First Sec. Cairo 50-53 Foreign Office 53-55 Canadian Nat. Defence Coll. 55-56, First Sec. Vienna 56-59 Counsellor, Foreign Office 59-62 Counsellor and Head of Chancery Rio de Janeiro 62-64 Counsellor Lisbon 64-67 Chargé d'Affaires S. Yemen 67-68 Asst. Under Sec. of State Foreign and Commonwealth Office 68-71 Amb. to Algeria 71 British Embassy, 7 Chemin des Glycines, Algiers Algeria.

Buxari, Abdussalam; Libyan diplomatist, b. 1898, ed. Turin Univ., Italy
Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Ankara 33-54, Minister of Foreign Affairs, Libya 54-55, Gov. Tripolitania 55, Head Royal Cabinet, Libya 55-58 Ambassador to United Kingdom 58-64 concurrently Envoy to the Hague 60-64, Ambassador to Turkey 64-65, 66-68, Minister of Industries 65 Libyan Order of Independence Grade I
Publs. Translations into Arabic of the Italian Criminal Law, many articles in Turkish, Italian and Arabic news papers
c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Tripoli, Libya

Buyir, Saleh Massaud; Libyan politician, b. 1925, Benghazi ed. schools in Benghazi and Al Azhar Univ., Cairo
Member of editorial staff *Baqurah al Jadida* 44-49, mem. House of Reps. 51, subsequently Deputy Speaker, founded *Al-Difaa* (weeklv) 52 in exile in Tunisia U.A.R. and Saudi Arabia 55-69, Minister of Foreign Affairs Sept. 69-Sept. 70 Amb. 70
Ministry of Foreign Affairs Tripoli Libya

Bydany, Abdulfrahman Al-; Yemeni politician and diplomatist, b. 1926, ed. Univs. of Cairo and Bonn
Minister to German Fed. Repub. 55-59, to Sudan 59-60, resigned and resided in Cairo 60-62, after Yemen Revolution was Vice-Pres. of Revolutionary Council, Prime Minister, Minister of Economy, Minister of Foreign Affairs, Deputy C. in C. 62-63, in Cairo 63-66, Amb. to Lebanon 66-70
Publs. *Secrets of Yemen, Economy of Yemen*
Embassy of Yemen Arab Republic, rue Verdun, Beirut, Lebanon.

Çağlayangil, İhsan Sabri; Turkish politician, b. 1908, ed. School of Law, Istanbul
Formerly with Ministry of Interior Gov. of Antalya 48-53, of Çannakale 53-54, of Siraz 54, of Bursa 54-60, Senator for Bursa 61, Minister of Labour Feb. Oct. 65, of Foreign Affairs Oct. 65, Justice Party
Kennedy Caddesi 34/10 Ankara, Turkey

Cahen, Claude Louis Alfred, D. è S. French university professor, b. 1909, ed. Sorbonne, Ecole des Langues Orientales and Ecole Normale Supérieure Paris
Professor, Faculty of Letters, Univ. of Strasbourg 45-59, Sorbonne, Paris 59-, Lecturer, Ecole des Langues Orientales, Paris 37-54, Dir. *Journal of the Economic and Social History of the Orient*, Schlumberger Prize 45
Publs. *La Syrie du Nord au temps des Croisades* 40, *Le régime féodal de l'Italie normande* 40, *Histoire générale des Civilisations III, Le Moyen Age (chapitres sur l'Islam)*, *Pre Ottoman Turkey* 68 *Der Islam* (Fischer Weltgeschichte) 68 French edn. *L'Islam* 70 various studies in Turkish history Islamic economic and social history, and history of the Crusaders
62 avenue Carnot, Savigny s. Orge (S. et O.), France

Caid Essebsi, Beji; Tunisian politician, b. 29 Nov. 1926
Lawyer in Tunis 52-55 mem. Cabinet of Habib Bourguiba 56, Taieb Mehri 57-58, Dir. Local and Common Admin. 58-62, Dir. of Tourism 62, Dir. Nat. Guard 63-65, Sec. of State for Interior July 65-69 Minister of Defence 69-70 Grand Cordon Order of the Republic, Commr. Order of Independence
Ministry of Defence, Tunis Tunisia

Carmel, Moshe; Israeli (Polish) politician, b. 17 Jan. 1911, ed. Hebrew Univ. Jerusalem, and Sorbonne
Immigrated 24 mem. Kibbutz Na'an and a leader of Hakhibutz Hamehad, mem. Hagahai High Command, imprisoned for eighteen months for Hagahai activities under British Mandatory Admin., Area Commr. Haifa and Western Galilee 48 and later Commr. Northern Front, Minister of Transport and Communications 55-59, 65-69, a leader of Achdut Ha'avoda Poalei Zion Party
Publ. *Bein Hachomot* (Within the Walls), *Ma'arehot Tsafon* (The Campaign in the North)
Kibbutz Naan, Rehovoth, Israel

Carlton, Paul Georges; French diplomatist, b. 30 March, 1920, ed. Ecole Libre des Sciences Politiques and Ecole des Hautes Etudes Commerciales
Joined diplomatic service 43, served Délégation Générale au Levant 43-45, Paris 46, Rabat 46-47, Tanger 47-48, Kaboul 48-51, Amman 51-54, Tabriz 54, Ankara 54-55, Jeddah 55-56, Khartoum 56-58, Marrakech 58-59, Consul-General Aden 59-64, Counsellor, Washington 64-68, Amb. to Kuwait 68-
Lebanese decorations
French Embassy, Kuwait City, Kuwait.

Cayer Rt. Rev. John Aimé D.D. Canadian ecclesiastic b. 1900, ed. Quebec and Montreal Colls. and Innsbruck Univ., Austria
Ordained priest 26, missionary in Edmonton, Alberta 27-36, apptd. Rector of St. Anthony's Coll., Edmonton 30, Prof. of Theology, R.C. Seminary, Regina, Sask. 40-45, elected Commissary Provincial for the Franciscan Fathers 45, Minister Provincial for the Order in Canada 48, consecrated Bishop of Alexandria and Vicar Apostolic of Egypt, Sept. 49, and Admin. of the Apostolic Vicariate of Port Said 57
Archbishop's Residence, 10 Sidi Metwalli, Alexandria, United Arab Republic

Chaker, Abdelmajid; Tunisian politician.

Secretary of State for Agriculture 62-64, for Information 64-66; Ambassador to Algeria 66-; mem. Néo Destour, later Socialist Destour Party, Dir. until Nov. 64, mem. Bureau Politique Nov. 64-; Tunisian Embassy, Algiers, Algeria.

Challah, Anwar S., M.S., M.B.A.; Syrian industrialist; b. 1910; ed. American Univ., and Univ. of California. Former Pres. Syrian Oil Refining and Distribution Co., Damascus Chamber of Industry, Trustee Syrian Univ.; Pres. Juvenile Soc.; Trustee Savings Hospital; mem. Rotary Int.; Pres. Arab World Trade Promotion Centre. P.O. Box 1618, Beirut, Lebanon.

Chamoun, Camille, LL.D.; Lebanese lawyer; b. 3 April 1900; ed. Coll. des Frères and Law School Beirut. Qualified as lawyer 24; mem. Parl. 34-; Minister of Finance 38; Minister of Interior 43-44; Minister to Allied Governments in London 44; Head of Del. to Int. Civil Aviation Conf., Chicago 44, UNESCO Conf. and UN Preparatory Comm. 45; Del. to UN Gen. Assembly, London and N.Y. 46; Lebanese rep. Interim Comm., UN 48; Pres. Lebanese Republic 52-58; leader Liberal Nationalist Party 58-; Office of the Liberal National Party, Beirut; Home: Saadyat, Lebanon.

Chanderli, Abdelkader; Algerian diplomatist; b. 1915; ed. Univ. of Paris. Former Foreign Correspondent and Editor; Chief, Public Relations Div. UNESCO 49-55; Rep. of Algerian Front de Libération Nationale (F.L.N.) in U.S.A. 56-62; Perm. Rep. of Algeria to UN 62-64; Vice-Pres. ECOSOC 64-65; Dir.-Gen. Centre for Industrial Studies a Technology Algiers; Pres. and Gen. Man. CAMEL Petroleum Co. c/o Ministry of Industry and Energy, Algiers, Algeria.

Chatty, Habib; Tunisian diplomatist; b. 1916; ed. Sadik Coll., Tunis. Journalist 37-52, Editor *Ez-Zohra* 43-50, *Es-Sabah* 50-52; imprisoned 52, 53; Head, Press Cabinet of Pres. of Council 54-55, Head, Information Service 55; mem. Nat. Council, Néo-Destour Party 55; Dir. *Al Amal* 56; Vice-Pres. Constituent Nat. Assembly 56; Ambassador to Lebanon and Iraq 57-59, to Turkey and Iran 59-62, to Great Britain 62-64, to Morocco 64-; Grand Cordon de l'Ordre de la République Tunisienne, several foreign decorations. Embassy of the Tunisian Republic, Rabat, Morocco.

Chaudhuri, Kamal Reheem, F.R.S.A.; Pakistani administrator; b. 1 March 1921; ed. Calcutta Univ. Presidency Coll. Aligarh Muslim Univ. Imperial Agricultural Research Inst. and Edinburgh Univ. Governor Imperial Coll. of Science and Technology 57-65; Chair. British Commonwealth Scientific Offices London 58; Assessor British Cttee. for Int. Nature Conservation 58-65; Chair. Commonwealth Agricultural Bureaux 61; Alt. Gov. IAEA 63; Head UNESCO Regional Office for the Arab States 70-; del. to numerous int. scientific and agricultural confs. Pubs. include *Science and Ourselves* 60. UNESCO Regional Office for the Arab States, 8 Salamlik Street, Garden City, Cairo, United Arab Republic.

Chéhab, Gen. Fuad Abdullah; Lebanese officer and politician; b. 1902; ed. Damascus Mil. School, St. Cyr, and Ecole Supérieure de Guerre, Paris. Served as officer in French army; General 43; Commander Lebanese Army 45; Prime Minister, Minister of Interior and Defence, interim Govt. Sept. 52; Minister of Defence 56; President 58-64; Commr. Legion of Honour, Grand Cordon, Ordre National du Cèdre, and many other decorations. Zouk Mkaél, Beirut, Lebanon.

Chéhab, Emir Khaled; Lebanese diplomatist and politician; b. 1890; ed. Patriarchal Coll. Damascus. Mem. comm. for drawing up Lebanese Constitution 26; Minister of Finance 27; elected Deputy 28-55, 60-; Pres. Chamber of Deputies 35; Prime Minister 38; Minister of State 43; Minister to Jordan 47; Prime Minister and Minister of the Interior Oct. 52-April 53; Leader Dar el Futura. Rue de Damas, Beirut, Lebanon.

Chéhab, Emir Maurice; Lebanese archaeologist and historian; b. 1904; ed. Univ. St. Joseph, Beirut, Ecole du Louvre, and Ecole des Hautes Etudes Historiques, Paris. Conservator, Lebanese Nat. Museum 28, Chief of Antiquities Service 37, Dir. 44; Prof. of the History of Architecture, Lebanese Acad. of Fine Arts 42, of Lebanese History, Ecole Normale 42, of Diplomatic and Gen. History, Ecole des Sciences Politiques 45; Prof. of Oriental Archaeology, Inst. of Oriental Literature 46; Dir. Tyre and Anjar Excavations 50; Prof. of History and Archaeology, Univ. of the Lebanon; Curator of Lebanese Gen. Antiquities 53-59, Dir.-Gen. of Antiquities 59-; Direction des Antiquités, rue de Damas, Beirut, Lebanon.

Cherkaoui, Mohamed, LL.B.; Moroccan diplomatist and politician; b. 5 March 1921; ed. Univ. de Toulouse. Minister of Posts and Telegraphs 60-61; Ambassador to France June 61-Aug. 64; Minister of National Economy 64-65; Minister of Development 65-Feb. 66, of Foreign Affairs Feb. 66-67; Minister of Nat. Defence 67; Pres. Org. for Afro-Asian Co-operation 66-; Pres. Comité Permanent Consultatif du Maghreb 64-; Democratic Constitutional. c/o Ministry of National Defence, Rabat, Morocco.

Christofides, Andreas N., M.A.; Cypriot broadcasting official; b. 20 Aug. 1937; ed. Pancyprian Gymnasium, Nicosia, Athens Univ. and Columbia Univ., New York. Teacher at Pancyprian Gymnasium 58-63; Dir. of Radio Programmes of Cyprus Broadcasting Corp. 64-67; Dir.-Gen. of Cyprus Broadcasting Corp. 67-. Pubs. include: Essays: *Letters from New York* 65, *Points of View I* 66, *Points of View II* 67, *Introduction to Propaganda* 66, *Love Songs from Cyprus* 64, *An Anthology of Cypriot Poetry* (with C. Montis) 65, *An Anthology of Short Stories* (with P. Ioannides) 69; Poems: *A Strange Illustration* 69, *Analytical Propositions* 70. Cyprus Broadcasting Corporation, P.O. Box 1824, Nicosia, Cyprus.

Clerides, Glavkos John, B.A., LL.B.; Cypriot lawyer and politician; b. 1919; ed. Pancyprian Gymnasium, Nicosia, Univ. Tutorial Coll., London, King's Coll., London Univ., Gray's Inn, London. Served with R.A.F. 39-45; shot down and taken prisoner 42-45 (mentioned in despatches); practised law in Cyprus 51-60; Head of Greek Cypriot Del., Constitutional Comm. 59-60; first Minister of Justice of the Republic 59-60; mem. House of Representatives 60-, Pres. of the House 60-; Acting Pres. of Repub.; Chair. Selection Cttee. Public Accounts Cttee. Attendance of Members Cttee.; Rep. to Consultative Assembly of the Council of Europe; mem. Political Cttee. and Standing Cttee.; Gold Medal Order of the Holy Sepulchre. 56 Metochio Street Nicosia; House of Representatives Nicosia Cyprus.

Cohn, Chaim; Israeli lawyer; b. 11 March 1911; ed. Univs. of Munich, Hamburg and Frankfurt-am-Main, Germany, Hebrew Univ. of Jerusalem, and Govt. Law School, Jerusalem. Admitted to Bar of Palestine 37; Sec. Legal Council, Jewish Agency for Palestine, Jerusalem 47; State Attorney, Ministry of Justice, Hakirya 48, Dir.-Gen. 49; Attorney-Gen., Govt. of Israel 50; Minister of Justice and Acting Attorney-Gen. 52; Attorney-Gen. 52-60; Justice, Supreme Court of Israel 60-; mem. Perm. Court of Arbitration, The

WHOS WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Hague 62 UN Comm. on Human Rights 65 67 Deputy Chair Council of Higher Educ. Israel Chair Exec Council Hebrew Univ. of Jerusalem
 Publishes *The Foreign Laws of Marriage and Divorce* (English)
 37 *Glaube und Glaubensfreiheit* (German) 67 *The Trial and Death of Jesus* (Hebrew) 68 English edn 71
 Supreme Court of Israel Jerusalem and 36 Tchernobolsky Street Jerusalem Israel

Comay, Michael, BA LLB Israeli diplomatist b 17 Oct 1908 ed Cape Town Univ South Africa
 Major South African Army 40 45 Special Rep South African Zionist Fed attached to Political Dept Jewish Agency Jerusalem 46-48 mem. Israel del to UN 48-49
 Chair 60-67 has represented Israel at a number of int. confs Dir British Commonwealth Div Israel Foreign Ministry 48-51 Asst Dir Gen 51 53 Amb to Canada 53 57 Asst. Dir -Gen Ministry for Foreign Affairs 57 59 Perm Rep to UN 60-67 Political Adviser to Foreign Minister and Amb at Large 67 70 Amb to U.K. 70-71 Israel Embassy 2 Palace Green London W 8 England

Cooar, Abdulmegid, Libyan politician b 1909 ed Arabic and Italian schools in Tripoli and privately
 With Birth Registration Section Tripoli Municipal Council and later its Section Head Adviser on Arab Affairs for the Council 43 44 resigned from Govt. Service 44 mem Nat Constitutional Assembly 50 and mem its Cttee to draft the Libyan Constitution mem of Parl for Eastern Gharni 52 55 Pres of Parl Assembly 52 55 Dep Prime Minister and Minister of Communications 55 56 again elected for Eastern Gharni to the new Chamber of Deputies 55 Pres 56 mem of Council of Viceroys 56 Dep Prime Minister and Minister of Foreign Affairs 57 Prime Minister 57-60 concurrently Minister for Foreign Affairs 58-60 Independence Award (First Class)
 Asadu el Furat Street 29 Garden City Tripoli Libya

Cooper, John H., CBE PE American engineer and executive b 1899 ed Coe Coll Carnegie Inst of Technology Pittsburgh.
 Assistant Man. Dir Kuwait Oil Co 49 60 petroleum consultant in the Middle East 60-61 CAT Building Beirut Lebanon

Cossery, Albert, Egyptian writer b 1913 ed French schools in Cairo
 Went to Paris 30 served in Egyptian Merchant Marine 39-45 has lived in Paris since 45 Edited *Al Talawwer* weekly 43
 Publishes *Les hommes oubliés de Dieu* 40 *La maison de la mort certaine Les saints dans la vallée fertile Mendiants et orpailleurs La violence et la diffusion*
 Hôtel de la Louisiana rue de Seine Paris 6e France.

Creswell, Keppel Archibald Cameron, CBE, FBA, FSA British archaeologist b 13 Sept 1879 ed Westminster School

Served First World War Inspector of Monuments Occupied Enemy Territory (Syria Palestine) 19-20 lived in Cairo 20 mem. Cttee Persian Exhibition London 31 Prof of Muslim Architecture Fouad I Univ 31 51 Prof of Muslim Architecture American Univ Cairo 56- Order of Ismail (3rd Class) Syrian Order of Merit (1st Class) Hon. D.Lit. (Oxford) Hon. Lat.D. (Princeton) Hon. A.R.I.B.A.

Publishes *Brief Chronology of the Muslim Monuments of Egypt* 19 *Origin of the Cruciform Plan of Cairene Madrasas* 22 *Archaeological Researches at the Citadel of Cairo* 24 *The Works of Sultan Bibars in Egypt* 26 *Early Muslim Architecture* 2 vols folio 32 40 *The Muslim Architecture of Egypt* 2 vols folio 52 59 *A Bibliography of the Architecture Arts and Crafts of Islam* 61
 American University Cairo and 2 rue Baehler Cairo United Arab Republic

Cunbur, Fatma Muğan, DR. PHIL. Turkish librarian b 1926 ed Lycée and Univ of Ankara.
 Lecturer of Faculty of Letters Univ of Ankara 52 55 Lecturer in Library Science 60- Librarian Nat Library 55 59 Acting Dir 59 Chief of rare books and manuscripts section 60-65 Gen Dir 65 mem Turkish Librarians Asscn. Turkish Language Asscn. Asscn. for Studying Social Life of Women.

Publishes *Türk Kadın Yazarları Bibliyografyası* (Bibliography of Turkish Women Authors) 55 *Fuzulî hakkında bir bibliyografya denemesi* (A Preliminary Bibliography of the Turkish Poet Fuzulî) 56 *Fuzulî divanı* (Collected Poems of Fuzulî) 58 *Yunus Emre'nin gönlü* (The Heart of Yunus Emre) 59 *Yusuf Ağa Kutuphanesi Vakfı* (The Endowment of Yusuf Ağa Library) 63 *I Abdülhamid vakfı* ve *Hamî diye Kutuphanesi* (The Endowment of Abdülhamid I and the Hamidiye Library) 65 *Bakırların sesi Tırkkalk şairleri hayatları ve eserleri* (The Sounds of Corn ears Turkish folk poets their lives and works)
 Turkish National Library Yenışehir Ankara Turkey

D

Dafaalla, El Nazeer, D.V.S. DIP BACT A.F.R.C.V.S. Sudanese university professor b 1922 ed Khartoum and Manchester Univs

Government Veterinary Officer Khartoum Malakal and Nyala 46-50 research in England on anaerobic bacteria 50-52 Research Officer Ministry of Agriculture 52 54 Senior Research Officer 55 56 Senior Lecturer Univ of Khartoum 56 57 Dean Faculty of Veterinary Science 58-60 Deputy Vice-Chancellor 60-62 Prof of Bacteriology and Vice Chancellor 62 68 Pres Round Table Conf. for Southern Sudan mem FAO Int Panels of Experts Nat FAO Cttee and various foreign socs. mem. Admin. Board Int. Asscn. of Univs Exec Vice Pres of Asscn. of African Univs mem Exec. Cttee Sudan Veterinary Asscn 47 Chair Editorial Board Sudan Journal of Veterinary Science and Husbandry mem. Advisory Panel of Experts on the Emergency Control of Livestock Diseases Rome May 67 Hon Fellow Hannover Univ Hon D.Sc. (Charles Univ Prague)
 Publishes many papers on Veterinary Bacteriology University of Khartoum P.O. Box 321 Khartoum Sudan.

Dağdas, Bahri, Turkish industrial executive and politician b 1919 ed Martin Luther Universität Halle-Wittenberg Halle Germany
 Director of Konya Sugar Factory until 65 Deputy for Konya 65 Minister of Agriculture Nov 65-69 Justice Party
 Ministry of Agriculture Ankara Turkey

Dagher, Abdallah, SJ Lebanese ecclesiastic and university rector b 1 June 1914 ed Secondary School of Univ St. Joseph Oriental Seminary of Beirut and Univ de Paris à la Sorbonne

Entered Jesuit Noviciate 32 ordained priest 45 Prefect Arabic Studies Secondary School of Univ St. Joseph Dir Oriental Seminary (Maronite) of Beirut Rector Maronite Seminary of Ghazir Lebanon 51 57 Jesuit Provincial for the Near East 57 65 Rector Univ St. Joseph 65 Consultant of Roman Congregation for the Non-Christian Religions (Islam) Officier de la Légion d'Honneur
 Unversité Saint Joseph B.P. 293 Beirut Lebanon

Daghman, Abdulmoula Khalil, M.A. Libyan university official b 1930 ed Libyan schools and Univs of Cairo and Boston.
 Demonstrator Faculty of Arts Univ of Libya 61 63

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Dean 63-67; Under-Sec. Ministry of Educ. 63-64; Under-Sec. Ministry of Petroleum Affairs 64; Pres. Univ. of Libya June 67-; mem. Broadcasting Cttee. General Administration, University of Libya, Benghazi, Libya.

Dahlab, Saad; Algerian politician and industrialist; b. 18 April 1918.

Member Cttee. of Co-ordination and Executive for Front de Liberation National (F.L.N.) in Algeria 56-57; Foreign Minister of "Provisional Government of the Algerian Republic" (in Tunisia) 58-61, 61-62; Ambassador to Morocco 63-64; Dir.-Gen. Soc. Berliet Algérie 65-. Soc. Berliet Algérie, B.P. 15, Rouiba, Algiers, Algeria.

Dajani, Ali Taher, B.A.; Jordanian administrator; b. 1911; ed. English Coll., Jerusalem, American Univ. of Beirut.

Assistant Information Officer, Public Information Office, Jerusalem 36-43; Sec. Arab Chamber of Commerce, Jerusalem 43-47; Asst. Commr. of Commerce and Industry, Palestine Govt. 47-48; Admin. Sec. Amman Chamber of Commerce and Industry 50-55; Controller-Gen. Trans-jordan Electric Power Co., Amman 55-60; Co-manager Wafa Dajani & Sons Co. Ltd. 60-63; commentator on economic activity in Jordan to *Al-Difa'a* newspaper and Jordan corresp. of *Al-Hayat*, Beirut; mem. of Parl. July 63-Dec. 66; Minister of Communications Feb.-July 65; The Star of Jordan 1st class.

Publs. in Arabic: *Pilgrimage to Mecca* 44, *The Economy of Jordan* 55; in English. *Industry of Jordan* 65, 67.

P.O. Box 1791, Amman, Jordan.

Dalley, Christopher Mervyn, M.A.; British petroleum executive; b. 26 Dec. 1913; ed. Epsom College and Queens' Coll., Cambridge.

Royal Navy 39-45; British Petroleum Co. 46, Chief Engineer, B.P. Refinery (Llandarcy) 52; Iranian Oil Operating Companies in Iran 54, Asst. Gen. Man. Dir. 58; Iraq Petroleum Co., Abu Dhabi Petroleum Co., Qatar Petroleum Co. and other associated companies 62; Man. Dir. 63; Pres. Inst. of Petroleum 70; Chair. Iraq Petroleum Co. 70-; Order of Homayoun (Iran) 63. 6 Godfrey Street, London, S.W.3, England.

Damluji, Durayd al-; Iraqi politician; b. 1919; ed. Military Acad.

Head of Training Branch, Ministry of Defence 58-62; Dir.-Gen. Iraqi News Agency 63-70; Minister of Culture and Guidance 66-67.

c/o Ministry of Culture, Baghdad, Iraq.

Dana, Osman Mosbah El; Lebanese politician; b. 1921; ed. Faculty of Law, Beirut.

Member Chamber of Deputies 60-; Minister of Public Works 60-61; Minister of General Economy 61-64; Minister of Finance 65; Leader Mouvement de l'action nationale 65-; Solicitor-Gen. Beirut Court of Appeal 51-60; Minister of Public Works and Transport 68; Minister of Hydraulic and Electrical Resources 69; Minister of Information 70. Chamber of Deputies, Beirut, Lebanon.

Dao'ud, Sama'an; Jordanian politician; b. 2 June 1903; ed. Jerusalem.

Magistrate, Palestine 35; Advocate 44-50; Magistrate at Court of First Instance 48; mem. Cttee. for Unifying Laws, Jordan 50-51; M.P. 51-55; Minister (five times) 55-59; Dir.-Gen. Arabian Potash Co. 61-65; Minister of Communications (Railways, Ports, Aviation) 65, of Justice (many times) March 66-Oct. 67, of Public Works March 67, of Justice and Communications Dec. 68-Aug. 69; Chief, Ramallah Hospital Cttee.; Gen. Sec. and Legal Adviser Exec. Orthodox Arabic Cttee.; Al Kawkab Medal Grade 1. c/o Ministry of Justice, Amman, Jordan.

Daoud Khan, H.R.H. Sardar Mohammad; Afghan army officer and politician; ed. Habibia Coll. Kabul, Pre-cadet School Kabul, and in France.

Governor of Kandahar 32; Gov. and C.-in-C. Eastern Provinces 34; C.-in-C. Central Forces and Mil. Schools 37; suppressed revolt of 45; Prime Minister 53-63, concurrently Minister of Defence and of the Interior. Shehr-e-Nan, Kabul, Afghanistan.

Daouk, Ahmed bey; Lebanese engineer, diplomatist and politician; b. 1893; ed. Univ. of Aix-en-Provence.

Engineer with Sucreries et Raffineries d'Egypte 15-19; technical mission for King Hussein of Hedjaz 19-20; consultant 20-27; held various directorships 27-40; Prime Minister 41, 42, May-Aug. 60; Pres. Nat. Congress 43; Ambassador to France, to Spain; Rep. to Arab League; mem. Dels. to UN and UNESCO 44-58; Pres. Admin. Council of Banks and Socs. 60-; Leader of official dels. overseas 60-; Prime Minister 60; holder of several Lebanese and foreign decorations.

Rue Omar Daouk, Beirut, Lebanon.

Darraj, Abdel-Latif al-; Iraqi diplomatist and politician; b. 1913; ed. Military School.

Commissioned Lieutenant; participated in 58 revolution; Commdt. Military Coll. 58-59; Mutassarif of Kut and later Mosul; Ambassador to Libya 63-65, to Turkey 65; Minister of the Interior 65-66.

c/o Ministry of the Interior, Baghdad, Iraq.

Dashti, Ali; Iranian writer, politician and diplomatist; b. March 1895; ed. Iraq.

Former mem. *Majlis*, mem. Senate; fmr. Editor *Shafaq Sorkh* (Red Dawn); Ambassador to Egypt 50, to Lebanon 60-63; Senator 63-.

Publs. Novels, short stories, analytical works on poetry of Hafez and Sa'adi, Omar Khayyam, Rumi, Khaghani and others; *Prison Notebooks*, *Anglo-Saxon Accomplishments*, *Sajeh*, *Self-Help*.

The Senate, Teheran, Iran.

Davachi, Abbas, ING.AGRIC.; Iranian university professor; b. 1906; ed. Teheran, Paris and Montpellier Univs.

Entomologist, Ministry of Agriculture 36, Dir.-Gen. Dept. of Plant Protection 43-46; Pres. Teheran Int. Locust Cttee. 44-46; Prof. of Entomology, Faculty of Agriculture, Teheran Univ. 46-, Dean of Faculty 66-; mem. Agricultural Acad. of France 57; Chair. FAO Nat. Cttee. 58; Légion d'Honneur de France; mem. Agricultural Council.

Publs. *Entomology and Applied Phytopathology*, *Insects Harmful to Plants Cultivated in Iran*, etc.

Faculty of Agriculture, University of Teheran, Teheran, Iran.

Davis, John Herbert, B.S., M.A., PH.D.; American agriculturist and administrator; b. 9 Oct. 1904; ed. Iowa State Univ. of Sciences and Technology and Univ. of Minnesota. Principal and Agricultural Teacher, Douds-Leando, Iowa, Agricultural School 28-30, Supt. 30-35; Agricultural Economist, Dept. of Agriculture, Washington 36-38; Supt. of Schools, Story City (Iowa) 38-40; research, Minnesota Univ. 40-41; Agricultural Economist, Farm Credit Admin., Washington 41-42; Chief of Wheat Section, Commodity Credit Corp., Washington 42-44; Exec. Vice-Pres. Nat. Council of Farmer Co-ops. 44-52; Gen. Man. Nat. Wool Marketing Corp., Boston 52-53; Chair. U.S. del. FAO Conf., Rome, Int. Cotton Conf., Washington 53; Asst. Sec. of Agriculture, Pres. Commodity Credit Corp., Fed. Crop Insurance Corp. 53-54; Chair. U.S. del. Int. Cotton Conf., São Paulo 54; Dir. of Program (Agriculture and Business), Harvard Graduate School of Business Admin. 54-59; Dir. U.S. Dept. of Agriculture Econ. Survey Mission to Brazil 57; mem. Food and Nutrition Board, Nat. Res. Council, American Acad. Sciences 56-59; Consultant to Under-Sec. of State for Econ. Affairs Jan.-July 58; Commr.-Gen. UN Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees (UNRWA) 59-63; Adviser to Sec. of State on Middle East Affairs 66-; Vice-Chair. Board of Trustees and Dir. New York Office of American Univ. of Beirut 64-67; Consultant

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Food and Agric. Org Rome 67 Dir Americans for Middle East Understanding Pres American Near Refugee Aid Inc.
 Publs *Economic Analysis of the Tax Status of Farmer Co-operatives* 50 co-author *A Concept of Agribusiness and Farmer in a Business Suit* 57 *The Elusive Peace* 68
 2500 Massachusetts Avenue N.W. Washington DC 20008 U.S.A.

Dawalibi, Marout, Syrian professor and lawyer b 1907 ed. Aleppo Damascus and Univ of Paris
 Lawyer Court of Appeal Aleppo 35 39 Prof Law Faculty Damascus 47 Minister of Nat Economy 49-50 Pres Chamber of Deputies 51 Prime Minister and Minister of Defence 51 Minister of Nat. Defence 54 Prime Minister 61-62 mem. Exec. Council Motamav al Alama al Islami (World Muslim Congress) 65 living in Saudi Arabia 66
 Publs *La jurisprudence dans la Droit Islamique* 41 *Introduction à la Droit Romain* 47 *Introduction à la science des sources du Droit Musulman* 49 *Précis du Droit Romain* 2 vols. 61 *Histoire Générale du Droit* 61
 c/o Chareh Saleh El Ali 98 Damascus Syrian Arab Republic.

Daw, Abdul Haki, Afghan writer and politician b 1894 ed. Habibia.
 Editor *Serajul Akhbar Afghanistan* 13 *Aman Afghanistan* 19
 Amb to United Kingdom 21 Minister of Commerce 29
 Amb. to U.A.R. 32 Minister to Indonesia 54 mem. Advisory Comm. for Drafting Constitution Pres House of Elders (*Majlis-e Ayan*) 64 Hon. mem. Afghan Acad
 Majlis-e Ayan Kabul and Mandawi Kohn Kabol Afghanistan.

Dayan, Gen Moshe, I.L.A. Israeli soldier and politician b 20 May 1915 Degania ed agricultural high school Nahalal, and Staff Coll. Camberley
 Trained in Haganah (Jewish militia) 29 second in command to Capt. Orde Wingate 37 imprisoned by British when Haganah declared illegal 39 released for training as intelligence scout in Syria 41 Colonel after 45 took leading part in war with Arabs 48 49 promoted to Gen and Commander Southern Region Command 50 Commander Northern Region Command 51 Chief of Staff 53 58 Minister of Agriculture 59-64 Minister of Defence 69
 1st mem. Mapai Party joined Rafi Party (Labour List) 65 elected to the Knesset 59 65 69 (Maarach List)
 Publs *Diary of the Sinai Campaign* 66 *Mapa Hadasha* *Yehassim Aherim* 69
 Ministry of Defence Jerusalem and Yoav Street 11 Zehala, Tel Aviv Israel.

de Candole, Eric Armar Vully, C.M.G. C.B.E. M.A. F.R.G.S. British administrator petroleum consultant and educationist b 14 Sept. 1901 ed Oxford and Grenoble Univs.

Sudan Govt. Education Dept. 23 28 Political Service 29-46 Chief Sec. Cyrenaica 46-48 Chief Administrator Somalia 48 Chief Administrator Cyrenaica 48 49 H.B.M. Resident Cyrenaica 49 52 Govt. Relations Adviser Kuwait Oil Co Ltd 52 66 Vice Pres Royal Central Asian Soc Middle East consultant mem. Council of Anglo-Arab Assn
 Shootwood Bisterne Close Burley Ringwood Hants England

Deeb, Mohamed Fathi Ibrahim El, United Arab Republic army officer and diplomatist b 1922 ed Cairo Military Acad and Cairo Staff Coll.
 Artillery Officer until 52 Political Dept. Presidency of the Republic 52-61 Ambassador to Switzerland 61-64 Minister of State 64-65 Sec. Gen. Joint U.A.R. Iraq Presidency Council 64-65
 The Presidency Council Cairo U.A.R.

Delleci, Noureddine, Algerian politician.
 Former Dir of Foreign Commerce in Ministry of Nat.

Economy Minister of Commerce Dec 64 69 Amb to Morocco 69-70
 c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs Algiers Algeria.

Demirel, Süleyman, Turkish hydraulic engineer and politician b 1924 ed Istanbul Teknik Univ
 Qualified engineer worked in U.S.A. 49 51 54 55 with Dir Gen Electrical Studies Ankara 50-52 in charge of building various hydro-electric schemes 52 54 Head of Dept. of Dams Dir Gen of Water Control 54 55 first Eisenhower Fellow for Study in U.S.A. 55 Dir State Hydraulics Admin 55 60 private practice including Consultant to Morrison Knudsen, and lecturer Middle East Technical Univ 61 65 Pres Justice Party 64 Deputy Prime Minister Feb Nov 65 Prime Minister Nov 65 March 71
 Adalet Partisi Genel Müdürlüğü Ankara Turkey

Denktas, Raul, Cypriot lawyer b 1924 ed. English School Nicosia and Lincoln's Inn London
 Legal practice Nicosia 47 49 Crown Counsel and Acting Solicitor Gen. Attorney Gen. s Office 49 58 Chair Fed. of Turkish Assocs 58-60 Pres Turkish Communal Chamber 60-
 6 Ankara Street Nicosia Cyprus

Dereli, Cevat, Turkish artist b 1900 ed Ecole des Beaux Arts Paris
 Lived in Paris 24 28 Prof of Painting Istanbul Acad. of Fine Arts rep at numerous exhibitions including the Venice Biennale 56 and the Brussels Int. Exhibition 58
 Academy of Fine Arts Istanbul Turkey

Deriner, Ibrahim, Turkish civil engineer b 1909 ed Istanbul Technical Univ
 Formerly in Electrical Power Resources Survey and Planning Admin., Dir.-Gen. 52 Under Sec of Power 65 Minister of Power and Natural Resources Nov 65-67 Sec.-Gen. Turkish Atomic Energy Comm 67
 Turkish Atomic Energy Commission Ziya Gökalp Cad 12/4 Ankara Turkey

De Shalit, Mel, Israeli civil servant b 1921 ed. Pardess School of Agriculture Israel.
 Infantry officer Jewish Brigade British Army Second World War Israel Defence Forces 46-49 First Sec. Israel Embassy Washington 49-54 Deputy Dir.-Gen. Prime Minister's Office 54 59 Dir Israel Govt. Tourist Corp 59
 Rehov Hanassi Herzliya-on Sea Israel

Desroches Noblecourt, Christiane, French museum curator b 17 Nov 1913 ed Lycée Molière and Faculté des Lettres Univ of Paris
 Conservator then Chief Conservator of Nat. Museums Conservator of Egyptian Antiquities Louvre Museum teacher Ecole du Louvre Counsellor to UNESCO at Centre de documentation et d'Etudes sur l'Egypte ancienne Cairo Chevalier Légion d'Honneur Médaille de la Résistance
 Publ *Toulon Kharon* 66
 3 rue de la Pompe Paris 16e and Château de Mondemont par Cézanne Marne France

Dhali, Sali Ahmed, Yemeni politician b 1931 ed in England
 Studied as a surveyor working in Aden Public Works Dept. joined Nat Liberation Front (N.L.F.) 63 and worked with Qahtan as-Shaabi in Yemen and U.A.R. Head of Political Bureau N.L.F. Minister of Foreign Affairs Nov 67 68 of Finance 68 69
 Ministry of Finance as Shaab People's Democratic Republic of Yemen

Diba, H.M. Queen Farah, Empress of Iran b 1918 ed Italian School Jeanne d'Arc School and Razi School Teheran and Ecole Spéciale d'Architecture Paris

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Married H.I.M. the Shah 21 December, 59; son Reza b. 31 Oct. 60, daughter Farahnaz 12 March 63, son Ali Reza b. 28 April 66; Patron Farah Pahlavi Association (administration of orphanages in Iran), Iran Cultural Foundation, etc.

The Imperial Palace, Teheran, Iran.

Diba, Fereidun, DR. RER. POL.; Iranian diplomatist; b. 1920; ed. Univs. of Teheran and Rome.

Ministry of Foreign Affairs, successively Library Dept., Dept. of Ministerial Work, First Political Dept., Iranian Consul Shanghai; Second Sec. Nanking; First Sec. Rome; Deputy Dir. Political Dept. Dir. Passport Dept. and Head Nationality Dept. Ministry of Foreign Affairs; Dir. First Political Dept.; Amb. to Syria 64-65, to Belgium 65-67; Dir.-Gen. (for Asian and African Affairs), Foreign Ministry, Teheran 67-70; Amb. to Poland 70-. Embassy of Iran, Warsaw, Poland.

Dieng, Diakha; Senegalese international official; b. 16 Aug. 1933; ed. Lycée Faidherbe, St. Louis, Université de Paris à la Sorbonne, and Ecole des Impôts, Paris.

Registry Officer, France 60, Dakar 61; Sec., later First Sec., Embassy of Senegal, Brussels 62-63; First Sec. Embassy of Senegal, Paris 63-64; Sec.-Gen. Union Africaine et Malgache de Coopération Economique (U.A.M.C.E.), Yaoundé 64-65, Organisation Commune Africaine et Malgache (O.C.A.M.), Yaoundé 64-68; Amb. to U.A.R. 69-70, concurrently accredited to Syria, Sudan, Jordan; Dir. du Cabinet, Minister Foreign Affairs 70-; Chevalier, Ordre National Sénégalais.

Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Dakar, Senegal.

Dikaïos, Porphyrios, O.B.E.; Cypriot archaeologist; b. 1904; ed. Univs. of Athens, Liverpool and Paris.

Assistant Curator, Cyprus Museum 29-31, Curator 32-59; Dir. of Antiquities 60-63; Prof. Heidelberg Univ. 66-; Officier Légion d'Honneur; Hon. D.Litt. (Oxon.), Hon. D.Phil. (Uppsala).

Publs. *The Excavations of Vounous-Bellapais* 48, *Khirokitia* 53, *A Guide to the Cyprus Museum* 47, 53, 61, *Sotira* 62, *Enkomi Excavations* 69.

Archæol. Institut, Universität Heidelberg, 4 Marstall Hof, 69 Heidelberg, German Federal Republic.

Dimechkié, Nadim, M.A.; Lebanese diplomatist; b. 5 Dec. 1919; ed. American Univ. of Beirut.

Director-General Ministry of Nat. Economy 43-44; Lebanese del. Joint Supply Board for Syria and Lebanon 42-44; Counsellor, Lebanese Embassy, London 44-49; Consul-Gen., Ottawa 50; Dir. Econ. and Social Dept., Ministry of Foreign Affairs 51-52; Chargé d'Affaires, Cairo 52, Minister 53-55; Minister to Switzerland 55-57; Amb. to U.S.A. 58-62; Dir. Econ. Affairs, Ministry of Foreign Affairs 62-66; Amb. to U.K. 66-; Lebanese Order of Cedars, Syrian Order of Merit, Tunisian Order of Merit, Greek Order of Phoenix, U.A.R. Order of Ismail, etc. Lebanese Embassy, 21 Kensington Palace Gardens, London, W.8, England.

Dimitriou, Nicos George, F.C.C.S.; Cypriot merchant, banker, industrialist and politician; b. 16 July 1920; ed. Larnaca Commercial Lyceum, Greek Gymnasium, Athens, and Maiden Erlegh Private School, Reading, England. Manager and Sec. N. J. Dimitriou Ltd., Merchant Bankers 52-62, Man. Dir. 62-; Man. Dir. Larnaca Oil Works Ltd. 63-; dir. several Cyprus companies; Dir. Bank of Cyprus Ltd. 60-62; Chair. Cyprus Chamber of Commerce 60-63; Pres. Chamber of Commerce and Industry, Larnaca 63-68, Pezoporikos Club, Larnaca 57-68; Pres. Cyprus Soc. of Inc. Secretaries 68; Consul-Gen. of Denmark 61-; mem. Council Cyprus Chamber of Commerce and Industry 63-68; Chair. Cyprus Devt. Corpn. Ltd. 66-68; Minister of Commerce and Industry 68-70; Chair. Electricity Authority of

Cyprus 70-, Advisory Board Nat. and Grindlays Bank Ltd. 70-; Commr. Order of Cedar of Lebanon. Publ. *Chambers of Commerce, their objects and aims*. Artemis Avenue 39, Larnaca, Cyprus.

Dinger, Hasan; Turkish lawyer and politician; b. 1910; ed. Law Faculty, Istanbul Univ.

Lawyer and Public Prosecutor until 46; Deputy for Afyon 46-50, 61-65, Konya 65-; mem. Republican Peasants' Nation Party 62-64; Minister of State and Deputy Prime Minister 62-63; Minister of Defence 64-65; resigned R.P.N.P., joined Justice Party 65; Minister of Justice Nov. 65-68.

Ministry of Justice, Ankara; Home: Olgunlar Sok. 2/10, Yenisehir, Ankara, Turkey.

Dinur, Ben Zion; Israeli historian; b. 2 Jan. 1884; ed. Berlin and Berne Univs.

Went to Palestine 21; Mapai del. to Zionist Congress 33; elected to Knesset 49; fmr. Principal Teachers' Seminary, Jerusalem; Lecturer, Prof. and Head Faculty of Humanities Hebrew Univ.; Chair. Literary Council Bialik Institute; Minister Education and Culture 51-55; Chair. 4th World Congress of Jewish Scholars 65; mem. Israel Acad. of Sciences and Humanities.

Publs. *Eretz Yisrael Bishnat Tarbag* 24, *Yisrael ba Gola* 26, *Hibat Zion* 34, *Ha Rambam* 35 *Bemifne Hadorot* 55, *Avakhim u-Dereakhim* 57, *Baalam she-Shaka* 58, *Zakhov* 58, etc.

Histadrut Quarter, Kiriat Moshe, Jerusalem, Israel.

Diringer, David, M.A., D.LITT.; British oriental archaeologist and epigraphist; b. 1900; ed. Univ. of Florence.

Lecturer Univ. of Florence 31, Prof. 34; during Second World War held a position with the Foreign Office London; Editor War Office paper *Il Corriere del Sabato* 44; Univ. Lecturer in Semitic Epigraphy, Cambridge Univ. 48-66, Reader 66-68; Deputy Sec.-Gen. First Int. Congress for Etruscan Studies 28; Sec. Perm. Cttee. for Etruria 31; Deputy Sec.-Gen. Italian Congress for Colonial Studies 31, 34, 37; Prize of Royal Italian Acad. for research in Oriental Archaeology; in England, lecturer on Biblical archaeology, history of writing, oriental philology, and allied subjects, Fellow and mem. various learned socs.; Founder Alphabet Museum and Seminar, Cambridge 59; Alphabet Museum; Tel-Aviv 65.

Publs. In Italian, over 100, including: *The Early Hebrew Inscriptions* 34, *The Alphabet in the History of Civilisation* 37, 69; in English, over 250, including: *The Alphabet, a Key to the History of Mankind* 48, 3rd edn. 66, revised edn. in 2 vols. 68, *The Hand-produced Book* 53, *The Illuminated Book: its History and Production* 58, revised edn. 67, *The Story of the Aleph Beth* 58, *Writing* 62 (also in Swedish, Danish, etc.), *Alphabet* (in Russian) 63.

50 St. Barnabas Road, Cambridge, England.

Dobkin, Eliahu; Israeli jurist; b. 1898; ed. Kharkov Univ.

Founder of "Hechalutz" World Pioneer Movement 20; mem. Exec. Jewish Agency, World Zionist Organization 35-; mem. Exec. Jewish Federation of Labour 32-; Chair. Board of Dirs. Keren Hayesod 52-; Head of Dept. of Youth and Hechalutz, Jewish Agency; Chair. Board of Dirs., Bezalel National Museum.

Publs. *Immigration and Rescue in Years of Disaster*, several articles.

Jewish Agency Buildings, Jerusalem, Israel.

Doğramaci, İhsan, M.D.; Turkish pediatrician and educator; b. 3 April 1915; ed. Istanbul Univ.

Associate Prof. of Pediatrics, Ankara Univ. 49-54, Prof. of Child Health and Head of Dept. 54-58; Dir. Inst. of Child Health, Ankara 58-63; Prof. of Pediatrics and Head of Dept. Hacettepe Faculty of Medicine 63-, Dean of Faculty June 63-Nov. 63; Pres. Ankara Univ. 63-65; Pres. Hacettepe Science Centre, Ankara 65-67; mem. UNICEF Exec.

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Board 60-68 Chair 68-70, Chair Board of Trustees, Middle East Technical Univ 65-67, Pres Hacettepe Univ. 67, Chair Exec Cttee Int. Pediatric Assn 68, mem. Bureau of Standing Conf of Rectors and Vice-Chancellors of the European Univs 69, Dir Int Children's Centre (Paris) 70- Hon LL.D (Nebraska Univ) Editor *The Turkish Journal of Pediatrics*, Consulting Editor *Clinical Pediatrics*
 Pubs *Annenin Kitabı* (Mother's Handbook on Child Care) 7 edns 52-71, *Premature Baby Care* 54 *Porphyria in Childhood* 64 *Care of Mother and Child* 67 various monographs and articles on child health and pediatric topics
 Hacettepe Medical Centre, Ankara, Turkey

Dorl, Major-Gen. Yaakov; Israeli army officer and educator, b 8 Oct 1899, ed. Reali High School Haifa, Univ of Ghent
 Deputy Chief Engineer, Technical Dept., Jewish Agency, Jerusalem 26-31, Officer Commanding Haganah Forces Haifa area 31-39 Chief of Staff, Haganah Forces of Palestine 39-47, Chief of Staff Israel Defence Army 48-50, Head of Science Dept., Prime Minister's Office 50-52 Pres Technion Israel Inst of Technology, Haifa 51-66, Deputy Mayor Haifa Municipality 68-69
 Hatzbibi Street 103, Haifa Israel

Dostrovsky, Israel; Israeli physical chemist, b 29 Nov 1918 ed. University Coll., London
 Settled in Palestine (now Israel) 19, research work mainly on reaction mechanisms and separation of isotopes, research worker, Univ Coll., London 40-43, Lecturer Univ Coll of N Wales 43-48 Prof of Physical Chemistry, Weizmann Inst of Science, Rehovot 48-, Dir of Research, Israel Atomic Energy Comm., now Dir Gen., Ramsay Medal 44, Weizmann Prize 52
 Israel Atomic Energy Commission P O B 7056, Tel Aviv, Israel

Driss, Rachid; Tunisian journalist and diplomatist, b. 27 Jan. 1917, ed. Sadiki Coll., Tunis
 Joined Neo-Destour Party 34, journalist exiled in Cairo, and with President Bourguiba founder mem. Bureau du Maghreb Arabe, returned to Tunisia 55 Editor *El Amal*, Deputy, Constitutional Assembly 56, Sec of State Post Office and Communications 57-58, mem. Nat Assembly 58, Amb to the USA and Mexico 64-70 Perm Rep to UN 70-, Pres Econ and Social Council 71, Grand Cordon de l'Ordre de l'Indépendance de la République Tunisienne and foreign decorations
 Permanent Mission of Tunisia to UN, 40 East 71st Street, New York, N.Y. 10021, U.S.A.

Dwyer, Sir Godfrey, CBE, MC, MA, FBA, British university professor emeritus b 20 Aug 1892, ed Winchester Coll and New Coll., Oxford
 Military and nat service 15-19, 40-44, Fellow and Classical Tutor Magdalen Coll Oxford 19-28 Librarian 23-42, Fellow by Special Election 28-62, Hon Fellow 62, Reader in Comparative Semitic Philology, Univ of Oxford 28, Prof of Semitic Philology 38-62, Grinfield Lecturer on the Septuagint 35-38, Curator of Bodleian Library 34-53, Visiting Prof Chicago Univ 23, Louvain Univ 50, Jerusalem Univ 57, Joint Editor *Journal of Theological Studies* 33-47, Joint Dir of Cttee revising English Bible 47, assoc mem. Royal Flemish Acad of Science, Letters and Arts 54, Pres Int Organisation of Old Testament Scholars, Hon DD (Aberdeen) Hon Litt D (Durham Cambridge)
 Pubs *Letters of the First Babylonian Dynasty* 25 *Grammar of the Colloquial Arabic of Syria and Palestine* 25 *Nesherim the Bazaar of Heracleides* (with Rev L Hodgson) 25, *Assyrian Laws* (with Sir John Miles) 35 *Problems of the Hebrew Verbal System* 36 *Semitic Writing* 48 *Babylonian Laws I II* (with Sir John Miles) 52-55 *Aramaic Documents*

of the 5th century B.C. 54, *Canaanite Myths and Legends* 56 *The Judasan Scrolls: The problem and a solution* 65
 41 Park Town Oxford England

Duali, Ahmad Ali Al-, B.A., Kuwaiti civil servant b 25 Dec 1937, ed. Shuwaikh Secondary School, Kuwait, Reading Technical Coll and Keele Univ., England
 Joined Ministry of Foreign Affairs 62, joined Planning Board as Sec 62, Sec-Gen 63, Dir Gen with rank of Perm Under Sec 64, Head of Govt. Scholarships Cttee., mem. Board Univ of Kuwait
 Pubs Regular articles in Kuwait, Lebanese and British Press.

The Planning Board P O Box 15, Kuwait

Duchesne-Guillemin, Jacques; Belgian orientalist, b 21 April 1910, ed. Louvain Univ and Ecole Normale Supérieure, Paris
 Lecturer, Liège Univ 38-43 Prof of Iranian Studies, Mythology, and Muslim Art 43 Visiting Prof London Univ 50-51, Columbia Univ 58-59, Chicago Univ 62, Univ of California, Los Angeles 67, Richelieu Medal of Acad Française mem. Corpus Inscriptionum Iranicarum Pubs *Les Comptes de l'Avesta* 36, *Essai sur la jeune Parthe de Paul Valéry* 47, *Etude de Châmes de Paul Valéry* 48, *Zoroastre* 48, *The Hymns of Zarathustra* 52, *Ormazd et Ahura Mazda* 53, *The Western Response to Zoroaster* 57, *Symbolism des Parvassim* 61, *La Religion de l'Iran ancien* 62, *Le Croissant fertile* 63, *Etudes pour un Paul Valéry* 64, *Symbols and Values in Zoroastrianism* 66
 54 avenue de l'Observatoire, Liège, Belgium

Duda, Herbert W., DR. PAUL., Austrian orientalist, b 1900, ed. Univs. of Prague, Vienna, Leipzig and Paris
 Lecturer Univ of Leipzig 32, Assoc Prof Univ of Breslau 36 Visiting Prof Univ of Sofia, Bulgaria 41-43 Prof of Turkology and Islamic Philology, Univ of Vienna 43, Dir Oriental Inst., Univ of Vienna 46, corresp mem. Austrian Acad., German Archaeological Inst. and of Türk Dil Kurumu, Editor (with others) *Wiener Zeitschrift für die Kunde des Morgenlandes und Österreichische Hochschulschrift*
 Pubs *Ahmed Haschim, ein türkischer Dichter der Gegenwart* 29, *Die Sprache der Qyq Vezir Erzählungen* 30, *Ferhad und Schirin, die literarische Geschichte eines persischen Sagenstoffes* 33 *Vom Kalifat zur Republik, die Türkei im 19 u. 20 Jahrhundert* 48, *Balkan-türkische Studien* 49, *Die Seilschuhengeschichte des Ibn Bibi* 59 Translations *Novellen von Jaakub Kadri* 23 *Oberd Zaham, Katze und Maus* 47 Editor *Fasi* 31, and *Die Protokollbücher des Kadimales Sofia* 60
 Klabunggasse 5-7/III, A-1190 Vienna, Austria

Duke, Sir Charles Beresford, KCMG, CBE, GBE, British former diplomatist and administrator, b 19 Dec 1905, ed. Chillon Coll., Montreux, Charterhouse School and Lincoln Coll., Oxford
 Entered Indian Civil Service 28, Asst Private Sec to Viceroy of India 34-38, Political Officer, N.W. Frontier of India 38-43, External Affairs Dept., Govt. of India, New Delhi 43-47, transferred to Diplomatic Service 47-61, served in Pakistan, Iran, Egypt and Foreign Office 47-54, Ambassador to Jordan 54-56, to Morocco 57-61, Dir Gen Middle East Assn., London 61-70
 The Athenaeum, London, S.W.1, Cadenham Grange, Cadnam Southampton, England

Dupont-Sommer, André Louis; French university professor, b 23 Dec 1900 ed. Univ of Paris
 Secretary, Collège de France 34-40, Dir of Studies School of Higher Studies 38, Prof., Univ of Paris 45-63, Pres of Inst. of Semitic Studies, Univ of Paris 52, Prof Collège de France 63-, mem. Institut de France 61- Secrétaire Perpétuel de l'Académie des Inscriptions et Belles Lettres 68-, Officier de la Légion d'Honneur Commandeur des Palmes académiques

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Publs. *La Doctrine gnostique de la lettre wāw* . . . 46, *Les Araméens* 49, *Les inscriptions araméennes de Sfiré* 48, *Aperçus préliminaires sur les manuscrits de la mer Morte* 50, *Nouveaux aperçus sur les manuscrits de la mer Morte* 53, *Les Ecrits esséniens découverts près de la mer Morte* 59, 60, 64, and others.

Palais Mazarin, 25 quai de Conti, Paris 6e, France.

Duri, Abdul Aziz al-, Ph.D.; Iraqi educationalist; b. 1917; ed. Secondary School, Baghdad, Univ. Coll. and School of Oriental Studies, Univ. of London.

Teacher, Asst. Prof. and Prof. at Higher Training Coll., Baghdad 43-48; Dir. of Translations and Publs., Ministry of Education 48-50; Acting Dean and later Dean of Univ. Coll., Baghdad 49-60; Visiting Prof. of Islamic History, Univ. of London 55-56, American Univ. of Beirut 59-60; Prof. of Islamic History, Coll. of Arts, Baghdad 60-62; Pres. Univ. of Baghdad 63-.

Publs. *Studies on the Economic Life of Mesopotamia in the 10th Century* (in Arabic), *Islamic Institutions*, Vol. I, *Abbasid History*, 2 vols., *Introduction to the History of Early Islam*. c/o University of Baghdad, Baghdad, Iraq.

Duval, H.E. Cardinal Léon-Etienne; Algerian (b. French) ecclesiastic; b. 9 Nov. 1903; ed. Petit Séminaire, Roche-sur-Foron, Grand Séminaire Annecy, Séminaire français Rome, and Pontifica Universitas Gregoriana.

Ordained priest 26; Prof. Grand Séminaire Annecy 30-42; Vicar-Gen. and Dir. of works, Diocese of Annecy 42-46; consecrated Bishop of Constantine and Hippo 46; Archbishop of Algiers 54-; created Cardinal 65; took Algerian nationality 65; Officier Légion d'Honneur.

Publs. *Paroles de Paix* 55, *Messages de Paix 1955-1962* 62, *Laïcs, prêtres, religieux dans l'Eglise selon Vatican II* 67. Archbishop's House, 13 rue Khelifa-Boukhalfa, Algiers, Algeria.

E

Eban, Abba, M.A.; Israeli politician; b. 2 Feb. 1915, South Africa; ed. Queens' Coll., Cambridge.

Apptd. Liaison Officer of Allied H.Q. with the Jewish population in Jerusalem 40; Chief Instructor at the Middle East Arab Centre in Jerusalem; entered service of Jewish Agency 46; apptd. Liaison Officer with U.N. Special Comm. on Palestine 47; apptd. by the Provisional Govt. of Israel as its rep. to the UN 48, permanent rep. with rank of Minister 49; Ambassador to U.S.A. 50-59; Minister without Portfolio 59; Minister of Education and Culture 60-63; Deputy Prime Minister June 63-66; Minister of Foreign Affairs 66-; Pres. Weizmann Inst. of Science 58-66; Hon. Dr. New York, Maryland, Boston, Chicago, Cincinnati Univs.; foreign mem. American Acad. of Arts and Sciences 60.

Publs. *Maze of Justice* 46, *Voice of Israel* 57, *Tide of Nationalism* 59, *Israel in the World* 66, *My People* 68. Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Jerusalem, Israel.

Ebtehaj, Abol Hassan; Iranian banker and administrator; b. 1899; ed. Lycée Montaigne, Paris, and Syrian Protestant Coll., Beirut.

Joined Imperial Bank of Iran 20; Govt. Inspector Agricultural Bank and Controller of State-owned companies 36; Vice-Gov. Bank Melli Iran 38; Chair. and Man. Dir. Mortgage Bank 40; Gov. and Chair. Bank Melli Iran (National Bank of Iran) 42-50; Chair. Iranian Del. Middle East Financial and Monetary Conf. Cairo 44; Chair. Iranian Del. Bretton Woods Conf. 44; Iranian Ambassador to France 50-52; Adviser to Man. Dir. Int. Monetary Fund 52-53; Dir. Middle East Dept. Int. Monetary Fund 53; Man. Dir. Plan Org. (Development Board), Teheran 54-59; Chair. and Pres. Iranians' Bank (Private Bank) 59-.

Iranians' Bank, Khiaban Takht-Jamshid, Teheran, Iran.

Ecevit, Bülent, B.A.; Turkish journalist and politician; b. 1925; ed. Robert Coll., Ankara and Harvard Univ.

Government official 44-50; Turkish Press Attaché's Office, London 46-50; Foreign News Editor, Man. Editor later Political Dir. *Ulus* (Ankara) 50-61, Political Columnist, *Ulus* 56-61; M.P. (Republican People's Party) 57-60, Oct. 61-; mem. Constituent Assembly 61; Minister of Labour 61-65; Political Columnist *Milliyet* 65; Sec.-Gen. Republican People's Party 66-.

Publs. *Ortanın Solu* (Left of Centre) 66, *Bu Düzen Değişmelidir* (The System Must Change) 68.

VI Cadde 37, Bahçelievler, Ankara, Turkey.

Eddé, Raymond, L. en D.; Lebanese lawyer and politician; b. 1913; ed. Univ. Saint Joseph, Beirut.

Member of Parl. 53-57-60-65-68-; Leader, Nat. Bloc Party 49; Minister of Interior, of Public Works, of Social Affairs, and of Posts, Telegraphs and Telephones 58-59; stood for Presidency 58; Minister of Public Works, Agriculture, Planning, Water and Power 68-.

Publs. *Loi sur les Immeubles de Luxe, Loi sur le Secré Bancaire, Loi sur le compte joint*.

Chamber of Deputies, rue Riadh El Solh, Beirut; and rue Emile Eddé, Quartier Arts et Métiers, Beirut, Lebanon.

Eghbal, Manouchehr, M.D.; Iranian physician and politician; b. 1908; ed. Iran and Univs. of Montpellier and Paris. Professor of Infectious Diseases, Medical Faculty, Univ. of Teheran 38-53; fmr. Under-Sec. of State for Public Health and acting Minister of Public Health; Minister of Public Health 46; Minister of Posts and Telegraphs 47, of Nat. Education 48; Minister of Roads and Communications, of Health and of Interior 49; Gov.-Gen. of Azerbaijan 50; Teheran Senator 53; Rector, Univ. of Tabriz 51, Univ. of Teheran 54; Minister of the Imperial Court 56-57; Prime Minister 57-60; Prof. Teheran Univ. 60-61; Perm. Iranian Rep. to UNESCO 61-; Chair. of Board and Gen. Managing Dir. Nat. Iranian Oil Co. Oct. 63-; corresp. mem. Acad. of Medicine, Paris; many Iranian decorations; Commdr. de la Légion d'Honneur (France); Order Cedar of Lebanon.

Office: National Iranian Oil Co., Ave. Takhte Jamshid, P.O. Box 1863; Home: Elahieh, Teheran, Iran.

Ehrlich, Abel; Israeli composer; b. 3 Sept. 1915, Germany; ed. in Germany, Acad. of Music, Zagreb, Yugoslavia.

Arrived in Israel 39; studied composition under Prof. S. Rosowsky at Jerusalem Acad. of Music; teacher of composition and ear-training in Israeli conservatoires and Acads. of Music 40-.

Compositions include: *A Game of Chess* 57, *Testimony* (for two flutes) 61, *Radiation* (piano) 61, *The Writing of Heskia* 63, *Damaged Moon* 64, *Be Ye not as your fathers* (choir a cappella) 65 (RINAT Choir Prize), *This House* 67, (ACUM Prize), *Quintet* 68 (Liberson Prize), *Immanuel Haromi* (commissioned by Testimonium) 70.

Office: Rubin Academy of Music, Tel-Aviv; Home: 13 Tagore Street, Ramat Aviv, Tel-Aviv, Israel.

Eilts, Hermann Frederick, B.A., M.A., LL.D., F.R.G.S., F.R.A.S.; American (b. German) diplomatist; b. 23 March 1922; ed. Ursinus Coll., Johns Hopkins Univ., Foreign Service Inst. and Univ. of Pennsylvania.

Naturalized U.S. citizen 30; on active service U.S. Army 42-46; joined Foreign Service 47, served Iran 47-48, Saudi Arabia 48-50, Aden 51-53, concurrently accredited to Yemen, Iraq 54-56; Officer-in-Charge Baghdad Pact Affairs, Dept. of State 57-59, Arabian Peninsula Affairs 59-61; Nat. War Coll. 61-62; First Sec. U.S. Embassy, London 62-64; Deputy Chief of Mission, Tripoli 64-65; Amb. to Saudi Arabia 65-69; Arthur W. Flemming Award 58.

Publ. *Ahmad bin Na'uman's Mission to the U.S. in 1840* 62. Department of State, Washington, D.C. 20520, U.S.A.

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Eisenstadt, Shmuel N., M.A., Ph.D.; Israeli professor of sociology, b 10 Sept 1923 Warsaw, Poland, ed Hebrew Univ., Jerusalem and London School of Economics
Chairman, Dept of Sociology, Hebrew Univ., Jerusalem 51-68, Prof of Sociology 59-, Dean, Faculty of Social Sciences 66-68, Visiting Prof., Univ of Oslo 58, Univ of Chicago 60, Harvard Univ 66, 68-69, Carnegie Visiting Prof., Mass Inst of Technology 62-63, Chair Council on Community Devt., Israel 62-66, Israeli Sociological Soc 69-, Visiting Prof., Univ of Michigan 70- mem Advisory Board *International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences*, Fellow, Royal Anthropological Inst., London mem Israel Acad of Sciences and Humanities Int Sociological Soc., American Sociological Assn., Foreign Hon mem Ameri can Acad of Arts and Sciences Hon Fellow, London School of Econ., McIver Award, American Sociological Assn
Publs *The Absorption of Immigrants* 54, *Political Sociology* (editor) 55, *From Generation to Generation* 56, *Essays on Sociological Aspects of Economic and Political Development* 61, *The Political Systems of Empires* 63, *Essays on Comparative Institutions* 65, *Modernization, Protest and Change* 66, *Israeli Society* 68, *The Protestant Ethic and Modernization* 68, *Political Sociology of Modernization* (in Japanese) 68, *Comparative Perceptions on Social Change* (editor) 68, *Charisma and Institution Building* *Selections from Max Weber* (editor) 68, *Ensayos sobre el Cambio social y la Modernización* (Spanish) 69, *Modernização e Mudança Social* (Portuguese) 69, *Political Sociology* (editor) 71, *Social Stratification and Differentiation* 71
The Hebrew University, Jerusalem, Home Rechov Radak 30, Jerusalem, Israel

El-Assad, Nassir El-Din, M.A., Ph.D.; Jordanian administrator, b 14 Dec. 1922, ed Arab Govt Coll., Jerusalem, and Cairo Univ
Cultural Attaché League of Arab States, Cairo 54-59, Dean, Faculty of Arts and Educ., Univ of Libya Benghazi 59-61, Prof of Arabic Univ of Jordan 62, Pres Univ of Jordan 62-68, Cultural Counsellor, League of Arab States, Cairo 68-, Corresp mem Arab Language Acads in Cairo and Damascus, Istiglal Decoration, first degree
Publs *Sources of Pre Islamic Poetry and their Historic Value* 56, *Modern Literary Trends in Palestine and Jordan* 57, *Singing and Singing Girls in Pre Islamic Arabia* 60, *Modern Poetry in Palestine and Jordan* 61, *Diwan Kais Ibn El-Khaim* 62
League of Arab States, Midan El Tahrir, Cairo U.A.R.

Eliah, Eliahu, Ph.D.; Israeli diplomatist, b 30 July 1903; ed Hebrew Univ of Jerusalem and American Univ of Beirut.

Jewish Agency 34; Jewish Agency observer to San Francisco Conf 45, Head of Jewish Agency's Political Office in Washington, D.C.; Israeli Amb to U.S.A 48-50, Minister to Great Britain 50-52, Amb 52-59, Adviser, Ministry of Foreign Affairs 59-61, fmr Pres Hebrew Univ., Jerusalem; Hon. Ph.D

Publs *Bedouin, their Life and Manners* 34, *Trans-Jordan* 35, *Israel and Her Neighbours* 57, *The Political Struggle for the inclusion of Eliah in the Jewish State* 67
17 Bialik Street, Jerusalem, Israel

Elmamy, Abdelgaleel; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) financial administrator, b 1907, ed Cairo Univ and Leeds Univ, England

In Ministries of Finance and Commerce, Minister of Finance 52-54, Gov Central Bank of Egypt 57-60, Pres and Gen. Man. Alexandria Commercial Co 60-62, Dir., Industrial Development Bank Service Dept Int Finance Corp. 62-63, Dir. of Investments, Africa, Asia and Middle East, Int. Finance Corp. 63-65; Dir Africa Dept., Int.

Bank for Reconstruction and Devt. 65-68, Dir Eastern Africa 68-69 Special Adviser to the Pres 70- International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, Washington, D.C. 20433, U.S.A.

Elias IV Moawad; Greek ecclesiastic Greek Orthodox Patriarch of Antioch (Antyarka) and the Whole Orient Sept 70-
The Patriarchate, P.O. Box 9, Damascus, Syria

Elmamdji, Mahdi, Ph.D.; Moroccan international official; b 13 March 1933, ed Lycée Lyauté, Casablanca Putney School, Vermont, U.S.A., Cornell Univ., London School of Economics and Univ of Paris
Head of Confs., Law Faculty, Univ of Rabat 57-58, Adviser Ministry of Foreign Affairs, and to Moroccan Del to UN 58-59 Dir -Gen Radiodiffusion Télévision Marocaine 59-60, Chief of African Div., Office of Relations with mem States, UNESCO 61-63, Dir. Exec. Office of Dir-Gen. of UNESCO 63-66, Asst Dir-Gen of UNESCO for Social sciences, Human Sciences and Culture July 66-Dec 69, Visiting Fellow, Centre for Int Studies, London School of Econ. and Political Sciences 70, Asst Dir-Gen of UNESCO for Pre-Programming 71-
Office UNESCO, place de Fontenay, Paris 70, Home 9 bis rue Michel Ange, Paris 16e, France and 6 Rue Chénier, Casablanca, Morocco

Emami, Ahmad, M.D.; Iranian politician; b 1915; ed, Teheran Univ
Chief of Surgical Section, Razi Hospital, Teheran 40-45, 47-57, Head of Hospital 45-47, Prof of Internal Diseases and Hygiene, Dentistry Coll 57-59, Chief of Medical Section, Razi Hospital 60; Prof of Medicine, Teheran Univ 59-65, Dr at Bank Mellî Hospital 44-, Chief of Hospital 57, Sec-Gen Mellîyân Party 62
Bank Mellî Hospital, Teheran, Iran

Ennaceur, Mohamed; Tunisian civil servant b 21 March 1933, El Djem ed Inst des Hautes Etudes, Tunis Faculté de Droit Paris and Inst des Sciences Sociales du Travail Joined Secr of State for Social Affairs 67, Chief de Cabinet 61-64, Pres-Dir Gen Professional Training and Employment Board 67-, mem Board, UN Research Inst for Social Devt del to numerous int confs
Office de la Formation Professionnelle et de l'Emploi 35 rue Charles de Gaulle Tunis Tunisia

Entezam, Abdullah; Iranian diplomatist and politician; b 1907

Entered foreign service and held various diplomatic posts, Minister to Germany until 51, Minister for Foreign Affairs 53-55 Deputy Prime Minister and Minister without Portfolio 55-57, Chair and Man Dir Nat Iranian Oil Co 57-63
Elahyeth Teheran, Iran

Entezam, Nasrollah; Iranian diplomatist; b 1889, ed, Univs of Teheran and Paris

Secretary, Persian Legation, Paris 26, Warsaw 28, London 28-29, Rep Economic Conf London 33 Chargé d'Affaires, Berne 34-38, Dir Political Dept., Ministry of Foreign Affairs 38-40, fmr Minister of Public Health, Minister of State for Foreign Affairs, Rep Exec Cttee of UN Preparatory Comm. 45, UN Gen Assembly 46, Rep First Special Session Gen. Assembly, Pres of the Gen Assembly 50-51, Ambassador of Iran to U.S.A 50-52 and 53-56, Ambassador to France 57-62, Minister without Portfolio 62-63
c/o Council of Ministers, Teheran, Iran

Epikman, Refik; Turkish artist and writer, b 1902, ed Acad of Fine Arts, Istanbul and Paris
Teacher in Gazi Pedagogic Inst., Ankara, exhibited in Exhibns of Turkish Art, Amsterdam and Paris, f the

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Asscn. of Independent Turkish Painters and Sculptors 28; mem. Int. Asscn. of Art Critics.

Publs. *Classical Painters 45, 17th, 18th and 19th Century World Art 46, Tiziano Vecellio's Art 47, The Art of Rubens 51, Turkish Artist and Archaeologist, The Art of Osman Hamdi 69.*

Gazi Osmanpasa Mahallesi, Nenehatun Cad. 114/1, Kavaklıdere, Ankara, Turkey.

Eralp, Orhan, B.A., LL.B., PH.D.; Turkish diplomatist; b. 28 Jan. 1915; ed. Robert Coll. Istanbul, Univ. Coll., London, and London School of Economics.

Ministry of Foreign Affairs 39-; Sec. Washington 42-48; Adviser to Turkish Del., UN Conciliation Comm. for Palestine 49-51; Perm. Rep. to European Office of UN, Geneva 51; Counsellor, London 52; Dir.-Gen. Second Dept., Ministry of Foreign Affairs 52-56; Ambassador to Sweden 57-59, to Yugoslavia 59-64; Perm. Rep. of Turkey to UN, New York 64-69; Sec.-Gen. Foreign Ministry 69-. Secretary-General, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Ankara, Turkey.

Erdem, Hasan Hüsnü; Turkish theologian; b. 1889; ed. Univ. of Istanbul.

Teacher of Religion, Royal Middle School, Antalya; Prof. of Theology and Headmaster, Ankara Dârü'l-Hilâfe; Teaching mem. Ministry of Canonical and Pious Endowments; Teacher, Antalya High School; mem. Advisory Cttee. Religious Affairs Dept.; Lecturer in Exegesis and History of Exegesis, Faculty of Divinity, Ankara Univ.; Head of Religious Affairs Dept., Turkish Republic 61-64; mem. Supreme Cttee. of Religious Affairs, Dept. of Religious Affairs 66-.

Publs. Numerous translations from Arabic, and biographical and theological Islamic treatises.

Diyanet İşleri Başkanlığı, Din İşleri Yüksek Kurulu Üyesi, Ankara, Turkey.

Erding, Ethem; Turkish engineer and politician; b. 1913; ed. Istanbul Technical Univ.

Formerly worked on Turkish State Railways; Deputy for Sivas 54-57; later Technical Consultant, Ministry of Communications; Senator for Kutahya 64-; Minister of Public Works Nov. 65-67; Justice Party. Kutahya, Turkey.

Ergin, Sait Naci; Turkish civil servant and politician; b. 1908, Niğde; ed. Faculty of Political Sciences, Istanbul. Joined Ministry of Interior, later Ministry of Finance; studied public finance in France; later Under-Sec. Ministry of Finance, Ankara; mem. Constituent Assembly responsible for drafting 1961 Constitution; Minister of Finance March 71-.

Ministry of Finance, Ankara, Turkey.

Erim, Nihat, PH.D.; Turkish politician; b. 1912, Kandıra, Kocaeli Province; ed. Lycée of Galatasaray, Istanbul, and Univ. of Istanbul Law School and Univ. of Paris.

Professor of Constitutional and Int. Law, Univ. of Ankara and Legal Adviser, Ministry of Foreign Affairs 42; mem. Parl. 45-50; Minister of Public Works, concurrently Deputy Prime Minister 48-50; Publ. and Editor *ULUS* (organ of the Republican People's Party) 50, subsequently Publ. and Editor of *Halkçı*; mem. for Turkey, European Human Rights Comm.; mem. Parl. 61-; Deputy Chair. Republican People's Party Nat. Assembly Group 61-71; mem. Turkish Parl. Group, European Council 61-70; Prime Minister March 71-.

Publs. several books on law.

Office of the Prime Minister, Ankara, Turkey.

Erkin, Feridun-Cemal; Turkish diplomatist; b. 1899; ed. Galatasaray Lyceum and Univ. of Paris (Law Faculty). First Sec. Turkish Embassy London 28-29; Counsellor in Berlin 34-35; Consul-Gen. Beirut 35-37; Head of Commercial Dept. Ministry of Foreign Affairs 37-38; Head of

Political Dept. Ministry of Foreign Affairs 39-42; Asst. Sec.-Gen. with rank of Minister 42-45; Sec.-Gen. with rank of Ambassador 45; Turkish del. at U.N. Conf. San Francisco 45; Head of Turkish del. final meeting of League of Nations 46; Ambassador to Italy 47-48, to U.S.A. June 48-55, to Spain 55-57, to France April 57-60, to U.K. 60-62; Minister of Foreign Affairs 62-65; mem. Int. Diplomatic Acad. Geneva, Acad. of Political Sciences, N.Y., Inst. de France (Acad. of Moral and Political Sciences). c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Ankara, Turkey.

Erkmen, Hayrettin; Turkish economist and politician; b. 1915; ed. Univs. of Ankara, Lausanne and Geneva.

Reporter, Board of Financial Research, Ministry of Finance 48; Asst. Prof. of Economics, Univ. of Istanbul 49; Minister of Labour 53-55; Pres. Parliamentary Group of Democratic Party; Minister of Labour Nov. 57-58; Minister of Commerce 58-60; Acting Minister of Reconstruction Dec. 59-May 60; arrested 60, sentenced 61, released 65; mem. Management Cttee. Turkish Central Bank 67-.

Publs. *La Participation des Salariés à la Gestion de l'entreprise* 48; trans. in Turkish: J. Marchal, *Le mécanisme des prix*, R. Ramadier, *Le Socialisme et l'exercice de pouvoir*. Istiklal Cad. Terzi Han 378, Beyoğlu, Istanbul, Turkey.

Erofeyev, Vladimir Yakovlevich; Soviet diplomatist; b. 1909; ed. Moscow Machine Tool Inst.

Diplomatic Service 39-; Deputy Dir. and Chief. of Consular Dept., State Cttee. for Foreign Affairs 39-40; Counsellor to Turkey 40-42; Deputy Chief, Second European Dept., Ministry of Foreign Affairs 42-48, Head of Dept. for Latin American countries 48-49; Counsellor, London 49-52; Counsellor Ministry of Foreign Affairs 52-54; Minister Counsellor, Paris 54-55; Chief. of Second European Dept., Ministry of Foreign Affairs 55-58, of Near East Dept. 58-59; Amb. to the U.A.R. 59-65; on staff Ministry of Foreign Affairs 65-68; Amb. to Iran 68-.

U.S.S.R. Embassy, Teheran, Iran.

Esmer, Ahmed Sükrü, LL.B., M.A., PH.D.; Turkish journalist and university professor; b. 1893; ed. Columbia Univ.

Professor of English, Galatasaray Lyceum, Istanbul 21-23; Prof. of Political History, School of Political Science 30-41; mem. Grand Nat. Assembly 41-46; Dir. Turkish Information Office, New York 47-49; Dir.-Gen. Turkish Press, Broadcasting and Tourist Dept. Ankara 49-50; Prof. of Political History, Faculty of Political Sciences, Ankara Univ. 50-; Dir. Inst. of Int. Affairs, Ankara 55-; Visiting Prof. Univ. of Idaho 58-59, Univ. of Chattanooga 60; has held editorial and admin. posts on many newspapers.

Publs. *Political History, Diplomatic History, 1919-1939*. Kizilirmak Sok. 18/6, Ankara, Turkey.

Essaafi, Mohamed; Tunisian diplomatist; b. 26 May 1930; ed. Collège Sadiki and Univ. of Paris.

Secretariat of Foreign Affairs, Tunis 56; Tunisian Embassy, London 56-57; First Sec., Washington 57-60; Dir. of American Dept., Sec. of Foreign Affairs, Tunis 60-62, American Dept. and Int. Conf. Dept. 62-64; Amb. to U.K. 64-69; Sec.-Gen. Foreign Affairs, Tunis 69; Commandeur de l'Ordre de la République Tunisienne. Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Tunis, Tunisia.

Ete, Muhlis, M.A., PH.D.; Turkish economist; b. 23 Oct. 1904.

Asst. Instructor 30, later Asst. Prof. Faculty of Law and Economics Istanbul Univ.; Teacher of Statistics School of Political Science, Istanbul, and of Money and Exchange, Higher School of Commerce and Economics Istanbul; Prof. of Business Economics, later of Gen. Principles of Economics, Ankara School of Political Science 40-50; Minister of State Enterprises 50-51; Minister of Economy and Commerce 51-52; Turkish Rep. Council of Europe; Pres. Turkish Economic Asscn. and Turkish European Movement; fmr. Chief Editor *Türk Ekonomist*; Pres. of

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Control Board of State Enterprises 58 61, Minister of Commerce June 62-June 63, mem of Parl, Dir of School of Econ, Istanbul 67-
Publs Transportation, Money and Exchange, Lessons in Business Economics, Administration of Temporary and Permanent Exhibitions, Commerce, Banking and Exchanges, Probleme der Assoziation der Turkei mit der Europaischen Wirtschaftsgemeinschaft 63, and numerous translations, *Oper Rast Sokak* 26/7, Istanbul, Turkey.

Etemadi, Noor Ahmad; Afghan diplomatist, b 1920, ed Istqal Lyceum and Kabul Univ
 Former diplomatic posts in London and Washington. Econ Section, Ministry of Foreign Affairs 53-64. Deputy Minister of Foreign Affairs 63. Minister 65 71 also Prime Minister until 71, Amb to Pakistan 64
 Office of the Prime Minister, Kabul, Afghanistan

Eltinghausen, Richard, PH D; American educationist and art curator, b 5 Feb 1906, ed Univs of Munich Cambridge and Frankfurt a M

Asst Islamic Dept., State Museum, Berlin 31 33. Asst. to Editor *A Survey of Persian Art* 33-34. Research Assoc., American Inst. for Persian Art and Archaeology N.Y. 34 37. Lecturer on Islamic Art, Inst of Fine Arts, N.Y. Univ 36-38, mem Inst of Advanced Study Princeton, N.J. 37 38, Assoc Prof of Islamic Art, Univ of Mich, Ann Arbor 38 44, Assoc in Near-Eastern Art Freer Gallery of Art, Smithsonian Inst, Washington, D.C. 44 53. Curator of Near Eastern Art 58-61, Head Curator 61 66, Research Prof of Islamic Art, Univ of Mich 48 67, Editor *Art Islamica* 38-51, Near Eastern Editor *Art Orientalis* 51-58, Editorial Board *The Art Bulletin* 40-, *Kavros* 59-, Assoc Prof of Islamic Art, Inst of Fine Arts, New York Univ 62 67, Adjunct Prof of Fine Arts 60-67, Prof of Fine Arts 67, Asst Curator, Near Eastern Art, Los Angeles County Museum of Art 67, Consultative Chair Islamic Dept., Metropolitan Museum of Art, N.Y. 69.

Publs The Unicorn (Studies in Muslim Iconography I) 50, The Paintings of Emperors and Sultans of India in American Collections 61, Persian Miniatures in the Bernard Berenson Collection 62 Arab Painting 62, Editor and contributor A Selected and Annotated Bibliography of Books and Periodicals in Western Languages dealing with the Near and Middle East, with special emphasis on Medieval and Modern Times 52, Aus der Welt der Islamischen Kunst 59 Turkish Miniatures from the 13th to the 14th Century (editor) 65, Treasures of Turkey (co-author) 66
 Office Institute of Fine Arts, New York University, 1 East 78th Street, New York, N.Y. 10021, Home 24 Armour Road, Princeton, N.J. 08540, U.S.A

Evans, Trevor Ellis, CMC, OBE; British university professor and diplomatist b 4 March 1913, ed Cowbridge Balliol Coll, Oxford and Hamburg Univ
 Joined Consular Service 37, served Beirut, Alexandria, Cairo Damascus Foreign Office Counsellor, Cairo 52 56, Bern 57 59 Consul Gen, then Ambassador, Algiers 59-64 Amb to Syrian Arab Republic 64 67, Amb to Iraq 68-69 Woodrow Wilson Prof of Int Politics, Univ of Wales 69

Plas Maes y-Groes, Talybont, Bangor, Wales

Evans-Pritchard, Edward Evan, M.A. PH D; British social anthropologist, b. 21 Sept 1902, ed Winchester Coll and Exeter Coll Oxford

Expeditions to Central, East and North Africa 26-39, Prof of Sociology Egyptian Univ Cairo 30 33, Leverhulme Fellow 34 35 Research Lecturer Oxford 35 40, Active Service 40 45; Reader, Cambridge 45 46, Prof of Social Anthropology Univ of Oxford 46, Pres Royal Anthropological Inst. 49 51; Fellow British Acad 56, Hon mem. American Acad Arts and Sciences 58 American Philosophical Soc, 68 Hon Fellow School of Oriental and African Studies, London 63, Hon D Sc (Univ of Chicago)

67, (Bristol) 69 Hon. D Litt (Univ of Manchester) 69 *Publs Witchcraft Oracles and Magic among the Azande 37, The Nuer 40, The Sanusi of Cyrenaica 49, Kinship and Marriage among the Nuer 51, Social Anthropology 51, Nuer Religion 56, Essays in Social Anthropology 62, The Position of Women in Primitive Societies and Other Essays 65, Theories of Primitive Religion 65 The Zande Trickster 67*

All Souls College, Oxford, England

Evenari, Michael; Israeli botanist, b 9 Oct 1904, ed Univ of Frankfurt.

Staff of Botany Dept., Univ of Frankfurt 27-28, German Univ, Prague 28 31, Staff of Technische Hochschule, Darmstadt 31-33, Lecturer 33, External Teacher, Hebrew Univ, Jerusalem 34 37, Instructor 37-44 Lecturer 44, Chair Dept of Botany 45- Prof 51, Vice Pres Hebrew Univ, Jerusalem 53 59, Fellow Linnean Soc, Hon Fellow American Botanical Soc, mem German Acad of Science Major Research on ancient desert agriculture and its modern application and studies in germination, physiology and ecology of desert plants
 Department of Botany, Hebrew University of Jerusalem, Jerusalem Israel.

Eytan, Walter, M.A.; Israeli civil servant, b 24 July 1910, ed St Paul's School, London Queen's Coll Oxford Lecturer in German, Queen's Coll, Oxford 34 46, Principal, Public Service Coll, Jerusalem 46-48, Dir-Gen, Ministry for Foreign Affairs Israel 48-49 Ambassador to France 50-70

Publ The First Ten Years 58

c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs Jerusalem, Israel

Eyuboğlu, Bedri Rahmi; Turkish painter and poet; b 1913, ed Académie des Beaux Arts, Istanbul, and André Lhote Atelier, Paris

Exhibited in Turkey with advanced painters' Group D 33-37, influenced by Anatolian handicraft designs 41-45, worked on block printing, serigraphy, engraving and textile printing 45 50, mosaic work since 57, Ford Foundation Grant for travel in Europe and U.S.A 61-63, Prof Acad of Fine Arts, Istanbul has also written poems, essays and travel notes in books, magazines and newspapers, Prize at São Paulo Biennial 56, Gold Medal, Brussels Fair 58, exhibns in several cities of Europe and U.S.A Major works Panel at Brussels Fair 58, Mosaic panel for NATO Building in Paris 59, Christmas Card for UNICEF 61, mosaic murals in Ankara Izmir and Istanbul 63-65 29/3 Manolya sokak Kalamis Kintoprak, Istanbul, Turkey

F

Fadil, Yahya; Sudan politician

Member of Parl 53 68 (defeated), Minister of Social Affairs 54-56, Minister of Education 67-68, Minister of Communications 68-69
 Khartoum, Sudan

Fahd ibn Abdullah, H.R.H. Prince; Saudi Arabian politician, b 1922

Brother of H.M. King Faisal, four Minister of Education; Minister of the Interior 62-
 Ministry of the Interior, Jeddah Saudi Arabia

Fahmy, Abdel Azim; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) politician, b 25 Jan 1907, ed Police Acad

Occupied different key police posts promoted Maj Gen 58 Chief of Gen Investigation Dept (Special Branch) 53 60 Dir Public Security 60-61, Under-Sec of State, Ministry of Interior Minister of Interior 62 65 Amb to Hungary 66 67, Retd 67 Highest degree of U.A.R. decorations Merit Repub; other decorations from Syria

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Lebanon, Yugoslavia, Ceylon, Indonesia, Greece, Italy, Morocco, Niger.

16 Nahda Street, Maadi, Cairo, Egypt.

Faisal, H.M. King Malik Faisal ibn Abdulaziz; Saudi Arabian monarch; b. 1906. Brother of former King Saud; Viceroy of the Hedjaz 26-64; rep. Saudi Arabia at San Francisco Conf. 45; delegated control of Govt. by King Saud March 58-Dec. 60; Prime Minister and Minister of Foreign Affairs 61-62, 63-64; Regent 63-64, declared King 64, also Head of State; Hon. G.B.E., K.C.M.G.; medals and awards from several countries. Royal Palace, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.

Fakhreddine, Mohamed; Sudanese diplomatist; b. 12 Oct. 1924; ed. Gordon Memorial Coll., Khartoum, and Univ. of Durham.

Chief of Protocol, Head of UN Section, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Khartoum 56-58; Counsellor, London 58-60; Ambassador to Pakistan and Afghanistan 60-64, concurrently Ambassador to People's Repub. of China 64-65; Perm. Rep. to UN 65-71; Under-Sec. for Foreign Affairs Nov. 70-. Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Khartoum, Sudan.

Farès, Abderrahmane; Algerian politician; b. 1911; ed. Algiers Univ.

Muslim Public Notary, Algiers 36; mem. Algiers Municipal Council; Speaker Algerian Assembly 53-56; leader, nationalist "Movement of 61", intermediary between French Govt. and Front de Libération Nationale (F.L.N.) leaders, Paris 56-61, arrested by French 61-62; Pres. Algerian Provisional Executive Council 62; legal practice, Algiers 62-; arrested July 64. Sahara Department, Algeria.

Farès, Bishr, D. ès L.; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) writer; b. 1906; ed. Coll. de la Sainte-Famille, Cairo, and the Sorbonne.

Writer and lecturer; Sec.-Gen. Inst. d'Egypte; Egyptian attaché, Inst. français d'archéologie orientale, Cairo; mem. Inst. Musique Arabe and Int. Asscn. Art Critics.

Publs. In French: *L'Honneur chez les Arabes avant l'Islam* 32, *Les Eminentes Vertus, une formule prestigieuse de la morale musulmane* 37; *Divergence* (play, produced Paris 50, Salzburg 51, Vienna 53, Münster 54); *Une Miniature religieuse de l'Ecole arabe de Bagdad* 48, *Essai sur l'esprit de la décoration islamique* 52, *Le Livre de la Thériaque, un manuscrit arabe à peintures* 53, *L'Art sacré chez un primitif musulman* 55, *Philosophie et jurisprudence illustrées par les Arabes* 57, *Vision chrétienne et signes musulmans* 61; numerous works in Arabic, including essays, plays, poetry, short stories and art criticism.

1 Sharia Lahra', Cairo, U.A.R.

Farhan, Staff Brig. Abdul-Karim, B.A.; Iraqi soldier and politician; b. 1922; ed. Military Coll., Baghdad, Staff Coll., Baghdad and Univ. of Baghdad Coll. of Law.

Battalion Commdr., Acting Brigade Commdr. 58-59; Commdr. Baghdad Garrison Feb. 63; Commdr. First Div. Feb.-Nov. 63; Minister of Culture and Guidance Nov. 63-July 65; Sec.-Gen. Arab Socialist Union of Iraq 64-65; mem. Council of Revolutionary Command 64; Minister of Agrarian Reform 67; Acting Minister of Agric. July 67-March 68; Minister of Agric. April-July 68; arrested 1968, released Nov. 70; Rafidian Medal (First Grade), Jordanian Star (First Grade) and many other military awards.

Publs. include contributions to military textbooks and *Al Jundi* magazine.

Al-Mansoor, House No. 91/8, Baghdad, Iraq.

Farid Al-Aulaqi, Sheikh Mohammed; Yemeni politician; b. 1929; ed. Aden Protectorate Coll. for Sons of Chiefs,

Government Secondary School, Aden, and Queen's Coll., Oxford.

Joined Protectorate Govt. Service as Asst. Political Officer 50; Political Officer 56-59; Minister of Finance, Fed. of S. Arabia 59-63; Minister of External Affairs 63-67; mem. Presidential Council June 69-. Upper Aulaqi, Fourth Governorate, People's Democratic Republic of Yemen.

Farkhan, Hushang; Iranian petroleum engineer; b. 16 Feb. 1914; ed. American Coll., Teheran High School and Colorado School of Mines, U.S.A.

Petroleum Engineer, Anglo-Iranian Oil Co. 39; Officer, Imperial Iranian Army 40-41; Ministry of Finance 42-46; private business 47-48; Petroleum Engineer (Exploration), Iran Oil Co. 49-55; Dir. Iran Oil Co. and mem. Board of Dirs. Irano-Italian Oil Co. 56-60; mem. Board of Dirs. Nat. Iranian Oil Co. (Dir. Oil Operation) 61-63; Chair. Iran Oil Co. 61-64; Man. Dir. Nat. Iranian Gas Co. 65-69, mem. Board of Dirs. and Dir. of Production, Refining and Distribution 69-; mem. Board of Dirs. Iranian Oil Exploration and Producing Co. 69-; Alt. mem. Board of Dirs. Nat. Iranian Oil Co. 64-69; mem. Iranian Engineering Soc., Iranian Petroleum Inst.; Order of Tadj (Fourth Class), Order of Homayoun (Third Class and Second Class), Coronation Medal.

N.I.O.C., P.O. Box 1863, Teheran, Iran.

Farmanfarmaian, Khodadad, M.A., PH.D.; Iranian economist and banker; b. 5 May 1928, Teheran; ed. American Univ. of Beirut, and Stanford and Colorado Univs.

Instructor and Research Asst., Dept. of Econs., Colorado Univ. 52-53; Instructor, Dept. of Econs., Brown Univ. 53-55; Research Fellow, Center for Middle Eastern Studies, Harvard Univ. 55-57; Research Assoc., Dept. of Econs. and Oriental Studies, Princeton Univ. 57-58; Dir. Econ. Bureau, Plan Org. 58-61; mem. Tax Comm., Ministry of Finance 58-60; mem. High Econ. Council 59-62; Deputy Man. Dir. Plan Org. 61-62; Deputy Gov., Bank Markazi Iran (Central Bank of Iran) 63-68, Gov. 68-; medals from govts. of Iran and Belgium.

Publs. *Social Change and Economic Behaviour in Iran, Exploration in Entrepreneurial History* 56; has contributed to *Middle Eastern Journal*.

Bank Markazi Iran, Avenue Ferdonsi, Teheran, Iran.

Telephone: 310100-9 and 311320-9.

Farra, Jamal E.-D., M.Sc.; Syrian diplomatist and politician; b. 1911; ed. Univ. of Paris.

Employed in Ministry of Education, in various posts including Sec.-Gen. 34-39; Chargé d'Affaires, Brussels 49-50; Sec.-Gen., Ministry of Foreign Affairs 50-52; later Minister Plenipotentiary in Sweden 52, Norway, Denmark and Finland 53, and German Federal Republic 54-56; Ambassador to U.S.S.R. 56-57; U.A.R. Ambassador to Brazil 58-61; Syrian Arab Republic Ambassador to Fed. Germany 61-62; Minister of Foreign Affairs 62-63; Ambassador to Italy 63-64; Order of Merit (Syria); Officer Order of Cedar (Lebanon), Order of the Star (Jordan), Order of Civil Merit (Spain), Order of Phoenix (Greece), Order of Merit (German Federal Republic), Order of Iftikhar (Tunisia), Order of the Polar Star (Sweden), Order of St. Peter and St. Paul, Order of the Cruzeiro do Sul (Brazil), Order of St. Silvester (Vatican), Order of Grande Croce del Merito (Italy).

24 Boulevard Adnan, Malky, Damascus, Syrian Arab Republic.

Farra, Muhammad H. El-; Jordanian diplomatist; b. 20 April 1921; ed. Boston Univ. and Univ. of Pennsylvania. Director of Arab Affairs, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Amman 59-60, Dir. Palestine Div. 60-61; Jordan Rep. UN Econ. and Social Council 60-61, Vice-Chair. ECOSOC 62; Minister, Cairo 63; Pres. Arab Council for Econ. Unity

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

64 65 Perm Rep of Jordan to UN 65 70, Minister of Culture, Information, Tourism and Antiquities 70 Amman, Jordan

Farrukh, Omar A., PH D; Lebanese educationist, b 8 May 1906, ed American Univ of Beirut, and Univs of Berlin Leipzig and Erlangen

Taught at Al Najah Nat. High School Nablus 28 29 Prof. of Islamic Philosophy and Arabic Literature, Maqasid Coll., Beirut 29-, post graduate work in Germany and France 35-37, taught at High Training School Baghdad 40-41 Visiting Prof. of History of Muslim Spain, Syrian Univ Damascus 51-60, Prof. of the History of Arab Science and History of Arab Civilization Arab Univ of Beirut 60-, mem Lebanese Nat Cttee 48, mem Lebanese Del to UNESCO, Beirut 48, mem Arab Acad of Damascus, Arab Acad. Cairo Islamic Research Asscn, Bombay
Publs. Das Bild des Fruhlings in der arabischen Dichtung 37 in Arabic *Abu Tammam 35, Arab Genius in Science and Philosophy* 44, 52 (English edn 54), *Aventure 45, Islam at its Crossroads* (trans.) 46, *Mysticism in Islam 47, Greek Philosophy and the Story of its Translation into Arabic 47, The Family in Muslim Jurisprudence 51, The Incubation of Western Culture in the Middle East* (trans.) 52, *Missions and Imperialism 52, The Arabs and Islam in the Western Mediterranean 59, A History of Arab Thought 62, History of Pre Islamic Arabia 64, A History of Arab Literature 65*, etc.

P.O. Box 941, Beirut, Lebanon

Fasi, Mohammed El; Moroccan university rector, b 2 Sept. 1908, ed Al Qarawiyin Univ., Fez, Univ de Paris à la Sorbonne and Ecole des langues orientales, Paris.

Teacher, Inst. des Hautes Etudes Marocaines 35-40, Head Arab manuscript section, Bibliothèque Gén., Rabat 40, Tutor to Prince Moulay Hassan 41-44 47 52, Rector Al Qarawiyin Univ. 42 44, 47 52, Vice Pres Conseil des Ulema 42, Founder-mem Istiqlal Party 44, under restriction 44-47, 52-54, Minister of Nat. Educ. 55 58, Rector of the Univ of Morocco 58-, Pres Moroccan Del to Gen. Conf of UNESCO 56, 58, 60 64 Vice Pres 62, leader of numerous UNESCO Confs. in the Arab World, Pres Exec Board of UNESCO 61, Pres Conseil d'Administration de l'Association des Universités Partielles ou Entièrement de Langue Française (AUPELF) 66, Pres Conseil Exécutif de l'Association des Universités Africaines 67 Minister for Cultural Affairs and Nat Educ 68-, Pres Conseil Exécutif de l'Association des Universités Islamiques 69, mem Acad of Arabic Language Cairo 58, Acad of Iraq, Dr h c Univ of Bridgeport 65 Lagos 68, Djakarta 69

Publ. Numerous works in Arabic and French including L'évolution politique et culturelle au Maroc 58, La Formation des Cadres au Maroc 60, Chants anciens des femmes de l'Est 67

Ministère d'Etat chargé des Affaires Culturelles et de l'Enseignement originel Rabat Morocco

Fassi, Mohammed Allal El; Moroccan politician, b 1906, ed Univ of Fez

Work with Moroccan nationalists 20-; imprisoned briefly 30, Prof Univ of Fez 32, forced to leave Morocco (for nationalist activities) 33, returned 34, presented plans for reform and independence to French authorities, imprisoned 35-36, presided first meeting Comité d'Action Marocaine 39, exiled to French Equatorial Africa 36, returned to Morocco 46, became a leader of Istiqlal Party (formed 43), lived abroad 47 53, leader, Istiqlal (Independent Party) 56-, Minister for Muslim Affairs 61

Publ. The Independence Movement in Arab North Africa 54, Parti Istiqlal, Rabat, Morocco

Fatemi, Nasrollah, M.A., PH D, (b Iranian), American professor

Formerly Ed Bakhtar newspaper, Gov. of Fars, mem of

Majlis, Mayor of Shiraz, and del to UN (adviser to perm Iranian del.), Visiting Prof Asia Inst and Princeton Univ 50-55, Prof. of Social Sciences Fairleigh Dickinson Univ 55 61, Chair Social Sciences Dept 61 65, Dean of the Graduate School 65 71, Distinguished Prof of Int Affairs and Dir of Graduate Inst of Int Studies 71
Publs. Biography of Hafiz 36, Persian Literature in the 16th and 17th centuries 37, Modern Persian Literature 39, Diplomatic History of Persia 51, Oil Diplomacy 54, The Dollar Crisis 64, The Roots of Arab Nationalism 65, Humanism in the Age of Science 67

Fairleigh Dickinson University, Teaneck, N.J., U.S.A

Fawzi, Ahmad; Jordanian politician and engineer, b 1917, ed U.S.A and Baghdad Univ
 District Engineer Public Works 50-53 Asst Under Sec 53-57, Under Sec 57-64 Lord Mayor of Amman 64-, Minister of Interior for Municipal and Rural Affairs 67-68, and Minister without Portfolio 67-, Minister of Public Works April 68 Aug 69 Sec Civil Eng Union, mem Devt Board, Chair Housing Corp Board, Chair Municipal and Rural Loan Fund, Chair Hijaz Railway Reconstruction Cttee, mem Arab Cities Org Exec Office, Orders of Al Kawkab (first rank), Al Istiklal (first rank), Al Nahda (second rank), Al-Jalalah Asharefah (first rank, Morocco) Tunisian Repub (first rank), Mallizia Ethiopian Emperor (first rank)
 c/o Municipality of Amman, Amman, Jordan

Fawzi, Mahmoud; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) diplomatist and politician, b 1900, ed Univs of Cairo, Rome Liverpool and Columbia

Vice Consul, N.Y. and New Orleans 26-29, Consul, Kobe, Japan 29 36, Dir Dept of Nationalities, Ministry of Foreign Affairs 39-41, Consul Gen., Jerusalem 41-44, Egyptian rep Security Council, U.N. 46, alternate rep. U.N. Gen Assembly, N.Y. 46, later permanent rep of Egypt to U.N., Ambassador to Great Britain 52 Minister of Foreign Affairs Dec 52-58, U.A.R. Minister of Foreign Affairs 58-64, mem Presidency Council 62-64, Dep Prime Minister of Foreign Affairs 64 67, Vice-Pres and Presidential Asst. for Foreign Affairs 67-68 Prime Minister Oct 70-Office of the Prime Minister, Cairo, U.A.R.

Fawzi, Gen. Mohammed; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) army officer, ed Military Acad
 Former Dir Mil Acad and Commdr United Arab Repub Expeditionary Forces in Yemen, Commdr of Syrian-Egyptian forces under Defence Pact 67, Chief of Staff of Army and Sec-Gen for Mil Affairs Arab League until 67, C-in C. Joint U.A.R. Forces 67-, Minister of War 68 70, charged with high treason July 71
 Cairo, United Arab Republic.

Fayez, Akel Mithqal Al; Jordanian politician; b 1924; ed Aleh Univ Lebanon

President Jordanian Agricultural Asscn 45; Chief of Protocol for Tribes, Royal Palace 46; Co-founder Jordanian People's Party, mem House of Reps 47-, Speaker 62-, successively Minister of Agriculture, Development and Construction, Defence, Communications, and Public Works 57-62, Chair Nat Group, Inter-Parl Union 64-; Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Interior 69-70, Minister of State

House of Representatives, P.O.B. 72 Amman, Jordan,

Federbush, Rabbi Simon; American Jewish leader, b 1892

One of leaders of Mizrachi Movement since 18, mem Seym 22-27, Editor *Jüdische Blätter* 28 and of Hebrew monthly *Mizrachi* since 30, fmr Chief Rabbi of Finland, Cultural Dir. World Jewish Congress, New York- mem World Zionist Organisation Action Cttee; Chair. World Union for Hebrew Language and Culture; mem quarterly *Judaism*, N.Y.; Pres Histradruth Ivrit of America; Literary Prizes

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

of Lamed Foundation 53 and 58; Pres. Hapoel Hamizrachi of America.

Publs. *Ijyunim* 29, *Zion's Wisest Protocol in Saningens Ijus* 35, *Hikre Talmud* 38, *Hamusar Vehamishpat* 48, *Mishpat Hamlucha* 51, *The Jewish Concept of Labor* 56, *Benthivoh Hatalmud* 56, *World Jewry To-day* 59, *Hason Tora Verzion* 60, *Hikre Hayaduth* 64, *History of the Hebrew Language* 67.

2105 Ryer Avenue, Bronx 57, New York City, New York, U.S.A.

Feinberg, Nathan, DR.IUR.UTR.; Israeli university professor; b. 6 June 1895; ed. Univ. of Zürich and Graduate Inst. of Int. Studies, Geneva.

Head of Dept., Ministry of Jewish Affairs, Lithuania 19-21; Sec. Cttee. of Jewish Dels., Paris 22-24; law practice in Palestine 24-27 and 34-45; Lecturer, Univ. of Geneva 31-33; Lecturer, Hebrew Univ., Jerusalem 45-49, Assoc. Prof. 49-52, Prof. of Int. Law and Relations 52-66, Dean of Faculty of Law 49-51, Prof. Emer. 66-; Lectured Acad. of Int. Law, The Hague 32, 37, 52; mem. Perm. Court of Arbitration; mem. Inst. of Int. Law; Fellow of the Int. Inst. of Arts and Letters; mem. Board of Governors, Hebrew Univ.

Publs. *La Question des Minorités à la Conférence de la paix de 1919-1920 et l'action juive en faveur de la Protection Internationale des Minorités* 29, *La Jurisdiction de la Cour Permanente de Justice Internationale dans le Système des Mandats* 30, *La Jurisdiction de la Cour Permanente de Justice dans le Système de la Protection Internationale des Minorités* 31, *La Pétition en Droit International* 33, *Some Problems of the Palestine Mandate* 36, *L'Admission de Nouveaux Membres à la Société des Nations et à l'Organisation des Nations Unies* 52, *The Jewish Struggle Against Hitler in the League of Nations (Bernheim Petition)* (Hebrew) 57, *The Legality of a "State of War" after the Cessation of Hostilities* 61, *Palestine under the Mandate and the State of Israel: Problems of International Law* (Hebrew) 63, *The Jewish League of Nations Societies* (Hebrew) 67, *The Arab-Israel Conflict in International Law*, etc.; co-editor: *The Jewish Year Book of International Law* 49; Editor *Studies in Public International Law in Memory of Sir Hersch Lauterpacht* (in Hebrew) 62.

6 Ben Labrat Street, Jerusalem, Israel.

Feki, Ahmed Hassan el-; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) soldier and diplomatist; b. 1911; ed. Cairo Mil. Acad. and Staff Coll., Gunnery Staff Coll. (U.K.).

Army service, reaching rank of Maj.-Gen. 30-54; fmr. Instructor Mil. Acad. and Staff Coll., Mil. Attaché Rome; Ambassador of Egypt to Libya and subsequently of U.A.R. 54-59; Ambassador of U.A.R. to India 59-64, to Canada 64-65; Under-Sec. of State, Ministry of Foreign Affairs 65-67; Deputy Minister of Foreign Affairs Oct. 67; Amb. to U.K. Dec. 67-.

Embassy of United Arab Republic, South Audley Street, London, W.1, England

Fekini, Mohieddine, DR.IUR.; Libyan diplomatist and politician; ed. Univ. of Paris.

Former Head of Exec. Council of Tripoli; fmr. Ambassador to United Arab Republic, Cairo; fmr. Minister of Justice; Ambassador to U.S. and Perm. Rep. to UN 60-63; Prime Minister of Libya 63-64; now Legal Consultant and Advocate.

Tripoli, Libya.

Felek, Burhan, L. en D.; Turkish journalist; b. 1889; ed. Scutari Lycée and Istanbul Univ.

Civil servant 08; served in Army Reserve First World War; sports journalist and photographer 19; Editor *Milliyet* (Istanbul daily) 69-; Lecturer Istanbul Univ. Inst. of Journalism 51-; Pres. Asscn. of Turkish Journalists; Pres. Turkish Olympic Cttee.; mem. Int. Press. Inst.; Hon. O.B.E.; NATO Medal, Diplôme Olympique; Greek, Yugo-

slav, Romanian and Austrian decorations for services to sport; Republican People's Party.

Publs. Works on photography, sport and travel; two collections of humorous stories and one play; translations of novels into Turkish, including *Il Piccolo Mondo di Don Camillo* and *Il Compagno Don Camillo*.

Home: Dost apt. 8/9, M. Kemal Street, Nişantaş, Istanbul (winter), Santral sok., Omerpaşa Caddesi, Erenköy, Istanbul (summer); Office: *Milliyet*, Istanbul, Turkey.

Ferne, Robert Alan, PH.D.; American anthropologist; b. 25 Jan. 1932; ed. Reed Coll., Portland, Oregon, and Univ. of Chicago.

Assistant, Assoc. Prof. of Anthropology, American Univ. in Cairo 59-65, Social Research Center, American Univ. in Cairo 60-65; Dir. Nubian Ethnological Survey 60-65; Visiting Lecturer, Univ. of Alexandria 63, 64; Consultant, Ford Foundation in U.A.R. 63-65; Post-doctoral Fellow, Harvard Univ. 65-66; Prof. of Anthropology and Dir. Middle East Center, Univ. of Texas at Austin 66-; Fellow, American Anthropological Asscn., Founding Fellow, Middle East Studies Asscn. of N. America; Trustee, American Inst. of Iranian Studies; Univ. of Chicago Fellow 54, Nat. Science Foundation Fellowship 56, 57, Danforth Fellow 54-59, Faculty Fulbright-Hays Fellow (Afghanistan) 67.

Publs. *Symposium on Contemporary Egyptian Nubia* 63, *Shaykh and Effendi* 70, and numerous anthropological articles.

University of Texas at Austin, Middle East Center, Box 7969, Austin, Texas 78712, U.S.A.

Feyzioğlu, Turhan, LL.D.; Turkish university professor and politician; b. 19 Jan. 1922; ed. Galatasaray Lycée, Istanbul Univ., and Ecole Nationale d'Administration, Paris.

Assistant Prof. Ankara Political Science School 45-47, Assoc. Prof. 47-54; Research, Nuffield Coll., Oxford 54; Co-editor *Forum* 54-58; Prof. Ankara Univ. 55; Dean, Political Science School, Ankara 56; M.P. 57, 61, 65-; mem. Nat. Exec. Cttee. Republican People's Party 57-61; Pres. Middle East Technical Univ. 60; mem. Constituent Assembly 60; Minister of Education 60; Minister of State 61; Deputy Prime Minister 62-63; mem. Turkish High Planning Council 61-63, Asst. Sec.-Gen. Republican People's Party 64, Vice-Pres. Parl. Group 65-66; founded Reliance Party 67; Turkish Rep. Consultative Assembly, Council of Europe 64-66.

Publs. *Administration Law* 47, *Judicial Review of Un-constitutional Laws* 51, *Les Parties Politiques en Turquie* 53, *The Reforms of the French Higher Civil Service* 55, *Democracy and Dictatorship* 57, *The Communist Danger* 69. T.B.M.M., Ankara, Turkey.

Field, Henry, B.A., M.A., D.Sc.; American anthropologist; b. 15 Dec. 1902; ed. Eton Coll., and New Coll., Oxford.

Asst. Curator of Physical Anthropology, Field Museum of Natural History (Chicago) 26-34, Curator 34-41; Field Museum Expeditions, Near East 25-26, 27-28, 34; engaged in Govt. research work in Washington 41-45; Research on Anthropology of S.W. Asia 46-47; Univ. of Calif. African Expedition 47-48; Peabody Museum-Harvard Expedition to Near East 50, and to West Pakistan 55; Honorary Associate in Physical Anthropology, Peabody Museum, Harvard 50-; Research in India 69; Annandale Medal, Asiatic Soc. of Bengal 66.

Publs. *Arabs of Central Iraq: their History, Ethnology and Physical Characters* 35; *Contributions to the Anthropology of Iran* 39; *The Anthropology of Iraq, Part I*, No. 1 40, No. 2-3 49; *Part II*, No. 1 51, Nos. 2, 3 52; *Contributions to the Anthropology of the Faiyum, Sinai, Sudan and Kenya* 52; *Contributions to the Anthropology of the Caucasus* 53; *The Track of Man* 53; *Ancient and Modern Man in South-western Asia I* 56, II 61; *Bibliographies on S.W. Asia*,

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

I-VII 53-63, *An Anthropological Reconnaissance in West Pakistan* 59, *North Arabian Desert Archaeological Survey* 25 50, 60, "M" Project for F D R Studies on Migration and Settlement 62, Editor Peabody Museum Russian Translation Series, Vols I V 59 70
3551 Main Highway, Coconut Grove Miami 33 Florida,
Office Peabody Museum, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass., U S A

Filali, Abdelaziz, LL D, Moroccan judge and administrator, b 10 June 1924, ed. Lycée Gauraud, Rabat
Lycée Lyauté, Casablanca Ecole Nat d'Org Economique et Sociale, Paris, Grenoble Univ and Inst des Hautes Etudes, Rabat

Practised at the Bar, Casablanca 51 55, First Pres Int Tribunal of Tangier, Court of Appeal Tangier and Court of Appeal Rabat 55, Lecturer Inst des Hautes Etudes Marocaines, Ecole Marocaine d'Administration, then Asst Dir Ecole Marocaine, Pres Centre Africain de Formation et de Recherche Administratives pour le Développement (C.A.F.R.A.D.), Tangier 64, mem. Comm. for Arabisation of Code of Civil Procedure 63, Comm. for Arabisation of Code of Obligations and Contracts 64, Pres. Comm. for Arabisation of Code of Commercial Law 65, Dr h c Univ of Grenoble

Publ. Marriage in Moroccan Law (in Arabic), *Notes Judiciaires* (in French)
Cour d'Appel Fes, Morocco

Fisher, Sydney Nettleton, M A, PH D, American university professor and editor, b 1906, ed. Oberlin Coll., Univ of Illinois, Princeton Univ and Univ of Brussels
Tutor in Mathematics and English, Robert Coll., Istanbul 28 31, 36-37, Instructor in History, Denison Univ., Granville, Ohio 35 36, Instructor in History, The Ohio State Univ 37-42, Asst Prof. 42-47, Assoc Prof 47-55, Prof 55, Co-ordinator, Graduate Inst for World Affairs 62-65, Dir Near and Middle East Program 67-, Assoc Chief, Econ Analysis Section, Middle East Div., Foreign Econ Admin., Washington, D C 43 44, Country Specialist, Commercial Policy Div., Dept of State 44-46, Lecturer on World Affairs, Chautauqua Inst., Chautauqua, N Y 40, 41 and 42, Visiting Prof. of History and Govt., Stetson Univ., DeLand, Fla 49, Dir. of Publs of The Middle East Inst and Editor *The Middle East Journal*, Washington, D C 52-53 Visiting Prof. of History, Univ of S Calif., Los Angeles 54 61, mem. American Historical Assn., The Middle East Inst., Royal Historical Soc., London, Accademia del Mediterraneo, Assen for North American Middle East Studies, etc

Publ. The Foreign Relations of Turkey, 1481 1512 48, Evolution in the Middle East 53, Social Forces in the Middle East 55 The Middle East A History 59, 60 The Military in the Middle East 63 France and the European Community 65
The Ohio State University, Columbus Ohio, 43210 U S A

Fisher, William Bayne, B A, DR DE L'UNIV (Paris), British university professor, b 24 Sept 1916, ed. Univs of Manchester Louvain, Caen and Paris
Research Fellow 37 40 served in Royal Air Force 40 46, commissioned 41, OC RAF Liaison Unit, Syria and Lebanon 44 45 Lecturer, Univ of Manchester 46, Senior Lecturer, Dept of Geography, Aberdeen Univ. 47 53; Reader and Head of Dept of Geography, Univ. of Durham 54-56 Prof 56- Dir Inst of Middle Eastern and Islamic Studies 62 65, Principal Graduate Coll. 65-, Consultant H M Govt., Govt of Libya and Harvard Univ., U S A, Leader Univ Expedition to Libya 51
Publ. The Middle East—a Physical, Social and Regional Geography 50, 71 *Spain* (with H Bowen Jones) 57, *Malta* (with H Bowen Jones and J C Dewdney), Editor Vol I *The Cambridge History of Iran* (Land and People) 68
Abbey View, 42 South Street, and 38 Old Elvet, Durham, England.

Foroughi, Mahmoud; Iranian diplomatist; b 1915, ed. Teheran Univ
Iranian Foreign Service 39, London 43 48 Ministry of Foreign Affairs 48 50, Consul Gen. in New York Del to UN Gen. Assembly 50-56, Ambassador to Brazil 57 62, Under-Sec for Political Affairs Ministry of Foreign Affairs 62, Ambassador to Switzerland 62 63, to U S A 63 65 to Afghanistan 66-
Imperial Iranian Embassy, Kabul, Afghanistan

Franjia, Sulaiman; Lebanese politician b 14 June 1910, Zgharta ed coll at Antoura near Beirut
Elected to Parl as Independent mem 60 and 64 Minister of Posts Telegraphs and Telephones and Minister of Agriculture 60 61, Minister of the Interior 68 Minister of Justice Minister of Econ., Minister of Public Works Minister of Nat Econ 69 70, head, trade del to negotiate Soviet Lebanese trade and payments agreement Pres of Lebanon Aug 70
Office of the President Beirut Lebanon

Freiha, Said; Lebanese newspaper proprietor, b 1905
Chairman Board Dav As Sayad S.A.L. which publishes *As Sayad* (weekly) 43-, *Achabaka* (weekly) 56-, *Al Anwar* (daily) 59-
Hazmie, P O B 1038 Beirut, Lebanon

Freund, Mrs. Miriam Kottler, M A, PH D; American Zionist leader, b 17 Feb 1906, ed. Hunter Coll., New York Univ

Teacher high schools, N Y C to 44, Vice Pres Women's Comm., Brandeis Univ 50 52, Nat Board Hadassah, Women's Zionist Organisation 40-, Vice-Pres 53-56, Pres 56-60, Chair Nat Youth Aliyah 53 56, mem. Achons Cttee., World Zionist Organisation 56-, Chair Exec Cttee. American Zionist Council 60-, mem. Nat. Board Jewish Nat Fund and Keren Hayesod 47-48, del 21st Orientalist Congress Moscow 60, Editor *Hadassah* magazine 66-, mem. American Assn. of Univ Women, Jewish History Soc
Publs. Jewish Merchants in Colonial America 36, *Jewels for a Crown. The Chagall Windows* 64
200 East 71st Street, New York City 21, N Y, U S A

Friedrich, Johannes, DR PHIL., German orientalist, b 27 Aug 1893, ed Leipzig Univ
Privat Dozent Leipzig Univ 24 Extra Prof 29, Prof of Oriental Philology 35, Rector 48 49, Prof Ancient Oriental Philology, Berlin Free Univ 50, Emer 61, Ordinary mem Saxon Acad of Sciences, Hon mem Deutsche Morgenländische Gesellschaft, Linguistic Soc of America, Correspondent mem Oriental Inst., Prague German Archaeological Inst (Istanbul Section), Ex Oriente Lux Asscn., Leyden, Istituto Lombardo, Milano, and Societas Orientalis Fennica Helsinki Co editor *Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft*
Publs. Staatsverträge des Hatti Resches in hebräischer Sprache (Vol I 26, Vol II 30), *Kleinasiatische Sprachdenkmäler* 32, *Einführung ins Ugaritische, Ras Shamra* 33, *Kleine Beiträge zur christlichen Grammatik* 39, *Entstehungsgeschichte der hebräischen Hieroglyphenschrift* 39, *Hebräisches Elementarbuch* (Vol I 40, Vol II 46), *Phönizisch-punische Grammatik* 51, *Hebräisches Wörterbuch* 52, 57, 61, 66, *Entzifferung verschollener Schriften und Sprachen* 57, *Kurze Grammatik der alten Quiché Sprache im Popol Vuh* 55, *Hebräische Gesetze* 59, *Zwei russische Novellen in neuyschischer Übersetzung* 60, *Hebräisches Keilschrift-Lesebuch* 60, *Geschichte der Schrift* 66
Schloss Strasse 49 Berlin 41, Germany

Frye, Richard Nelson, PH D, American orientalist, b 10 Jan 1920, ed. Univ of Ill., Harvard Univ., and School of Oriental and African Studies, London
Junior Fellow, Harvard 46-49 visiting scholar, Univ. of Teheran 51-52, Aga Khan Prof of Iranian, Harvard 57-; Visiting Prof. Oriental Seminary, Frankfurt Univ. 58-59

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Hamburg Univ. 68-69; assoc. Editor *Central Asian Journal* and *Indo-Iranica*; Hon. mem. German Archaeological Inst. Pubs. *Notes on the early coinage of Transoxiana* 49, *History of the Nation of the Archers* 52, *Narshakhi*, *The History of Bukhara* 54, *Iran* 56, *The Heritage of Persia* 62, *The Histories of Nishapur* 65, *Bukhara, the Medieval Achievement* 65, *Corpus Iranian Inscriptions* 68, 71, *Qasr-i Abu Nasr Excavations* 71; Editor *Bulletin Asia Institute* (monographs).

546 Widener Library, Cambridge 38, Mass.; and The Asia Institute, Pahlavi University, Shiraz, Iran.

G

Gaddafi, Col. Moamar al-; Libyan army officer and political leader; b. 1938, Misurata; ed. Univ. of Libya, Benghazi.

Served with Libyan Army 65-; Chair. Revolutionary Council and C-in-C. of Armed Forces of Libya Sept. 69-; Prime Minister and Minister of Defence Jan. 70-; Office of the Prime Minister, Tripoli, Libya.

Gaddafi, Wanis; Libyan politician and diplomatist. Head of Exec. Council in Cyrenaican Provincial Govt. 52-62; Minister of Foreign Affairs Jan. 62-63, of Interior 63-64, of Labour 64; Ambassador to German Federal Republic 64-65; Minister of Planning and Devt. 66-68; Minister of Foreign Affairs 68; Prime Minister Sept. 68-69. Tripoli, Libya.

Galili, Israel; Israeli politician; b. May 1911, Brailov, Ukraine; ed. Ahad Ha'am Primary School.

Went to Palestine 15; later worked on buildings and in printing; f. Asscn. of Working Youth 24; helped establish Kibbutz Na'an 30; Haganah activities 35-48; Deputy Minister of Defence, Israel Govt. 48; mem. Knesset; Minister without Portfolio (in charge of Information Services) 66-69; Minister without Portfolio 69-; Achdut Ha'Avoda.

The Knesset, Jerusalem; Kibbutz "Naan", Israel.

Gallad, Edgar Philip, LL.D.; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) journalist; b. 1900.

With Crédit Lyonnais 19; mem. staff *La Liberté* 21; Chief Editor *La Bourse* 25-28; Dir. *La Liberté* 36; founder 36, now Editor and Proprietor *Journal d'Egypte*; Editor and Proprietor *Al Zaman*; for 3 years Gen. Counsellor Fed. of Trade Unions; Grand Cross, Order of St. Sava (Yugoslavia), Grand Officer, Order of Phoenix (Greece), Commdr., Star of Ethiopia, and several other decorations.

17 Sharia Amir Said, Zamalek, Cairo, U.A.R.

Gazzer, Abdel Hadi el-; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) artist; b. 23; ed. Alexandria and Rome Acad. of Fine Arts.

Prof. of Painting, Cairo Faculty of Fine Arts; rep. at numerous exhibitions, including the 28th Venice Biennale and the Brussels Int. Exhibition 58 and São Paulo Bienal 61; exhibitions in Cairo, Alexandria and Rome; First Prize "10 Years of the Revolution" Exhibition 62.

Faculty of Fine Arts, Cairo University, Cairo, U.A.R.

Gelb, Ignace Jay, PH.D.; American university professor; b. 14 Oct. 1907; ed. Univ. of Rome.

Travelling Fellow, later Instructor, Univ. of Chicago 29-41, Asst. Prof. 41-43, Assoc. Prof. 43, 46-47, Prof. of Assyriology 47-65; Frank P. Hixon Distinguished Service Prof. 65-; U.S. Army 43-45; Guggenheim Fellow 60-61; Colvin Research Prof. 62-63; Editor *Chicago Assyrian Dictionary* 47-; Hon. mem. Société Asiatique, Paris, Societas Orientalis Fennica, Helsinki, Indian Oriental Soc., Hyderabad; Foreign mem. Accad. Nazionale dei Lincei, Rome; Fellow of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences; Pres. American Name Soc. 63-; Pres. American Oriental Soc. 65-.

Pubs. *Hittite Hieroglyphs I-III* 31-42, *Inscriptions from Alishar* 35, *Hittite Hieroglyphic Monuments* 39, *Hurrians and Subarians* 44, *A Study of Writing* 52, *Sargonic Texts from the Diyala Region* 52, *Old Akkadian Writing and Grammar* 52, *Glossary of Old Akkadian* 57, *Sequential Reconstruction of Proto-Akkadian* 69.

Oriental Institute, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

60637; and 5454 Woodlawn Avenue, Chicago, Ill., U.S.A.

Gemayel, Sheikh Pierre; Lebanese politician; b. 1905; ed. Univ. St. Joseph, Beirut and Cochin Hospital, Paris. Trained as a pharmacist; founded Parti Démocrate Social Libanais (Les Phalanges) 36, leader 37-; imprisoned 37, 43; organized general strike 43; established the first Labour Code 44; Minister of Public Works 60, of Finance 60-61, of Communications 60, of Public Health 60, 61; Minister of Public Works May 61-Feb. 64; Minister of the Interior 66-67; Deputy for Beirut 60-; Lebanese, Polish and Egyptian decorations; Pres. Kataeb Party.

Rue de l'Université St. Joseph, Beirut, Lebanon.

Georgiades, Lefkos, B.Sc.(ECON.), F.I.S.; Cypriot statisti-

cian and diplomatist; b. 1919; ed. Univ. of London.

Former statistician, United Nations; fmr. mem. UN

Expanded Technical Assistance Admin. for Libya; fmr.

Development Officer, Republic of Cyprus; fmr. Chair.

Electricity Authority of Cyprus; fmr. Special Adviser on

Economic Affairs to Cyprus Ministry of Foreign Affairs;

Amb. to U.S.S.R. 63-70; concurrently Amb. to Finland 64,

Czechoslovakia 65, Sweden 65.

Evagoral Avenue 23, Nicosia, Cyprus.

Georgy, Guy-Noël; French diplomatist; b. 17 Nov. 1918,

Paris; ed. Faculty of Law, Bordeaux and Paris.

Chief of Cabinet and Head of Information Dept., Cameroun

45-49; Attaché, Ministry for French Overseas Territories

50; Head of North-Cameroun District, Maroua 51-55;

Chief of Cabinet, Ministry for French Overseas Territories

55; Gen. Sec. to Gabon 56; Gen. Man. of Econ. Affairs and

Plan, Equatorial Africa 57, West Africa 58; High Commr.

in Congo 59; High Commr. Congo (Brazzaville) 60; Amb.

to Bolivia 61-64, to Dahomey 64-69, to Libya 69-.

French Embassy, Tripoli, Libya; 9 avenue Franco-Russe,

Paris 7e, France.

Germanus Gyula, Julius, PH.D., D.LITT.; Hungarian

orientalist and linguist; b. 1884; ed. Univs. of Budapest,

Istanbul, Vienna and Leipzig.

Lecturer at Eastern Acad. of Commerce 12, Univ. of

Political Economy, Dept. of Oriental Sciences 29, Univ.

of Santineketan, Bengal 29-32; Prof. of Arab Language,

Budapest Univ. 48-65; numerous journeys in Near East;

pilgrimage to Mecca 35; Visiting Lecturer, Turkish,

Egyptian and Indian Univs.; Independent mem. Hun-

garian Parl. 58-67; Corresp. mem. Arab Acad. of Cairo,

Arab Acad. of Damascus, Acad. of Baghdad; mem. Accad.

del Mediterraneo.

Pubs. *Allah Akhbar* 36, *A félhold farkó fényében* (The Half-

Moon's Dim Light) 58, and numerous articles on Arab

literature including *History of Arab Literature*, *Anthology*

of *Arab Poetry*, *Modern Poetry of South Arabia*.

Petőfiter 3, Budapest V, Hungary.

Ghaffari, Abolghassem, DR. SC. MATH., PH.D.; Iranian

mathematician; b. 1909; ed. Darolfonoun School and

Univ. of Nancy, Paris, London and Oxford.

Associate Prof., Teheran Univ. 37-42, Prof. of Mathematics

42-; Mathematics Research Asst. King's Coll., London

47-48; Research Fellow, Harvard 50-51, Research Assoc.,

Princeton 51-52; mem. Inst. for Advanced Study, Prince-

ton 51-52; Senior Mathematician, Nat. Bureau of Stan-

dards, Washington, D.C. 56-57; aeronautical research

scientist 57-64; Professorial Lecturer, American Univ.,

Washington 58-62; aerospace scientist, Goddard Space

Flight Center, Greenbelt, Md. 64-; has lectured at Univs. of

Harvard, Maryland, Princeton and Columbia and at Massa-

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

chusetts Inst of Technology, mem American, French and British Mathematical Societies, Fellow Washington Acad of Sciences New York Acad of Sciences, American Asscn for the Advancement of Science, mem Iranian Higher Council of Education 54-58, Iranian Del to 5th Pakistan Science Conf Lahore 53, to Int Congresses of Mathematicians, Amsterdam 54, Edinburgh 58, Stockholm 62, mem Iranian Comm for UNESCO 54, mem American Astronomical Soc, Orders of Homayoun and of Danesh (first class) and of Sepass (first class), U S Special Apollo Achievement Award

Publs *Sur l'Equation Fonctionnelle de Chapman-Kolmogoroff* 36 *The Hodograph Method in Gas Dynamics* 50 *National Aeronautics and Space Administration, Goddard Space Flight Center, Greenbelt, Md, U S A*, and *Shah Reza Avenue, 31 Ladan Street, Teheran, Iran*.

Ghaleb, Mohamed Mourad; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) diplomatist
Ambassador to Congo Republic (Léopoldville) 61-62, to USSR 63.

Embassy of the United Arab Republic, 56 Ulitsa Guernazna, Moscow, USSR

Ghalib, Abdel Hamid; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) diplomatist, b 1908, ed Military Colls
Military career 39-45, mem Egyptian del to UN 45-54, Pres 53-54, Amb to Lebanon 54-60
Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Cairo, U A R

Ghalib, Qasim; Yemeni educationalist.
Minister of Education and Information 65-66, Minister of Educ 66-67, Pres Islamic Univ of Taiz 66-
Islamic University of Taiz, Taiz, Yemen Arab Republic

Ghanem, Mohamed Hafez, PH D, United Arab Republic (Egyptian) lawyer and government official, b 28 Sept 1915, ed Cairo Univ and Univ de Paris
Lecturer, Faculty of Law, Alexandria Univ 49, Prof of Public Int Law and Vice-Dean, Faculty of Law, Ain Shams Univ 60-68, Minister of Tourism 68-71, Hon Sec, Egyptian Soc of Int Law, mem Arbitration Conciliation and Mediation Comm of Org of African Union (OAU) 66-71, mem Legal Consultative Comm for Afro-Asian Countries 58-65 State Prize for best publ in field of Int Law and Political Science 60.

Publs *Public International Law* (Arabic) 64, *International Organisation* 67
3 Shama El Bergass, Garden City, Cairo, United Arab Republic.

Gherab, Mohamed Habib; Tunisian UN official
Former Amb to Spain, Special Adviser to Tunisian Sec of State for Foreign Affairs 67-69 mem del to XXIII session of UN Gen Assembly, Asst Sec-Gen of UN and Dir of Personnel March 69
Office of Personnel, UN Secretariat, New York, N Y, U S A.

Ghirshman, Roman; French archaeologist, b 3 Oct. 1895, ed Sorbonne and Ecole du Louvre
Mem French Archaeological Mission in Iraq 30, Dir similar mission in Iran 31, exploration of Seistan desert, Afghanistan 36, Head of French Archaeological Dept in Afghanistan 41-43 mem Inst français d'archéologie orientale, Cairo 44-45, Dir Susa Mission, Iran 46-67, Dir French Archaeological Missions in Iran, Prof Univ of Aix-en-Provence, mem Acad. des Inscriptions et Belles Lettres (three times prize), Officier Légion d'Honneur, Commr and Grand Officer of two Iranian Orders, hon degrees (Sorbonne and Univ. of Teheran), hon Dir-Gen Archaeological Delegation in Iran

Publs *Fouilles de Tepe Guyan* 36, *Fouilles de Sialk* (2 vols) 38, 39, *Héram Histoire des Kouchans* 46, *Les Chionites-Hephthalites* 48, Iran, *des origines à l'Islam* 50 Iran *Parthes*

et Sassanides 63, Iran *La Perse ancienne* 2 vols 62-64, and other works

96 rue La Fontaine, Paris 16e, France

Ghorab, Amin Youssef; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) writer, b 31 March 1913

Began writing short stories 39, Head of Public Relations, High Council of Arts, Literature and Social Sciences, mem Admin Council Gousse Club, mem Egyptian Asscn of Writers, P E N Int Club, Order of Arts and Sciences 65

Publs Novels *Shabab Imraah*, *Sanawat El Hob* *Sil El-Banat*, *El Abwab*, *El Moghlahah*, *Scenarios for Films Nissa Moharramat*, *El-Layali*, *El Tawilah*, *Rannet El-Kholkhah*, *Nissa Wa Theab*, *El Thalathah Yohebbounaha*, *Garmet Hob*, *Shabab Imraah*, *El-Sapharah Arza*
8 Rafei Street, Helopolis, Cairo, U A R.

Ghorra, Edward A., L en D; Lebanese diplomatist, b 1913 ed Patriarchal Coll, Beirut, American Univ. of Beirut, French Law School (Univ. St Joseph), Beirut and Univ of Pittsburgh, U S A

Mem of staff, American Univ of Beirut 39-41, barrister 41-45 Consul Gen for Lebanon, New York 45-49, Australia 50-55, attached Ministry of Foreign Affairs as Head Occidental Section 56-57, mem Lebanese Del to Economic and Social Council and UN Gen Assembly 47-49, Dir of Pol Affairs and Internat. Relations Dept 57-58 del to UN Gen Assembly 58, 63; Ambassador to U S R. 59-63, Dir Dept for Lebanese Overseas, Ministry of Foreign Affairs 63-65, Ambassador to Czechoslovakia and Poland 65-68, Perm Rep of Lebanon to UN Oct. 68, foreign decorations
c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Beirut, Lebanon

Ghosheh, Abdallah Shehadeh; Jordanian judge, b 21 Oct 1905, ed Rawdah Coll, Jerusalem, Jerusalem Law Inst

Teacher 29-34, Chief Clerk Shariya Hebron Court 34-38, Judge in Vaffa, Nazareth Hebron and Nablus 38-46, mem Shariya Court of Appeal 46-48, mem Cttee for Unification of Laws in Amman 50, Chief Justice 50, Chief Justice and Minister of Justice 50-51, Acting Minister of Educ 51; Chief Islamic Higher Cttee 51; mem Supreme Council for Educ in Jordan 53, mem Devt Cttee for Al Aksha Mosque 54, Chief Justice and Head of Al Awkay Council and Islamic Affairs March 64, mem Royal Consultative Body Aug 67, Minister of Awkay and Islamic Affairs and Holy Places Dec 68, Kadi Kuda Nov 69, Chief of Cttee for collecting of money for rebuilding of Holy Mosque of the Rock 54, 62, Al Kawkab Medal Grade I, Al Nahda Medal Grade I

Office of the Chief Justice of the Muslim Religious Courts, Amman, Jordan

Ghozali, Sid Ahmed; Algerian industrialist, b 31 March 1937

Président Dir Gén Société nationale de transports et de commercialisation des hydrocarbures (SONATRACH) 66-
SONATRACH, Immeuble le Mauretania, Algiers, Algeria.

Ghunaim, Khalifa Khalid Al; Kuwaiti diplomatist and politician, b 1921, ed American Univ of Beirut

Deputy Chair Nat Bank of Kuwait, mem Kuwait Tanker Co, Kuwait Currency Board, Kuwait Development Board, Kuwait Chamber of Commerce, Ambassador to U K 61-62; Minister of Commerce 63-65
c/o Ministry of Commerce, Kuwait.

Gibb, Sir Hamilton Alexander Rosskeen, Kt, M A, LL D, F R S A, British professor, b 2 Jan 1895, ed Royal High School, Edinburgh, and Univs of London and Edinburgh
Lecturer, School of Oriental Studies, Univ of London 21; Prof of Arabic, Univ of London 30-37, Laudian Prof of Arabic, Univ of Oxford 37-55; Prof of Arabic Harvard Univ 55-64

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Publs. *The Arab Conquests in Central Asia* 23, *Arabic Literature* 26, *Travels of Ibn Battuta* 29, *Studies in Contemporary Arabic Literature* 28-33; Editor *Whither Islam?* 32, *Modern Trends in Islam* 47, *Mohammedanism* 49, *Islamic Society and the West* (with Harold Bowen) 50, 57, *Studies in the Civilisation of Islam* 62, *Arabic Literature* 63. The Olde House, Cherington, Shipston-on-Stour, Warwickshire, England.

Givton, Manoch, M.A.; Israeli broadcasting official; b. 16 April 1917; ed. Hebrew Univ. Law School. General Sec. Palestine Students' Union 40-41; Senior Programme Asst., Hebrew Section, Palestine Broadcasting Service 45; Head, News Dept., Kol Israel 50; mem. Israel Del. to 10th UN Gen. Assembly 55; Dep. Dir. Kol Israel 56-60, Dir. 60-; Dir.-Gen. Israel Broadcasting Authority 65-68; Minister Plenipotentiary, Israel Perm. Mission to the UN 68-.

20 Sutton Place South, New York, N.Y. 10022., U.S.A.

Glubb, Lieut.-Gen. Sir John Bagot, K.C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O., O.B.E., M.C.; British officer; b. 16 April 1897; ed. Cheltenham and Royal Military Acad. Woolwich.

2nd Lieut. Royal Engineers 15, served France; served Iraq 20; Admin. Inspector Iraq Govt. 26; Officer Commandg. Desert Area (Colonial Service, Transjordan) 30; Officer Commandg. Arab Legion, Transjordan (now Jordan) 38-56. Publs. *Story of the Arab Legion* 48, *A Soldier with the Arabs* 57, *Britain and the Arabs* 59, *War in the Desert* 60, *The Great Arab Conquests* 63, *The Empire of the Arabs* 63, *The Course of Empire* 65, *The Lost Centuries* 67, *Syria, Lebanon, Jordan* 67, *A Short History of the Arab Peoples* 69, *The Life and Times of Muhammad* 70, *Peace in the Holy Land* 71.

West Wood St. Dunstan, Mayfield, Sussex, England.

Glykys, Michael; Cypriot lawyer and politician; b. 25 June 1912, Nicosia; ed. Pancyprian Gymnasium and Middle Temple, London.

Called to Bar; advocate 35-40; later joined Hellenic Chemical Products and Fertilizers Co. 40-55; Sec. to Hellenic Mining Co. 45-55; Man. Dir. Cyprus Textiles Co. Ltd., Model Famagusta Bakeries Ltd., Tricomco Agricultural Co. Ltd.; Cyprus Products Co. Ltd.; Glykys Estates Ltd., Glykys Bros. Ltd.; mem. Electricity Authority of Cyprus 60-70, Chair. 63-70; mem. Board of Dirs. Central Bank of Cyprus 63-70; Minister of Health Oct. 70-.

Ministry of Health, Nicosia, Cyprus.

Godik, Giora; Israeli theatre producer; b. 5 May 1921; ed. Magnus Krynski, Warsaw and Stefan Batory Univ., Wilna. Fought with Polish Army during Second World War; settled in Israel 48; with Israeli Army 48-55; opened artists' agency Giora Godik Productions Ltd. 55; opened Giora Godik Theatre, Alhambra Theatre, Tel-Aviv 65; productions include *Barefoot in the Park*, *Fiddler on the Roof*, *The King and I*, *Kazablan*, *Hello Dolly*, *I Like Mike*, *Long Live the Horses*, *The Witch*. Office: 10 Glikson Street, Tel-Aviv; Home: 53 King David Blvd., Tel-Aviv, Israel.

Goetze, Albrecht; American assyriologist; b. Germany 11 Jan. 1897; ed. Munich, Leipzig, Berlin and Heidelberg Univs.

Private Docent Heidelberg Univ. 23-30; Prof. Marburg Univ. 30-33; Visiting Prof. Yale Univ. 34, William M. Laffan Prof. of Assyriology and Babylonian Literature, Yale Univ. 36-56, Sterling Prof. 56-; mem. Royal Danish Acad.; corresp. mem. Inst. for Comparative Research in Human Culture; mem. American Philosophical Society; Dir. American School of Oriental Research, Baghdad 47-56, Hon. Dir. 56-; Editor *Journal of Cuneiform Studies*; hon. mem. Société Asiatique de Paris; corresp. mem. Acad. des Inscriptions et Belles-Lettres, mem. German Archaeological Inst.

Publs. *Kulturgeschichte Kleinasiens* 33 (2nd edn. 57), *Helthiter, Churriter und Assyrier* 36, *The Hittite Ritual of Tunnawi* 38, *Kizzuwatna* 40, *Old Babylonian Omen Texts* 47, *Laws of Eshnunna* 56; various other books. 2 Maplewood Road, New Haven, Conn., U.S.A.

Goetze, Roger; French petroleum executive; b. 6 Dec. 1912; ed. Lycée Carnot and Univ. of Paris. Director-General of Finance, Algeria 42-49; Dir. of the Budget, France 49; Dir. of Cabinet of Minister of National Economy; Pres. S. N. Repal, Compagnie industrielle et financière d'applications pétrolières until 66; Administrator Compagnie des pétroles France-Afrique (COPEFA), of Bank of Algeria, Union générale des pétroles (U.G.P.), Union industrielle des pétroles (U.I.P.); Technical Adviser to Pres. de Gaulle 58-59; Commndr. de la Légion d'Honneur, Commandeur du mérite saharien. 66 ter, rue de Longchamp, Neuilly-sur-Seine (Seine), France.

Gohar, Hamed Abdel Fattah, D.Sc.; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) scientist; b. 1907; ed. Fouad I Univ., Cairo. Demonstrator in Zoology, Fouad I Univ. 29; Asst. Dir. Hydro-Biological Station at Ghardaqa 34, Dir. 38-; Prof. Marine Biology and Dir. Oceanographic Inst., Cairo Univ. 48-.

Hydro-Biological Station, Ghardaqa, U.A.R.

Gökay, Dr. Fahreddin Kerim; Turkish physician, diplomatist and politician; ed. Faculty of Medicine, Univ. of Istanbul. Specialist in mental health; fmr. Prof. of Mental Health and Neurology, Univ. of Istanbul; fmr. Gov. and Mayor of Istanbul; Ambassador to Switzerland 58-60; Minister of Reconstruction and Redevelopment 62-63; Minister of Health and Social Welfare 63; Dep. for Istanbul; Pres. Republican People's Party, Istanbul; Counsellor at Council of Europe 64-.

Republican People's Party, Istanbul, Turkey.

Gökmen, Oğuz; Turkish diplomatist; b. 4 May 1916; ed. Ankara Üniversitesi and Univ. de Paris à la Sorbonne. Entered Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Ankara 40; Second Sec. Turkish Embassy, Paris 44-47, First Sec. 47-49; Chief of Section, Dept. of Trade, Ministry of Foreign Affairs 49-50; Chargé d'Affaires, Buenos Aires 50-53; Counsellor, Sofia 53-54; Asst. Chief, Dept. of Trade and Trade Agreements 55; Dir.-Gen. Dept. of Commerce and Commercial Agreements 56; Dir.-Gen. Econ. Dept. at the Ministry 58; Amb. to Argentina, also accredited to Uruguay and Paraguay 62-64; Perm. Rep. to European Econ. Community (EEC) 64-66; Amb. to German Fed. Repub. Dec. 66-.

Türkische Botschaft, 53 Bonn-Bad Godesberg, Utestrasse 47, German Federal Republic.

Goldmann, Nahum; Polish-born Zionist leader; b. 10 July 1895; ed. Heidelberg, Berlin and Marburg Univs. Editor and Publisher German Hebrew Encyclopedia 22-34; mem. Zionist Political Comm. 27; Act. Chair. Zionist Action Cttee. 33; escaped from Germany 34; Rep. of Jewish Agency to L. of N.; in U.S. 41; Rep. Jewish Agency for Palestine in U.S.A. during Second World War; Pres. World Jewish Congress 51-, World Zionist Org. 56-68, Conf. on Jewish Claims against Germany, Memorial Foundation for Jewish Culture; Chair. Cttee. on Jewish Claims against Austria 50-.

Ahad Haam 18, Jerusalem, Israel; 12 avenue Montaigne, Paris, France.

Goldstein, Rabbi Israel, M.A., D.D., D.H.L., Litt.H.D., LL.D.; American Rabbi; b. 18 June 1896; ed. Univ. of Pennsylvania, Jewish Theological Seminary of America, and Columbia Univ. Rabbi Congregation B'nai Jeshurun N.Y.C. 18-60, Rabbi Emeritus 61-; Pres. Jewish Conciliation Board of America 29-68, Jewish Nat. Fund of America 33-43 (now Hon. Pres.); Pres. Synagogue Council of America 42-44, Zionist

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Organization of America 41 46 Chair World Confed. of Gen. Zionists 46- United Palestine Appeal 47 49 Co-Chair United Jewish Appeal 47 49 Treas Jewish Agency 47 49 Pres Amideur Israel Nat. Housing Co for Immigrants 48 49 mem. World Jewish Congress Exec. 48 and Chair of its Western Hemisphere Exec 50-60 Hon V co-Pres 59- Pres American Jewish Congress 51 58 now Hon. Pres Pres World Hebrew Union mem Jewish Agency for Palestine Exec. 48 World Chair Keren Hayesod United Israel Appeal 61 71 mem Board of Govs Hebrew Univ of Jerusalem Weizmann Inst of Science Univ of Haifa Israel Philharmonic Orchestra Founder Brandeis Univ 46 Chair Jerusalem Artists House 65 70 founded Israel Goldstein Jerusalem Youth Village Chair in Zionism at Hebrew Univ of Jerusalem Synagogue of Hebrew Univ of Jerusalem Chair in Practical Theology Jewish Theological Seminary of America Chair Jerusalem Council of Israel America Friendship League Hon Chair Asscn of Americans and Canadians in Israel
Publics A Century of Judaism in New York 30 *Towards a Solution 40* *Yomert's Devotions* 41 *Brandeis University 51* *American Jewish Comes of Age* 55 *Transition Years* 62 20 West 89th Street New York NY USA Keren Hayesod Jerusalem Israel

Gomaz, Mohamed Sharawy, United Arab Republic (Egyptian) politician b 25 July 1920 ed Military Coll Governor of Suez 61-64 Minister and mem U A R Iraq Joint Presidency Council 64 Cabinet State Minister 65-66 Minister of the Interior 66-71 Deputy Prime Minister 70-71 charged with high treason July 71
 60 Ministry of the Interior Cairo U A R

Goodarzi Dr Manuchehr, Iranian administrator b 1925 ed American Univ of Beirut and USA Former Lecturer Princeton Univ Lecturer in Public Admin. Teheran Univ Founder and Deputy Man Dir of Admin. Office Plan Organization Dir Dept. of Social and Municipal Devel Dep Prime Minister and Sec Gen of Hgh Admin Council 63 64 Minister of Admin Reform and Sec Gen of State Org for Admin and Employment Affairs 64-69 Chair of Exec. Council of Eastern Regional Org for Public Admin Minister of Agricultural Products and Consumer Goods 69- Minister in charge of Transport Co-ordination 71 decorations from Iran Korea Philippines
 Ministry of Agricultural Products and Consumer Goods Teheran Iran.
 Telephone 765920

Gürk, A. Haydar, Turkish diplomatist b 1904 ed Robert Coll Istanbul and School of Political Science Paris Entered foreign service 29 served Moscow 33 Economic Dept. of the Ministry 34 Rome 37 Political Dept. of the Ministry 41 Tokyo 43 Warsaw 46 Dir-Gen Second Dept. Ministry of Foreign Affairs 49 later Dir-Gen Int Economic Co-operation Dept Asst. Sec Gen for Economic Affairs (with rank of Minister) 52 later Asst. to the Sec Gen. and himself Sec-Gen to the Economic Co-operation Administration of Turkey Sec-Gen to the President of the Republic (with rank of Ambassador) 54 Ambassador to the U S A 55 57 to Spain 59 Ambassador to NATO 60 60 Ministry of Foreign Affairs Ankara Turkey

Goulli Shiheddine El, LL D Tunisian diplomatist b 22 June 1919 Soussse ed Collège de Soussse and Université de Paris Tunisian Bar 47 in private industry 49 56 active in Tunisian Nat Liberation Movement Europe 47 56 Gen Consul Marseilles 56-57 Counsellor Washington 58 Minister Washington 59-61 Alt. Exec Dir World Bank 61 Amb to Belgium also accredited to Netherlands and

Luxembourg 62 concurrently Perm Rep to EEC Amb to U S A, concurrently Perm Rep to UN 69- and Amb to Mexico 70- Grand Cordon de l Ordre de la République Tunisienne 66 also decorations from Belgium Netherlands and Luxembourg
 Embassy of Tunisia 2408 Massachusetts Avenue NW Washington DC USA

Govrin, Akiva, Israeli politician b 12 Aug 1902 Immigrated 22 mem. Exec. Cttee. Histadrut 42 mem Knesset Chair Knesset Labour Cttee Chair Mapai Party 53 Minister without Portfolio 64 of Tourism 64-66 28 Mapu Street Tel Aviv Israel

Grivas, Lieut-Gen George, Greek (b Cypriot) officer b 1898

Adopted Greek nationality Military School for Officers 16-19 Officer Infantry Corps Asia Minor 19 22 School for Captains Athens Staff Officer 28 Infantry School Versailles Turing School Châlons sur Marne War Coll Paris lecturer in Tactics Salonika Training School Chief of Staff II Division 40 founded and led X underground organisation in Athens during German occupation in Second World War returned to Cyprus 51 organised and led under the name Digenis EOKA movement 54 59 returned to Greece after Cyprus settlement 59 returned to Cyprus 64 Commr of Armed Forces Cyprus Aug 64 67 Freedom and Gold Medal City of Athens Gold Medal Athens Acad Grand Cross Order of George I Commr Order of Military Merit.

Public Military Essay on the Infantry Fire Plan Memoirs 61 *Guerilla Warfare 64* *The Chronicle of EOKA Struggle* Dimosthenous 7 Halandri Athens Greece.

Grunebaum, Gustave E von, PH D American university professor b 1 Sept 1909 ed Univ of Vienna and Berlin Asst Prof Arabic and Islamic Studies Asia Inst. NY City 38 42 Chair Dept. of Arabic 42 43 Asst Prof of Arabic Univ of Chicago 43 46 Assoc Prof 46-49 Prof 49 57 Prof of History and Dir Near Eastern Center Univ of California (Los Angeles) 57 mem American Oriental Society and Vice-Pres 54 55, hon mem Islamic Research Asscn Bombay mem Accademia del Mediterraneo Palermo Fellow Middle East Inst American Acad. of Arts and Sciences mem Accademia Nazionale dei Lincei Charter mem American Soc. for Study of Religion Pres American Research Center in Egypt Inc Hon Pres Middle East Studies Asscn. 67 mem Board of Govs. Center for Arabic Study Abroad mem Board American Research Inst in Turkey mem Cttee XXVII Int Congress of Orientalists mem Société Européenne de Culture American Philosophical Soc Editor *Bibliotheca des Morgenländer* Elected mem Institut d'Egypte Dr h c (Frankfurt Univ Hebrew Union Coll Los Angeles) *Public Die Wirklichkeit der früh-arabischen Dichtung Eine literaturwissenschaftliche Untersuchung 37* *Medieval Islam A Study in Cultural Orientation 46* *A Tenth-Century Document of Arabic Literary Theory and Criticism The sections on poetry of al-Baqillani's I'jaz al-Qur'an (translated and annotated) 51* *Muhammadan Festivals 51* *Al-Zarnaji Instruct on the Student—The Method of Learning (translated with an introduction together with T M Abel) 47* co-operated on *Palestine A Study of Jewish Arab and British Policies 47* *Islam Essays in the Nature and Growth of a Cultural Tradition 55* *Kritik und Dichtkunst Studien zur arabischen Literaturgeschichte 55* ed and contrib *Unity and Variety in Muslim Civilization 55* co-ed and contrib *Classicisme et déclin culturel 57* *Dirasat fi l adab al arabi 59* ed and contrib *Universitäts und Moderne Gesellschaft 59* ed and contrib *Klassismus und Kulturverfall 60* *Modern Islam The Search for Cultural Identity 62* *Der Islam seine Expansion in Nahen und Mittleren Osten Afrika und Spanien in Propylaen Welt*

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geschichte 63, *Der Islam im Mittelalter* 63, *French African Literature: Some Cultural Implications* 64, *Islam, Experience of the Holy and Concept of Man* 65, *Der Islam in seiner klassischen Epoche 622-1258* 66, *The Dream and Human Societies* (Co-editor with Roger Caillois), *Studien zum Kulturbild und Selbstverständnis des Islams* 69, *Classical Islam: A History 600-1258* 70, *Muslim Self-Statement in India and Pakistan 1857-1968* 70 (Co-editor with Aziz Ahmad), Editor and contributor Biennial Giorgio Levi Della Vida Conferences: *Logic in Classical Islamic Culture* 70, *Theology and Law in Islam* 71, Near Eastern Center, University of California, Los Angeles, California 90024, U.S.A.

Guédira, Ahmed Réda; Moroccan politician; b. 1922. Former Cabinet Minister under Mohammed V, Minister of State in charge of Franco-Moroccan negotiations; Dir.-Gen. Royal Cabinet 61-; Minister of Agriculture 61-Nov. 63, of the Interior 61-June 63; Dep. for Casablanca May 63-; Minister for Foreign Affairs Nov. 63-Aug. 64; mem. Front for the Defence of Constitutional Institutions; founded Democratic Socialist Party 64. Democratic Socialist Party, Rabat, Morocco.

Guellal, Cherif; Algerian diplomatist; b. 18 Aug. 1932; ed. Algiers Univ., Aix-Marseilles Univ. and London Univ. Representative of Algerian Provisional Govt. in Cairo 57, in South East Asia (New Delhi) 58-61; Rep. of Algeria in London 61-62; Del. to UN 62; Adviser on Foreign Affairs to Pres. Ben Bella 61-63; Amb. to U.S.A. 63-67, concurrently accred. to Canada and Mexico. c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Algiers, Algeria.

Gueron, Meir; Israeli shipping executive; b. 7 Aug. 1913. Executive Solel Boneh Ltd., Man. Dir. Koor Industries and affiliated companies and acted for Hagana on missions abroad 35-58; Deputy Dir. Haifa Refineries 59-62; Man. Dir. Haifa Refineries 62-66; Man. Dir. Zim Israel Navigation Co. 66-. Zim Israel Navigation Co. Ltd., Haifa, Israel.

Guillaumat, Pierre L. J.; French civil servant; b. 5 Aug. 1909; ed. Prytanée Militaire, La Flèche and Ecole Polytechnique. Chef du Service des Mines, Indochina 34-39, Tunisia 39-43; Dir. of Carburants 44-51; Admin.-Gen. Atomic Energy Comm. 51-58; Pres. Petroleum Research Bureau 45-58; Minister of the Armies, de Gaulle Cabinet, June 58-Jan. 59, Debré Cabinet Jan. 59-Feb. 60; Minister attached to Prime Minister's Office Feb. 60-April 62; Minister of Education (a.i.) Nov. 60-Feb. 61; Pres. Union Générales des Pétroles 62-65, Electricité de France 64-66, Entreprise de Recherches et d'Activités Pétrolières 65-, Soc. Nat. des Pétroles d'Aquitaine 65-; Grand Officier de la Légion d'Honneur, Croix de Guerre. 7 rue Nélaton, Paris 15e, France.

Gulbenkian, Nubar Sarkis, M.A., LL.B., F.R.G.S.; Turkish diplomatist; b. 2 June 1896; ed. Harrow, Bonn Univ., Trinity Coll., Cambridge and Middle Temple, London. Attached French Ministry of Supply (Petroleum Section) 17-21; with Royal Dutch Shell Group 22-25; engaged in Middle East Oil Negotiations 26-28 and 48-54; Dir. Iraq Petroleum Co. 17-25, 28-38; worked with his father in oil and finance 25-55; Iranian Commercial Attaché, London 26-51, 56-65; Turkish Hon. Counsellor, London 66-; Hon. Pres. Armenian Church Trustees 55-; Pres. Asscn. of Econ. Reps. 56-; Legion of Honour (Chevalier 19 and Commdr. 28), Order of St. Gregory the Illuminator (with diamonds) 57, Order of Taj 62. Publ. *Pantaxia* (autobiography) 65. Domaine des Colles, 06 Valbonne, France.

Gülek, Dr. Kasim, B.Sc.(COM.), PH.D., LL.D.; Turkish politician, economist and farmer; b. 1910; ed. Robert Coll.,

Ecole des Sciences Politiques, Paris, Columbia, Cambridge, London, Berlin and Hamburg Univs. Member of Parl. 40-; mem. Central Exec. Council of People's Republican Party 42; Chair. Cttee. on Commerce 43; del. to Int. Labour Conf. 44; Minister of Public Works 47; Minister of Communications 48, of State 49; Vice-Pres. Council of Europe 62; Chair. UN Comm. on Korea; Sec.-Gen. Republican People's Party 51-59, resigned from Republican People's Party 67; mem. Constituent Assembly 60-64, expelled 64; Pres. North Atlantic Assembly 69. Pubs. *Development of Economically Backward Countries* 32, *Development of Banking in Turkey* 33, *Democracy Takes Root in Turkey* 51. Bahçelievler, Ankara, Turkey.

Gurney, Oliver Robert, M.A., D.PHIL.; British assyriologist; b. 28 Jan. 1911; ed. Eton Coll. and New Coll. Oxford. Army Service 39-45; Shillito Reader in Assyriology, Oxford Univ. 45-, Prof. 65-; Fellow of Magdalen Coll. Oxford 63-; Editor *Anatolian Studies* 59-. Pubs. *The Geography of the Hittite Empire* (with J. Garstang) 59, *The Hittites* 52, 66, *The Sultantepe Tablets I and II* (with J. J. Finkelstein and P. Hulin) 57, 64. Bayworth Corner, Boars Hill, Oxford, England.

Gürsan, İhsan; Turkish politician; b. 1903; ed. Faculty of Political Science, Istanbul Univ. Former Asst. Dir.-Gen. of Public Revenue, Ministry of Finance, and Dir.-Gen. of Agricultural Tools Enterprise; mem. Nat. Assembly 61-; fmr. Minister of Commerce and Minister of Finance; Minister of Finance 65-66; Justice Party. National Assembly, Ankara, Turkey.

Gürün, Kâmurân; Turkish diplomatist; b. 1924, Çengelköy (Istanbul); ed. studied political science. Entered diplomatic service 48; posted to Turkish Embassy, Bonn 51; subsequently held various posts at Ministry of Foreign Affairs and diplomatic missions abroad; Dir.-Gen. Dept. for Admin. Affairs 61, subsequently Perm. Sec. to the Inter-Ministerial Cttee. on External Econ. Relations, Dir.-Gen. Dept. for Econ. and Commercial Affairs, Deputy Sec.-Gen. for Econ. Affairs and Sec.-Gen. Inter-Ministerial Econ. Council; Amb. to Romania 67-70; Perm. Rep. of Portugal at OECD Oct. 70-. Permanent Representative of Turkey at OECD, 2 rue André Pasca, Paris 16e, France.

Güterbock, Hans G., PH.D.; American professor of Hittitology; b. 27 May 1908; ed. Univs. of Berlin, Leipzig and Marburg. Professor of Hittitology, Univ. of Ankara, Turkey 36-48; Visiting Lecturer, Univ. of Uppsala, Sweden 48-49; Assoc. Prof. of Hittitology, Oriental Inst., Univ. of Chicago 49-56, Prof. 56-; participated in excavations at Boğazköy, Turkey; edited Hittite cuneiform texts. Pubs. *Siegel aus Boğazköy I, II* 40, 42, *Kumarbi: Mythen vom churritischen Kronos* 46, *Guide to the Hittite Museum in the Bedesten at Ankara* 46, *The Song of Ullikummi* 52. The Oriental Institute, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois 60637, U.S.A.

Gvati, Chaim; Israeli farmer and politician; b. 29 Jan. 1901; ed. Vilna, Poland, and Russian Univ. Migrated to Palestine 24; mem. Kibutz 24-, mem. Kibutz Meuchad Central Cttee. 42-45; Chair. Security and Econ. Cttees. of The Agriculture Centre 46-49; Dir.-Gen. Ministry of Agriculture 50-57; Sec. Ichud Hakvutzot Veakibutzim 59-62; Sec. Federation of Kibutz Movement 63-64; Minister of Agriculture Nov. 64-; Mapai. Kibutz Yifat, and Ministry of Agriculture, Jerusalem, Israel.

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

H

Habash, George, M.D. Palestinian resistance leader b 1926 ed American University of Beirut. Founder Youth of Avengence 48 and Arab Nationalists Movement early 50s practised as doctor 50s and 60s leader of Popular Front for the Liberation of Palestine June 67

Haddari, Dr Osman El, Sudanese diplomatist b 1920 ed Gordon Coll Khartoum Khartoum School of Science and Faculty of Medicine Univ of Alexandria. Houseman, Alexandria Hospitals 49-50 private medical practice 50-56 Ambassador to Pakistan 56-59 to USA 59-64 to United Arab Republic April 65-69 c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs Khartoum Sudan

Haddad, Amin Farid M.Sc. Lebanese university professor b 1911, ed Nat. Coll of Shwayfat American Univ of Beirut Philadelphia Coll of Pharmacy and Science.

Chief Pharmacist The English Pharmacy Khartoum Sudan 33-36 Univ Pharmacist and Instructor in Pharmacy American Univ of Beirut 58-61 Adjunct Prof of Pharmacy 42-49 Assoc. Prof of Pharmacy and Acting Dir School of Pharmacy 49-52 Assoc Prof School of Pharmacy 52 Prof and Dir 55 also Dir Pharmaceutical Service of Univ Hospital 49-67 mem American Pharmaceutical Assoc. American Soc. of Hospital Pharmacists Int. Pharmaceutical Fed Scientific Section mem Expert Advisory Panel on the Int. Pharmacopoeia and Pharmaceutical Preparation (WHO) Sec High Comm on Drugs Lebanon Chair Scientific Cttee Lebanese Order of Pharmacists 52-67 Temp Adviser to WHO (Eastern Mediterranean Region) on pharmaceutical educ 63-70 Editor Lebanese Pharmaceutical Journal 53 Hon. Fellow Univ of Wisconsin Madison USA 58 July 59 American University of Beirut Beirut Lebanon

Haddad, Mustapha H., Ph.D. Syrian university professor b 1930 ed Damascus Univ and Univ of Paris at the Sorbonne.

Instructor High Schools of Aleppo 54 postgraduate studies in France 59 Instructor Faculty of Science Damascus Univ 60 Minister of Educ 63-66 Asst Prof Faculty of Science Damascus Univ 64 now Minister of Higher Educ Rep of Syria to 24th Session of UNESCO 66 Vice-Chair Syrian Del to Conf of Arab Ministers of Educ, Kuwait 68 Faculty of Science Damascus University Damascus Syrian Arab Republic

Haddad, Sulaiman Ahmed El, Kuwaiti banker and politician b 1930 ed Kuwait Azazmeh Secondary School and Cairo Univ Secretary of Educ. Council of Kuwait Imr Financial Asst Ministry of Educ and mem Constituent Assembly for formation of Kuwaiti Constitution mem. National Assembly 63 Chair Arab African Bank. Arab African Bank 44 Abdel Khalek Sarwat Street Cairo U.A.R.

Hadi, Dr Abdel Karim, Iraqi doctor and politician b 1928 ed Medical Coll Baghdad Former Dir - Gen of Medical Services Ministry of Health Minister of Labour and Social Affairs 63-65 and May July 67 c/o Ministry of Labour Baghdad Iraq

Hadi, Hussain Abdul ; Iraqi businessman b. 1908 Former merchant mem. Baghdad Chamber of Commerce 30 mem Admin Board later Sec Vice-Pres Pres 63-67 Abdul Ali Al Hindi Building Rashid Street Baghdad Iraq

Hadi Mohammed Haj Hussein, a sc (econ) Iraqi economist b 1906 ed American Univ of Beirut and London School of Economics Finance Inspector 31 in charge of Statistics Section Min of Finance 32 of Commerce Section 34 Acting Dir of Commerce 35 Acting Dir Gen of Revenue 36 elected deputy for Mosul 37 48 54 Vice Pres Nat Democratic Party 46-54 Minister of Supply 46 Minister of Finance 58-60 Founder of Nat Progressive Party 60 Saadun Baghdad Iraq

Hadi Messali Ahmed bin, Algerian politician b 1893 Service in French Army First World War f independence movement L'Etoile Nord Africain 25 banned and imprisoned 29 34 35 f *Al Oumma* (The Nation) 29 f Algerian People's Party imprisoned during subsequent disturbances 56 39 41 sentenced to sixteen years hard labour 41 pardoned placed in enforced residence 43 45 restored as nationalist leader but then sent to Brazzaville 45 47 f Movement for the Triumph of Democratic Liberties (M.T.L.D.) (later split into M.N.A. and F.L.N.) 47 in enforced residence France 52 62 Imr Pres M.N.A. Algiers Algeria.

Hadi Ioannou, Kyracos, Ph.D. Cypriot teacher and diplomatist b 1909 ed Famagusta Gymnasium Athens Univ and Oxford Univ Greek Master Kyrenia Gymnasium 32-35 Famagusta 36-45 Principal Famagusta Gymnasium 46-48 57 60 63 69 Amb to U.A.R. 60-63 Lecturer Teachers Training Coll Morphou 48 53 Principal Morphou Gymnasium 53 57 Pres United Nat Solid Front 57 59 Founder and Pres Philological and Scientific Soc of Famagusta 60-61 64-71 Fellow Royal Anthropological Inst of Great Britain and Ireland 46- Grand Cordon of the Repub (U.A.R.) *Publs The Loan words of Medieval and Modern Greek Cypriot Dialect* 36 *Cypriot Fables* 48 *Literary Texts of the Medieval and Modern Greek Cypriot Dialect with Introductions and Commentaries* 61 *Ta en Diaspora* 69 *Diplomacy and machinations in the Courts of the Lusignan Kings of Cyprus* 70 *Ay Spyridon* 8 Famagusta 58 Cyprus

Hafez, Maj-Gen Amin El, Syrian army officer and politician b 1911 Former Military Attaché in Argentina took part in the revolution of March 1963 Dep Prime Minister Mil Gov of Syria and Minister of Interior March Aug 63 Minister of Defence and Army Chief of Staff July Aug 63 C. in C of Armed Forces July 63 64 Pres of Revolutionary Council July 63 May 64 Pres Presidency Council May 64 Feb 66 Prime Minister Nov 63 May 64 Oct 64 Sept 65 Damascus Syria

Hag, Ali Nasr El, B.A. Sudanese university official b 1907 ed Gordon Memorial Coll and American Univ of Beirut On staff of Gordon Memorial Coll 35-47 Vice-Principal Inst of Education Ruda 47 51 Asst Dir (Personnel) Ministry of Education 52 54 Dep Dir 54 56 Dir 56 58 Vice Chancellor Khartoum Univ 58 62 mem. Public Service Comm 55 Dir Sudan Board of Barclays Bank D.C.O. 62 Assoc Univ of London Inst of Educ 50 Hon LL.D. Univ of Khartoum 67 c/o Barclays Bank Gamhouna Avenue Khartoum, Sudan

Hagery, Youssef, M.D. B.S. Saudi Arabian physician and politician b 1918 ed Univ of Cairo Doctor Mecca Hospital 43 44 Medical Officer Ministry of Finance 44 51 Chief Medical Officer Jeddah Municipality 51 56 Dir Quarantine Hospital and Maternity Hospital Jeddah 56 59 WHO Fellowship 59 Ministry of

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Health, Riyadh 60, Dir. of Technical Office, and Medical Officer Riyadh Area 61-62; Minister of Health 62-66. Malaz, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.

Haidar, Selim, D. en D., L. ès L.; Lebanese lawyer and diplomatist; b. 1911; ed. Lycée français, Beirut, and Univ. of Paris.

Magistrate 38; Examining Magistrate, Beirut 41; Counsellor, Court of Appeal 44; Chargé d'Affaires, Iran May-Sept. 46; Minister to Iran 46-52, concurrently Minister to Afghanistan 51-52; Minister of Education, Health, Social Affairs and Defence, Oct. 52-53; Minister of Agriculture and Communications 54; Ambassador to Morocco 58-63, to U.S.S.R. 63-66; M.P. 68; Commdr. Order of Cedar (Lebanon).

Publs. *La Prostitution et la Traite des Femmes et des Enfants* 37, *Afāgh* (Collection of poetry in Arabic) 46, *Alsinat Al Zaman* (verse play), *Hawl Ashshi'r* (studies on poetry), *Ashwaak* (poems).

Rue Omar Hamad, Beirut, Lebanon.

Haikal, Yousef, PH.D., D. en DROIT; Jordanian diplomatist; b. 15 Aug. 1912; ed. Arab Coll. Jerusalem and Univs. of London and Paris.

Gen. Inspector of Awqaf (Moslem Public Properties in Palestine); District Judge (Palestine) 43-45; Mayor of Jaffa 45-48; Minister to U.S.A. 49-53; Chief Jordan Del. with Mixed Armistice Comm., Jerusalem 53-54; Ambassador to Great Britain 54-56, to France 56-57, 62-64, to U.S.A. 57-58, 59-62, to Republic of China 64-65; Istiqlal Medal (1st Class).

Publs. include (in French) *The Prime Minister and the Evolution of the Parliamentary System*, *The Dissolution of Parliament*; (in Arabic) *The Palestine Problem, Towards Arab Unity*.

c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Amman, Jordan.

Haithem, Muhammad Ali; Yemeni politician; b. 1940, Dathina, Southern Arabia.

Formerly school teacher; Minister of Interior 67; mem. Presidential Council of S. Yemen 69; Chair. Council of Ministers 69; mem. Nat. Front Gen. Command.

Officer of the Chairman of the Council of Ministers, Aden, People's Democratic Republic of Yemen.

Haji, Qadi Mohammed bin Ismail bin Yousef Al-; Yemen politician; b. 1927; ed. Taiz and Amira School, Thamar. Assistant to his father, Qadi Ismail Al-Haji 42-54; Clerk at Sharia Court, Taiz 54-55, Deputy Qadi 55-58; mem. Appeals Cttee., Royal Diwan 58-62; Chief of Legal Affairs, Sana'a and Qadi of Sana'a Province 62-63; mem. Court of Appeal, Sana'a 63, later Dep. Pres. and Pres.; Minister of Justice 64-66, 67-.

Publ. *Comparative Studies of Temporal and Sharia Law* 64. c/o Ministry of Justice, Sana'a, Yemen Arab Republic.

Hakim, Abdul Karim; Afghan politician; b. 25 June 1924, Mazar-i-Sharif; ed. Habibia, Kabul Coll. of Letters, Columbia and Texas Univs.

Vice-Pres. Afghan Air Authority 56-63; Deputy Minister of Finance 57-60; fmr. Gov. Herat, Helmand; Minister of Communications 67, of Finance 67-70, of Agric. and Irrigation 70; mem. Econ. Council 69-70; Afghan Del. to Econ. Cttee. UN 55, 56, 69, IBRD and IMF 55, 56, 57, 67, Colombo Plan 61, ECAFE 56, ECAFE Ministerial Meeting 70.

Publs. *Our Economic Problems* (Persian) 56, *Economic Report of Afghanistan* (English) 55, *Facts About Transit Difficulties* (English) 56, *Govt. Acct. System of Afghanistan* (Persian) 64.

c/o Ministry of Finance, Kabul, Afghanistan.

Hakim, George: (see Maximos V Hakim).

Hakim, Georges, M.A., L. en D.; Lebanese diplomatist; b. 1913; ed. American Univ., Beirut, and Univ. St. Joseph. Appointed Adjunct Prof. of Economics, American Univ.,

Beirut 43; mem. of several advisory govt. cttees. on economic and financial questions 42-46; appointed alternate del. of Lebanon to Economic and Social Council of U.N. 46; Chief Del. 49; Counsellor Lebanese Legation Washington, D.C. 46-52, Chargé d'Affaires 48 and 51; Minister of Finance, Nat. Economy and Agriculture 52-53; represented Lebanon at numerous int. confs. including Int. Health Conf. N.Y. 46, U.N. Conf. on Trade and Employment, London 46, Geneva 47, Havana 47-48, etc.; Board of Govs. of the Int. Bank for Reconstruction and Development and the Int. Monetary Fund 47-50; Vice-Chair. Economic and Financial Cttee. U.N. 49; Chair. Group of Experts on economic development of underdeveloped countries, apptd. by Sec.-Gen. of U.N. Feb.-May 51; Minister of Foreign Affairs and of Economy 53; Deputy Sec.-Gen. Ministry of Foreign Affairs Mar.-July 55; Minister to German Fed. Republic July 55-57, Ambassador 57-58; Minister of Nat. Economy Mar.-June 56; Perm. Rep. to UN 59-65, 66; Chair. UN Comm. on Human Rights 62; Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Foreign Affairs July 65-Feb. 66, Dec. 66-67; Vice-Pres. American Univ. of Beirut 68-.

American University of Beirut, Beirut, Lebanon.

Hakim, Tewfik Al-; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) writer; b. 1902.

Leading playwright; mem. Acad. of the Arabic Language, Higher Council of the Arts, etc.

Publs. *The Confused Sultan* 59, *Scheherezade*, *Pygmalion*, *The Cave-Dweller*, *You Who are Climbing the Tree* 63, *A Magistrate's Diary*, *Solomon the Wise*, *Bird of Lebanon*. Higher Council of the Arts, 4 Brazil Street, Zamalek, Cairo, U.A.R.

Hakki, Abdul Rahman; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) diplomatist; b. 16 Nov. 1891; ed. Egyptian Univ.

Investigating Officer Cairo City Police 13-21; District Commr. Provincial Admin. 21-23; Vice-Consul Kavalla, Salonika and Piraeus 23-25; Consul Hamburg 25-27; Sub-Dir. of Political and Commercial Dept. Ministry of Foreign Affairs 27-28; Consul Istanbul 29-31; 1st Sec. Egyptian Legation Paris 31-34; Counsellor Embassy London 34-39; Minister to Iraq and Saudi Arabia 39-40; Minister to Turkey 40-43; Sec.-Gen. Ministry of Foreign Affairs 43-45; Minister to Syria and Lebanon 45-47; Minister to Italy 47-49; Under-Sec. of State, Ministry of Foreign Affairs 50-53; Amb. to Great Britain Jan. 53-55; Grand Officer of the Order of the Nile, of the Republic, Egypt; Officer of the Légion d'Honneur, France; Grand Cross Order of Merit, Italy, Spain, Cuba; Grand Cordon Order of Independence, Libya; Grand Officer Order of Merit, Commander Order of Omayya, Syria; Grand Cordon Order of Cedar, Lebanon; Grand Cross Order of Phoenix, Greece. 10 rue Ahmed Nassim, Giza, U.A.R.

Halefoğlu, Vahit M., M.A.; Turkish diplomatist; b. 1919; ed. Antakya Coll. and Univ. of Ankara.

Turkish Foreign Service 43-, served Vienna, Moscow, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, London 46-59; Dir.-Gen. First Political Dept., Ministry of Foreign Affairs 59-62; Ambassador to Lebanon 62-65, concurrently accred. to Kuwait 64-65; Ambassador to U.S.S.R. 65-66; Ambassador to the Netherlands 66-70; Deputy Sec.-Gen. for Political Affairs, Ministry of Foreign Affairs; Greek, Italian, German and Spanish decorations.

Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Ankara, Turkey.

Halevy, Moshe; Israeli theatrical director and producer; b. 1895; ed. Nijny-Novgorod, and Technical Univ. in Moscow.

Actor and producer Habimah Theatre, Moscow 18-25; founder and Dir. Ohel Theatre, Tel-Aviv 25-; founded a Yemenite Group Theatre in Tel-Aviv, Bereshith Dramatic School in Jerusalem, Duchan Dramatic School and Experi-

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

mental Theatre Tel Aviv now Producer and Dir Moshe Halevy's Group Theatre Tel Aviv
9 Dov Hos Street Tel Aviv Israel

Halkin, Simon, B.A. M.A. D.Lit. American Hebrew scholar and author b 30 Oct 1899 Dovsk Russia ed N.Y. City Coll Chicago New York and Columbia Univs.

Instructor in Hebrew Hebrew Union School for Teachers New York City 24 32 Teacher Gushat High School Tel-Aviv 32 39 Lecturer in Bible Jewish History and Sociology and Modern Jewish History Chicago Coll. of Jewish Studies 40-43 Prof of Hebrew and Hebrew Literature Jew Inst. of Religion New York City 43 49 Assoc. Prof. of Hebrew Literature Hebrew Univ. of Jerusalem 49-56 Prof and Head of Dept. 56- Visiting Prof. Univ. of Calif 54 55 Jewish Theological Seminary N.Y. 65-66 Emer. Hebrew Univ. of Jerusalem 66 mem Acad. of Hebrew Language Pres. Israel PEN Club Tchernobovsk Prize for translation (of Whitman) 53 Bulb Prize for Literature 68

Publ. *Yehi Ha Hagra* (novel) 28 *Arav ha Arav* 43 *Ad Nahter* 45 *Al Havi* (collected poems) 46 *Ala arav* 47 *Abot* (collected poems) *Modern Hebrew Literature Trends and Aims* 51 *Literatura Hebraica Moderna* 68 *Collected Literary Essays and Studies* (3 vols. Hebrew) 70 and numerous others translations of Shakespeare Maeterlinck Whitman Shelley Jack London etc
5 Radak Street, Jerusalem Israel

Hall, Harvey Porter, M.A. American executive b 16 Nov 1909 ed. Union Coll and Harvard Univ.
Instructor American Univ. of Beirut 30 33 Robert Coll Istanbul 35-41 Dept. of State Washington D.C. 45 46 Dir. of Publs. The Middle East Inst. and Editor *The Middle East Journal* 46-56 Ford Foundation Fellowship 5 53 Programme Assoc. Ford Foundation 56-64 71 Assoc. Dir. Middle East Africa Programme 64 67 Assoc. Rep. Beirut 67 71

Publ. *American Interests in the Middle East* (Foreign Policy Assoc. Headline Series) 48
Ford Foundation P.O. Box 2379 Beirut Lebanon

Hamad Abdullatif Yusef Al-, Kuwaiti economist.
Director-General Kuwait Fund for Arab Econ. Devt 63
Man. Dir. Kuwait Investment Co. Chair Prefabricated Buildings Co. of Kuwait United Bank of Kuwait Ltd London Trustee Kuwait Inst. of Econ. and Social Planning in the Middle East mem. Perm. Cttee for Aid to the Arabian Gulf and Yemen.
Kuwait Fund for Arab Economic Development P.O. B 2921 Kuwait City Kuwait

Hamid Staff Col. Subhi Abdel, Iraqi army officer and politician b 31 Jan 1924 ed Military Coll and Staff Coll. Baghdad and Staff Coll. Camberley England
Graduated Military Coll. of Baghdad 48 Iraqi Army Service 48-63 Instructor Staff Coll. Baghdad 59 Feb 63 Minister of Foreign Affairs Nov 63 Nov 64 of the Interior 64-65 arrested July 65 Rafidain Order (1st Class) and foreign decorations
Yarmouk 107 29 Baghdad Iraq

Hammad, Salama Ibrahim, B.A. M.A. Ph.D. United Arab Republic (Egyptian) university president b 22 April 1909 ed Cairo Univ. Inst. of Education Cairo Exeter Univ. and Univ. of London
Teacher in Govt. Secondary Schools for five years Inst. Prof. of Comparative Educ. Ain Shams Univ. attached to Ministry of Foreign Affairs 56- Cultural Counsellor Beirut and Washington 60 Dir.-Gen. Foreign Cultural Relations 60-63 Under Sec. of State for Foreign Cultural Relations 63-65 Pres. Beirut Arab Univ 65 mem. Del. to UNESCO 60 62 64 66 Suppliat at Exec. Council 67

Publs. Series of books for English reading a book on Shakespeare various translations
Beirut Arab University El Tareek Elguidida Beirut Lebanon

Handley, William J., B.A. American diplomatist b 17 Dec 1918 ed Univs of London and Maryland American Univ.

With War Production Board 42 44 Foreign Econ. Admin. 44 joined Foreign Service 44 served on numerous posts in Middle East Labor Admin. Bureau of Near Eastern South Asian and African Affairs 49 New Delhi 51 52 transferred to U.S. Information Agency 53 Chief Near Eastern Policy Staff 55 Dep. Asst. Dir. Near East South Asia and Africa 56 Asst. Dir. 57 Dir. Information Center Service 60 Ambassador to Mali 61-64 Deputy Asst. Sec. of State for Near Eastern and S. Asian Affairs 64 69 Amb. to Turkey 69-
American Embassy Ankara Turkey

Hare, Raymond Arthur, A.B. American diplomatist b 3 April 1901 ed. Grinnell Coll.

Instructor Robert Coll. Constantinople 24 27 Exec. Sec. American Chamber of Commerce for Levant 26-27 Clerk, later Vice Consul U.S. Consulate-Gen. Constantinople 27 28 Language Officer Paris 29 also Vice-Consul 31 Sec. in Diplomatic Service and Vice Consul Cairo 31 Beirut 32 Third Sec. and Vice-Consul Teheran 33 Consul 35 Second Sec. Cairo 39 also at Jeddah 40-44 also Consul Cairo 40 Second Sec. later First Sec. and Consul London 44 Dept. of State 46 Nat. War Coll. 46 47 Chief Div. of S. Asian Affairs 47 Deputy Dir. Office of Near East and African Affairs 48 Deputy Asst. Sec. State for Near East S. Asian and African Affairs Oct. 49 Ambassador to Saudi Arabia and Minister to Yemen 50-53 Ambassador to Lebanon 53 54 Dir.-Gen. U.S. Foreign Service 54 56 Ambassador to Egypt 56-58 to United Arab Republic 58-59 also Minister to Yemen 59 Dep. Under-Sec. of State for Pol. Affairs 60-61 Ambassador to Turkey 61-63 Asst. Sec. of State for Near Eastern and South Asian Affairs 65 66 Pres. Middle East Inst. 66-69 Nat. Chair 69-
Middle East Institute 1761 N Street N.W. Washington D.C. 20036 3214 39th Street N.W. Washington D.C. 20016 U.S.A.

Harkavy, Rabbi Zvi, B.A. M.A. Th.D. Israeli (b Russian) author and bibliographer b 1 Feb 1908 ed Inst. in U.S.S.R. Jerusalem Teachers Seminary Haifa Technion Hebrew Univ. of Jerusalem Petach Tikva Yeshiva Rabbinical Seminary C.S.R.A.

Leader in Zion underground in U.S.S.R. emigrated to Palestine 26 schoolmaster and lecturer Jerusalem Teachers Seminars 30- Dir. Eretz Yisrael Publishing House 35 Chaplain in Israeli Army 48 49 Dir. Dept. of Refugees in Ministry of War Casualties and later Editor of Ministry of Religious Affairs Monthly 49 53 Dir. Central Rabbinical Library of Israel 53-68 Editor *Hasefer* 54 participated in many world congresses Visiting Prof. Yeshiva Univ. N.Y. 59 lectured at U.S.S.R. Acad. of Sciences Leningrad 62 one of the founders of the Religious Academics and Authors Orgs and Inst. Chair. Leader Hapoel Hamizrachi Great Israel Movement an Editor of the *General Encyclopedia* and of numerous periodicals and 100 books komemut Hamishmar Hagannah Ale Hagana Yerusha layim and Etzayon Medals

Publs. Biographies *Rambam Rabbi Shmuel Strashun Rabbi Meir Strashun Rabbi I. M. Pines Professor Simcha Assaf A. E. Harkavy Rabbi Benven Katz*—*Chief Rabbi of Petach Tikva The Family Mashil Leytan The Family Harkavy Essays Jews of Salonica The Jewish Community of Ekaerimslav Scipitism of Pascal The Man The Plant The Animal Inorganic Nature The Secret of Happy Marriage Sexual Hygiene from the Religious and Scientific*

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Viewpoint; Shomrei Hagachelet—Responsa of Soviet Rabbis 66, *My Father's Home* 68, *Autobiography* 71; also 1,100 articles and papers on Rabbinics, bibliography, theology, philosophy, archaeology, philology, history and the Dead Sea Scrolls.

P.O. Box 7031, 7 Haran Street, Jerusalem, Israel.

Harman, Avraham, B.A.; Israeli diplomatist; b. 1914; ed. Oxford Univ.

Moved to Palestine 38; held posts in Jewish Agency 38-48; Deputy Dir. Govt. Information Bureau 48-49; Consul-Gen. Montreal 49-50; Dir. Israel Information Office, N.Y. 50-53; Consul-Gen. Washington 53-55; Ministry of Foreign Affairs 55-56; Exec. Jewish Agency 56-59; Ambassador to the U.S.A. 59-68; Pres. Hebrew Univ. 68-.

The Hebrew University, Jerusalem, Israel.

Hart, Parker T.; American diplomatist; b. 28 Sept. 1910; ed. Dartmouth Coll., Harvard and Georgetown Univs., Institut Universitaire de Hautes Etudes Internationales, Geneva, and School of Foreign Service.

Translator, Dept. of State 37-38; Foreign Service Officer 38-69, served Vienna, Pará (Brazil), Cairo, Jeddah, Dhahran 38-47; Dept. of State 47-49; Consul-Gen. Dhahran 49-51; Nat. War Coll. 51-52; Dir. Office of Near Eastern Affairs, Dept. of State 52-55; Dep. Chief of Mission and Counsellor, Cairo 55-58; Consul-Gen., Damascus 58; Dep. Asst. Sec. of State, Near East and South Asia Affairs 58-61; Ambassador to Saudi Arabia 61-65, concurrently Minister to Kingdom of Yemen 61-62 and Amb. to Kuwait 62-63; Amb. to Turkey 65-68; Asst. Sec. of State for Near Eastern and South Asian Affairs 68-69; Dir. Foreign Service Inst. 69; Pres. Middle East Inst., Washington, D.C. 69-; Co-Pres. American-Turkish Soc., N.Y.; mem. Royal Central Asian Soc.

American Embassy, Ankara, Turkey.

Harvey, John F (rederick), PH.D.; American librarian and university professor; b. 24 Aug. 1921; ed. Dartmouth Coll., Univ. of Illinois, Univ. of Chicago.

Dean and Prof. Graduate School of Library Science, Drexel Inst. of Technology, Philadelphia 58-67; Chair. Dept. of Library Science, Coll. of Educ., Univ. of Teheran 67-68, Prof. 67-71; Technical Dir. Iranian Documentation Centre and Teheran Book Processing Centre 68-71; Library Consultant, Iran, Pakistan, Lebanon 68-71; mem. Eisenhower Fellowship Cttee., U.S. Embassy, Teheran 70; Founder, Hon. Life, and mem. of numerous assns. and learned socs.

Publs. *Data Processing in Public and University Libraries* 66, *Comparative and International Library Science* 72, and various articles in specialist journals.

P.O. Box 1286, Teheran, Iran.

Telephone: 829567.

Hasairi, Ahmed Al; Libyan politician.

Nazir of Educ. in the Tripoli Provincial Govt.; Minister of Defence 60-61; Minister of Finance 62; Chair. Board of Dirs. Tripoli Int. Fair 63-.

Tripoli International Fair, P.O. Box 819, Tripoli, Libya.

Hasan, Fai'k; Iraqi artist; b. 1914; ed. Acad. des Beaux Arts, Paris.

Founded Iraq Société Primitive; Founded Arts Section, Inst. of Fine Arts, Baghdad 39; Winner of Prize at French Biennale 64.

c/o Ministry of Culture and Guidance, Baghdad, Iraq.

Hasani, Baqir Husain, B.Sc., LL.B.; Iraqi diplomatist; b. 15; ed. Columbia Univ., New York and Baghdad Law Coll. Dir. of Commerce and Registrar of Companies, Iraq Ministry of Econs. 47-51; Dir.-Gen. of Contracts and Econ. Affairs, Development Board 51-54; Dir.-Gen. of Income Tax, Ministry of Finance 56-57; Dir.-Gen. and Chair. of Board of Dirs. Tobacco Monopoly Admin. 57-59; Minister to Austria 59-62, Ambassador 62-63; Chair. Board of Govs.

Int. Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) 61-62, Special Adviser to Dir.-Gen. 63-.

c/o International Atomic Energy Agency, Vienna 1010, Kaerntnerring 11, Austria; and Masbah, Karradah, Baghdad, Iraq.

Haseeb, Dr. Khair-El-Din; Iraqi economist and statistician.

Director-General Iraqi Fed. of Industries 60-63; mem. Planning Board 63-; Gov., Central Bank of Iraq 63-66; Chair. Social Security Board 63-65; Econ. Establishment 64-65; Asst. Prof. in Econs., Coll. of Econs. and Political Science 66-; mem. Board of Iraq Nat. Oil Co. 67-.

Publ. *The National Income of Iraq* 1953-61 64.

15/18/4, Al-Mansoor, Baghdad, Iraq.

Hashim, Ahmed Naguib, B.A., M.A.; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) educationist and diplomatist; b. 1907; ed. Univ. of Liverpool, England.

Ministry of Education 28-61, teacher, inspector, headmaster, Dir. of Educational Missions; Dir. Egyptian Cultural Inst., London 45-46; Cultural Attaché, Washington 46-50; Registrar, Univ. of Alexandria 51-54; Asst. Under-Sec., Under-Sec., Ministry of Education 54-58; U.A.R. Minister of Education 58-61; Ambassador to Italy 61-67; numerous decorations.

Publs. *Egypt in Ancient Times, The Ancient East, Modern and Contemporary History, Atlas of 19th Century Europe.*

c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Cairo, U.A.R.

Hassan II, King of Morocco; 17th Sovereign of the Alouite dynasty; b. 9 July 1929; ed. Bordeaux Univ.

Son of Mohammed V; invested as Crown Prince Moulay Hassan 57; C-in-C. and Chief of Staff of Royal Moroccan Army 57; personally directed rescue operations at Agadir earthquake disaster 60; Minister of Defence May 60-June 61; Vice-Premier May 60-Feb. 61; Prime Minister Feb. 61-Nov. 63, June 65-; Commr.-in-Chief Moroccan Armed Forces; succeeded to throne on death of his father, Feb. 26th, 1961; Children: Princess Myriam b. 62, Prince Mohamed b. 63, Princess Asma b. 65.

Royal Palace, Rabat, Morocco.

Hassan, Mahmoud Ali, PH.D.; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) engineer; b. 17 July 1915; ed. Cairo and Zürich Univs.

Director-General Industrial Control Dept. 56-59; Under-Sec. of State for Industry 59-61; Chair. Org. for Engineering Industries 61-66; Pres. Fed. of U.A.R. Industries; Order of Trade and Industry (1st Class).

Publs. *Druckverluste in Abzweigen von quadratischen Kanälen, Anwendungen der elektrolytischen Methode auf die Bettsche Theorie der Spaltverluste an Schaufelgittern.*

45 Road 15 Maadi, Cairo, United Arab Republic.

Hassani, Mussa; Algerian politician.

Minister of Posts, Telephones and Telecommunications 62-63; leading opponent of Ben Bella régime 63-65; gave himself up Jan. 65.

c/o Ministry of Justice, Algiers, Algeria.

Hassouna, Mohammed Abdel-Khalek; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) diplomatist; b. 28 Oct. 1898; ed. Cairo Univ. and Cambridge Univ.

Began as lawyer 21; then joined Diplomatic Corps, served in Berlin 26, Prague 28, Brussels 28, Rome 30, Ministry for Foreign Affairs Cairo 32-39; Under-Sec. of State, Ministry of Social Affairs 39; served in Diplomatic Service in Belgium, Italy, Germany, Czechoslovakia; Gov. of Alexandria 42; Under-Sec. of State for Foreign Affairs 48; Minister of Social Affairs, Sirry Cabinet Nov. 49-Jan. 50; Minister of Education, Maher Cabinet Jan.-Mar. 52; Minister of Foreign Affairs, Hilaly Cabinet Mar.-June and July 52; Sec.-Gen. League of Arab States Sept. 52-; Grand Cordon Order of the Nile (Egypt); Legion of Honour

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

(France), decorations conferred by Belgium, China Italy and Ethiopia.

League of Arab States Midan al Tahrir, Cairo U A R

Haleem, Mohamed Abdul Kader; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) politician, ed. Cairo Univ
Minister of State 61-62, Dep. Prime Minister for Culture and Guidance 64-66, mem. Gen. Sec. Arab Socialist Union 66.
General Secretariat of the Arab Socialist Union, Cairo, United Arab Republic

Hawley, Donald Frederick, C.M.G., M.B.E., British diplomatist, b. 22 May 1921; ed. Radley and New Coll. Oxford
H.M. Forces 41, Sudan Political Service 44 joined Sudan Judiciary 47, called to Bar Inner Temple 51, Chief Registrar, Sudan Judiciary, and Registrar Gen. of Mar. rages 51, resigned from Sudan Service 55 joined U.K. Foreign Service 55 Foreign Office 56 Political Agent, Trical States in Dubai 58 Head of Chancery British Embassy, Cairo 62 Counsellor and Head of Chancery, Lagos 65 Visiting Fellow, Dept. of Geography Durham Univ. 67 Counsellor (Commercial), Baghdad 68 71 Chargé d'Affaires in Iraq 69 70, Consul Gen. Muscat 71, Amb. to Oman 71
Publ. *The Trucial States* 71.
British Embassy, Muscat, Oman

Hayek, His Beatitude Ignace Antoine, O.F.M., O.S.B., Syrian ecclesiastic, b. 14 Sept 1910 ed. Séminaire Patriarcal Charlé Lebanon, Pontifical Coll., Rome and Oriental Pontifical Inst., Rome
Ordained priest 33, successively or concurrently Dir. of School, Curate and Vicar-Gen., Aleppo, Archbishop of Aleppo 59-68, Syrian Patriarch March 68.
Patriarch Syrien Catholique d'Antioche, Beirut, Lebanon

Hedayat, Gen. Abdollah; Iranian army officer and politician b. 1899, ed. Moshroodowieh Mil School and French Staff Coll.
Regular army officer; former posts include Commr. Staff Coll., and Chief Mil. Mission in U.S., Minister of Defence 54 55, four Joint Chief of Staff, arrested July 65, awards include Order of Honour, Danesh, Homayoon, Koosheh, Pas and Azarabadegan decorations, Légion d'Honneur, U.S. Merit Decoration
c/o Ministry of Justice, Teheran, Iran

Hedayat, Khesrow; Iranian engineer, b. 1905 ed. Belgium (Civil Engineering).
Worked on French Railways until 31, worked for Ministry of Roads Iran 32, Deputy, later Chief of Railroads Dept., later Deputy Minister of Roads, Min. of Plan Org., Amb. to Belgium, now Head of High Board of Auditors Nat. Iranian Oil Co.
National Iranian Oil Company, Takhte Jamshid Street, P.O. Box 1863, Teheran, Iran

Hedayati, Hadi; Iranian educationalist and politician, b. 1923, ed. Teheran Univ., Faculté de Droit, Paris Univ. and Sorbonne, Paris
Assistant Prof. Teheran Univ. 52-62, Prof. 62-63; Legal Counsellor, Iran Insurance Co. 52-57, Counsellor, High Council of Econs. 57-60, High Counsellor, Ministry of Commerce 60 Exec. Man Bimeh (Insurance) Bank 60 62, Deputy to Majlis 63-, Advisory Minister 63, Minister of Educ. 64 68 Advisory Minister 68, Homayoon Medal, Palme Académique (France), Imperial Award for best book of the year 58 59
Publ. *History of the Zand Dynasty in Iran, A Study of Iranian Handwritten Works in the 13th Hegyza Century*, *Cyrus the Great* translations into Persian *History of Herodotus The Principles of Administrative Management* Transhahr Avenue, Kamyar Street, Teheran, Iran

Hedayati, Mohammad Ali; Iranian lawyer and politician, b. 1912, ed. Teheran and Geneva Univs., Geneva Inst. of Int. Studies and Inst. of Criminology of Faculty of Law, Univ. of Paris
Military service 35 joined Iranian Judicial Service 36, mem. Dept. of Legislative Revisions 37, Dep. Public Prosecutor of Teheran 37 38, Interrogator for Teheran 38-40, Judge of the Court of Appeal (Teheran) 40, Advocate in Courts of Justice 40, transferred to Ministry of Education 40 Assoc. Prof., Faculty of Law, Teheran Univ. 40-45 Prof. of Law of Criminal Procedure 45-46, Minister of Justice 58 61, mem. 16th and 19th Sessions of Majlis, Order of Homayoon (First Class) 60
Publ. *Les Mesures de Sûreté* (French), *The Law of Criminal Procedure* (Persian), *Economics* (Persian)
Teheran University, Teheran, Iran

Heikal, Mohammed Hasanein; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) journalist, b. 1923
Reporter Akher Saa Magazine 44, Editor *Al Akhbar* 56-57 Editor in-Chief *Al-Ahram* daily newspaper 57-58, Editor and Chair Establishment Board 60, mem. Central Cttee. Arab Socialist Union 68, Minister of Nat. Guidance April 70-Oct 70
Publ. *Nahnu u a America* 67 and 8 others
Al Ahram Building, Galaa Street, Cairo U A R

Hejazi, Moharim; Iranian writer and politician, b. 1899 ed. French School, Teheran and Ecole Libre des Sciences Politiques, Paris
Joined Ministry of Posts, served Dept. of Customs, Ministries of Finance and Educ., Office of Press Censor, Dept. of Public and Propaganda, twice Asst. to Prime Minister, Senator 54, mem. Iranian Academy, Royal Cultural Council of Iran, Chair Iran-Pakistan Cultural Soc., two Royal Literary Prizes
Publ. thirty literary works, including *Ahang*, *Andisheh*, *Homa*, *Parichehr*, *Raza Penhan*, *Zaghar*, *Ziba*; also several translations
34 rue Yards Teheran, Iran

Hekmat, Ali Asghar; Iranian politician, educationist and writer, b. 1893, ed. American High School and Univ. of Paris
Dir.-Gen. of Education 28 30, Acting Minister of Education, Religious Foundations and Fine Arts 33 34 Minister of Education 34-37, Pres. Teheran Univ. 35 38, Prof. of Persian Literature 40-, Pres. Iranian Acad. 38, Minister of the Interior 39-40, of Public Health 41-43, of Justice 43, head of cultural mission to India 44, Pres. Iranian Nat. Comm. for UNESCO 46-54, Minister without Portfolio June 47, Vice-Pres. Iranian Red Cross 48-57, Minister of Foreign Affairs 48 50, 58 59 Ambassador to India, concurrently Minister to Thailand 54-58, leader of several delts., numerous Persian and foreign decorations, hon. mem. Arab Acad.; Hon. Ph.D.
Publ. *Sarzarmin-e Hind*, *Shakuntala*, translations of Shakespeare, *Djani* 43, *Mayaless-ol Nafayess* 45, *From Saadi to Djani* (history of Persian literature) 48, *Parsi-e Naghas* (anthology) 51, *Kashfol Arar* 52, *The Proverbs of the Koran* 53, *A Short History of Persian Literature* (in English) 57, *Treatise on Naval* 58, *History of Religions* (2 vols.) 60 61
Fisherabad, Teheran, Iran

Helaissi, Sheikh Abdulrahman Al-; Saudi Arabian diplomatist, b. 24 July 1922, ed. Cairo Univ. and Univ. of London
Official at Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Secretary Embassy London 47-54, Under-Sec. Ministry of Agriculture 54-57, Rep. to UN 47, and at conferences on Health, Agriculture, Wheat, Sugar and Locusts, Head of Del. to FAO 55, 61, Ambassador to Sudan 57 60, Del. to Conference of Non-

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Aligned Nations, Belgrade 61; Ambassador to Italy 61-66, to U.K., Austria and Denmark July 66-
 Publ. *The Rehabilitation of the Bedouins* 59.
 Embassy of Saudi Arabia, 27 Eaton Place, London, S.W.1, England.

Helou, Charles; Lebanese lawyer and journalist; b. 1911; ed. St. Joseph (Jesuit) Univ. and Ecole Française de Droit, Beirut.
 Barrister at Court of Appeal and Cassation Beirut 36; founded newspaper *L'Eclair du Nord* at Aleppo Syria 32; founded *Le Jour* Beirut 34; was Political Dir. of the latter until apptd. Lebanese Minister to the Vatican 47; fmr. Pres. Cercle de la Jeunesse Catholique Beirut; fmr. Sec.-Gen. Catholic Action of Lebanon; Minister of Justice and Health Sept. 54-May 55; Minister of Education Feb.-Sept. 64; President of Lebanon 64-70.
 Beirut, Lebanon.

Hendy, Sir Philip, M.A.; British art historian; b. 27 Sept. 1900; ed. Westminster School and Christ Church, Oxford. Assistant to the Keeper and Lecturer, Wallace Collection, London 23-27; studied Italian painting 27-30; Curator of Paintings Museum of Fine Arts, Boston, Mass., U.S.A. 30-33; Dir. City Art Gallery Leeds and Temple Newsam 34-45; Slade Prof. of Fine Art Oxford Univ. 36-46; Dir. Nat. Gallery 46-67; Artistic Adviser to Israel Museum, Jerusalem 68-; Pres. Int. Council of Museums 59-65; art critic *Daily Herald* 23-26, *New Statesman* 26-27, *London Mercury* 34-36, *Britain To-day* 45-52.
 Publs. *Hours in the Wallace Collection* 26, *Wallace Collection: Catalogue of Paintings and Drawings* 28, *Isabella Stewart Gardner Museum (Boston) Catalogue of Paintings and Drawings* 31, *Matthew Smith* 44, *Giovanni Bellini* 45, *Spanish Painting* 46, *The National Gallery* 55, *Masaccio* 57, *Piero della Francesca and the Early Renaissance* 68.
 Israel Museum, Jerusalem, Israel.

Henein, Georges; Egyptian writer.
 Founded surrealist weekly review *Al Tatawwor* (Evolution) 43; now lives in Paris.
 Publs. include *Deux Effigies*, *Seuil Interdit* (fantasy stories) 57.
 11B rue Vézelay, Paris 8e, France.

Henshaw, Kenneth Ralph, M.A.; British oil company executive; b. 1 Nov. 1918; ed. King's School, Canterbury and Trinity Coll., Oxford.
 Senior Vice-Pres. Sinclair and BP Explorations Inc. 59-63; Regional Man. Exploration Dept., British Petroleum Co. Ltd. 63-65; Man. Dir. Kuwait Oil Co. Ltd. 66-
 Burgan House, 105 Wigmore Street, London W.1, England.

Herbish, Mohamed Zaid Al-; Kuwaiti diplomatist.
 Formerly with Department of Social Affairs and Labour; Amb. to Japan 66-69, to Italy 70-
 Piazza Monte Grappa 4, 00195 Rome, Italy.

Herridge, Geoffrey Howard, C.M.G.; British oil company executive; b. 22 Feb. 1904; ed. Crypt School, Gloucester and St. John's Coll., Cambridge.
 Joined Turkish Petroleum Co. Ltd. (later Iraq Petroleum Co. Ltd.) Iraq 26; served in Iraq, Jordan, Palestine 26-47; Gen.-Man. in Middle East for Iraq Petroleum Co. and Assoc. Cos. 47-51, Exec. Dir. 53-57, Man. Dir. 57-63, Dep. Chair. 63-65, Chair. 65-70; fmr. Pres. Inst. of Petroleum; mem. London Cttee., Ottoman Bank 64-; Chair. Petroleum Industry Training Board 67-70.
 Flint, Sidlesham Common, nr. Chichester, Sussex, England.

Hewedy, Amin; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) diplomatist; b. 1921; ed. Military and Staff Colls., United Arab Republic, and General Staff Coll., Fort Leavenworth, U.S.A., and Press Coll., U.A.R.
 Former Army Officer; fmr. Ambassador of United Arab Republic to Morocco; Ambassador to Iraq 58, 63-66;

Minister of State 66-67, of War 67-68, of State 69-70.
 Publs. *Speeches in Strategy* 55, *Sun-Tso* 57.
 Cairo, U.A.R.

Hilali, Abdel Hamid al-, PH.D.; Iraqi economist and politician; b. 1915; ed. Berlin, Zürich and Heidelberg Univs.

Former Asst. Prof. Heidelberg Univ.; Dir. Industrial School in Baghdad, then Dir. Industrial Bank 46-50; set up Al-Ruhun Bank later first Dir. 50-53; re-elected deputy for Basra 53; Dir.-Gen. Ministry of Economy 54-58; Cultural Attaché, Bonn 58-62; Dir.-Gen. Vocational Educ. 62-63; Dir.-Gen. Dates Admin. 63-65; Minister of Economy 65-66; mem. several Arab Nationalist Asscns.; took part in preparations for first conf. of Arab Students in Europe 37.
 c/o Ministry of Economy, Baghdad, Iraq.

Himadeh, Sa'id B., B.COMM., M.A.; Lebanese university professor; b. 3 April 1894; ed. American Univ. of Beirut and Columbia Univ., U.S.A.

Lecturer in Applied Economics, American Univ. of Beirut 20, Assoc. Prof. 23, Prof. of Applied Economics 39-; Head, Dept. of Economics 35-48, of Dept. of Commerce 35-59, Emer. Prof. of Applied Economics 59-; Section Dir., Social Science Research 47-50; part-time Economic Adviser to Lebanese Ministry of Nat. Economy 47; Gen. Sec. Higher Economic Advisory Council of Lebanese Govt. 46-48; Alternate Del. to UNESCO Gen. Conf. 48; Lebanese Govt. Del. First U.N. Social Welfare Seminar for Arab States of the Middle East 49, U.N. Economic Expert, U.N. Social Welfare Seminars 50 and 52; Chief Editor *Social Studies Series* (in Arabic) 45-47 and of its successor, *Al-Abhath* (quarterly journal of American Univ. of Beirut) 48-59, mem. Economic Development Board of Lebanon 53-; FAO Consultant and Discussion Leader, Centre on Land Problems in the Near East 55; mem. UNESCO Nat. Cttee. of Lebanon 55-59; Minister of Economy and Agriculture 66-68; mem. Editorial Advisory Board, Int. Encyclopaedia of Social Sciences 61-63; mem. Board of Dirs., Industry Inst. 62-67, Lebanese Govt. Housing Board 63-; mem. Board of Trustees, Inst. for Palestine Studies; Chair. Advisory Cttee. Bank of Lebanon 66-; Order of the Cedar and other decorations.
 Publs. *Monetary and Banking System of Syria (including Lebanon)* 35, *Economic Organisation of Iraq* 38; editor and co-author: *Economic Organisation of Syria (including Lebanon)* 36, *Economic Organisation of Palestine* 38; many articles on Middle East economy.
 Home: Manara (Ras Beirut), Beirut; Office: American University of Beirut, Beirut, Lebanon.

Hindi, Hussein El Sherif El-; Sudanese politician.
 Minister of Finance, Economics and Irrigation 65; Minister of Local Govt. 66-67; Minister of Finance and Economy 67-69; National Union Party.
 c/o Ministry of Finance, Khartoum, Sudan.

Hitti, Philip Khuri, B.A., PH.D.; American orientalist; b. 24 June 1886; ed. American Univ. of Beirut, Columbia Univ.

Lecturer, Oriental Dept., Columbia Univ. 15-19; Prof., American Univ. of Beirut 19-26; Asst. Prof. Semitic Literature, Princeton 26-29, Assoc. Prof. 29-36; Chair. Dept. of Oriental Languages 44; Dir. Programme in Near-Eastern Studies 47-54; mem. American Oriental Society, American Historical Asscn., etc.; Hon. Litt.D. (Princeton) 66, Hon. L.H.D. (Amer. Univ. Beirut) 69.
 Publs. *The Origins of the Islamic State* 16, *The Semitic Languages Spoken in Syria and Lebanon* 22, *The Syrians in America* 24, *Characteristics of Moslem Sects* 24, *Syria and the Syrians* 26, *An Arab-Syrian Gentleman and Warrior in the Period of the Crusaders* 29, *The Origins of the Druze People and Religion* 29 (new edn. 64), *Kitab al I'tibar li-Usamah* 30, 64, *History of the Arabs* 37 (revised edn. 67),

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The Arabs 43-44 (revised edn 67), *History of Syria, including Lebanon and Palestine* 51, 57, *Lebanon in History* 57 (revised 67), *Syria: A Short History* 59, *The Near East in History* 61, *Islam and the West* 62, *Short History of Lebanon* 65 (revised 68), *Short History of the Near East* 66, *A Short History of Syria* 67, *Makers of Arab History* 68, *Islam: A History of Life* 70.
144 Prospect Avenue, Princeton, N J, U.S.A.

Honnelle, Michel; French company director, b. 25 Sept. 1889, ed. Ecole Polytechnique, Paris.

Joined Soc. Canal Co. 13, Sec.-Gen. 27, later becoming Asst. Gen. Man. 46, Dir. Adm. Council 53, *Officier de la Légion d'Honneur*.

61 Avenue de Neuilly, 92 Neuilly sur Seine, France.

Homood, Zafallah Al-, L. & S. D.; Jordanian politician; b. 1910, ed. Syrian Univ.

Teacher, Ministry of Educ. 34-42; Merchant, Irbid 42-43, Asst. Attorney-Gen. April-June 51; Judge July 51-54, mem. House of Reps. 54, 56, 61-63, Senate 62; Minister of Communications Oct. 54-May 55, of Educ. and Agriculture Jan.-May 56, of Interior Sept. 65-March 69, Mayor of Amman Municipality Nov. 58-July 59 60, Gov. of Amman 66-68.

c/o Ministry of Interior, Amman, Jordan

Honein, Edouard Ibrahim; Lebanese lawyer and politician, b. 1913; ed. Univ. Saint-Joseph, Beirut. Former Lawyer at Courts of Beirut, mem. Chamber of Deputies 57-; Minister of Social Affairs and Labour 61, Minister of the Plan and Tourism 66-67, Minister of Economy 68-69.

c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Beirut, Lebanon

Horowitz, David; Israeli banker, b. Feb. 1899, ed. Vienna and Lwów.

Member Exec. Cttee. Gen. Fed. of Jewish Labour 23, journalist and writer, Econ. Adviser and Sec. American Econ. Cttee. for Palestine 32-35; Dir. Econ. Dept. of Jewish Agency for Palestine; mem. various Govt. Cttees. under Mandatory Régime, and dir. various enterprises 35-48, Liaison Officer to UN Special Cttee. on Palestine 46, mem. Jewish Del. to Lake Success 47; Head of Israel Del. to Econ. Survey Comm. of UN 48; Head of Israel Del. Financial Talks on Sterling Releases between Israel and Great Britain, London 49, and in negotiations between Israel and Great Britain on econ. and financial affairs in connection with termination of the Mandate, Dir.-Gen. Ministry of Finance 48-52; Gov. Designate, Bank of Israel 52-54, Gov. 54-; Gov. (for Israel) Int. Bank for Reconstruction and Devt., Int. Devt. Assn. and Int. Finance Corp., Chair. Board of Dir., The Eliezer Kaplan School of Econ. and Social Sciences, Hebrew Univ.; mem. State Council for Higher Educ., Board of Govs. Hebrew Univ., Exec. Council Weizmann Inst. of Science, Board of Trustees of the Truman Center for the Advancement of Peace, Head, Israel Del. to UN Conf. on Trade and Devt., Geneva 64; Hon. Pres. Istituto per le Relazioni Internazionali (Rome); Dr. h.c. (Hebrew Univ. and Tel-Aviv Univ.), Israel Prize for Social Sciences 68.

Publs. *Aspects of Economic Policy in Palestine* 36, *Jewish Colonisation in Palestine* 37, *Economic Survey of Palestine* 38, *Jerry's Economic War Effort* 42, *Postwar Reconstruction* 42, *Palestine and the Middle East, An Essay in Regional Economics* 43, *Prediction and Reality in Palestine* 45, *State in the Making* 53, *Anatomie unscrupule* Zeit 64, *Hemisphères North and South* 66, *The Economics of Israel* 67, *The Abolition of Poverty* 69, *Anatomia da Nuestro Tiempo* 69, and several publs. in Hebrew.

4 Hahamed Hd Street, Jerusalem; and Bank of Israel, Jerusalem, Israel

Hourani, Akram, L. & S. D.; Syrian politician; b. 1914; ed. Univ. of St. Joseph, Beirut, and Univ. of Damascus. Member Nat. Assembly 43; wounded in Palestine war 48;

Minister of Defence, Minister of Agriculture, Dir. of Propaganda 49-50, founded Arab Socialist Renaissance Party 50; political refugee in Lebanon 52-53; Speaker of Nat. Assembly 57, Vice-Pres. U.A.R. 58-59 and Minister of Justice 58-59, under house arrest 63-65; arrested and expelled 65.

Beirut, Lebanon.

Hourani, Albert Habib, M.A.; British scholar; b. 31 March 1915; ed. Magdalen Coll., Oxford. Lecturer, American Univ. of Beirut, Lebanon 37-39; work on Arab politics for Foreign Office Research Dept. and Office of Minister Resident, Cairo 39-45, Arab Office, Jerusalem and London 45-47, Fellow, Magdalen Coll., Oxford 48-59, St. Antony's Coll., Oxford 59-; Publs. *Syria and Lebanon, a Political Essay* 46, *Minorities in the Arab World* 47, *A Vision of History* 61, *Arabic Thought in the Liberal Age* 62, *The Islamic City* (with S. M. Stern) 70.

St. Antony's College, Oxford, England.

Hourani, Cecil; British-born civil servant and theatre director.

Former Professor of Political Science, American University in Beirut; wartime work for Arab Bureau, Cairo and Washington; Counsellor of State 56-67; Dir. International Cultural Centre of Tunis, Hammamet 62-; Dir. Drama School, Hammamet 63-68.

International Cultural Centre of Tunis, Hammamet, Tunisia

Hoveida, Amir Abbas, M.A., Ph.D.; Iranian diplomatist, business executive and politician, b. Feb. 1919; ed. Univs. of Brussels and Paris.

Ministry of Foreign Affairs 42-58, served Federal Germany, Teheran, United Nations, New York, Ankara; mem. Board of Dir. and Head of Admin., Nat. Iranian Oil Co. 58-64, founder mem. New Iran Party 63-; Minister of Finance 64-65; Prime Minister Jan. 65-; Office of the Prime Minister; and 5 Avenue Siros, Darrou, Teheran, Iran.

Howard, Harry Nicholas, A.B., M.A., Ph.D.; American historian; b. 19 Feb. 1902, ed. Univs. of Missouri and California.

Gregory Fellow in History Univ. of Missouri 26-27; Research Asst. in Modern European History Univ. of California 28-29, Asst. Prof. History Univ. of Oklahoma 29-30, Associate Prof. History, Miami Univ. 30-37, Prof. 40-42, Lecturer Contemporary Problems, Univ. of Cincinnati 37-42; served Dept. of State as Head, East European Unit 42-44, mem. U.S. Del. UN Conf. on Int. Orgs. 45, Chief, Near East Branch Research Div. 45-47, Adviser Div. of Greek, Turkish and Iranian Affairs 47-49, UN Adviser, Dept. of State, Bureau of Near East, S. Asian and African Affairs 49-56; Acting U.S. Rep. Advisory Comm. UNRWA, Beirut 56-61; Special Asst. to Dir. of UNRWA 62-63; Adviser U.S. Del. UN Balkan Comm. 47-50, Prof. of Middle East Studies, School of Int. Service, American Univ., Washington, D.C. 63-; Reserve Consultant, Dept. of State 67-; Faculty Adviser, Foreign Service Inst. 66-; Assoc. Editor *Middle East Journal* 63-; mem. Board of Govs. Middle East Inst. 63-; Consultant, Middle East, Cincinnati Council on World Affairs 68-69, mem. Board of Dir. ANERA 68-; Lecturer, Middle East, U.S. Army War Coll., Pa. 70-71, Visiting Prof. Missouri, Indiana Calif. (Berkeley), Columbia and Colorado Univs.; Order of the Phoenix (Greece).

Publs. *The Partition of Turkey, A Diplomatic History 1913-1923* 31, *Military Government in the Panama Canal Zone* 31 (with Prof. R. Kerner), *The Balkan Conferences and the Balkan Entente* 30-35, *A Study in the Recent History of the Balkan and Near Eastern People* 36, *The Problem of the Turkish Straits* 47, *The United Nations and the Problem of Greece* 47, *The General Assembly and the Problem of*

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Greece 48, *Yugoslavia* (co-author) 49, *Soviet Power and Policy* (co-author) 55, *The King-Crane Commission* 63.
6508 Greentree Road, Bradley Hills Grove, Bethesda, Md. 20034, U.S.A.; and American University, Washington, D.C., U.S.A.

Husayn, Abdel-Sattar; Iraqi politician; b. 1926.
Minister of Housing 63; Minister of Justice 64-65; Minister of Oil 67-68.
Ministry of Oil, Baghdad, Iraq.

Hussain, Abdul Aziz; Kuwaiti politician; b. 1921; ed. Teachers' Higher Inst., Cairo and Univ. of London.
Head, Kuwait Cultural Bureau, Cairo 45-50; Gen. Dir. of Education, Kuwait 52-61; Ambassador of Kuwait, Cairo 61-62; Minister of State for Cabinet Affairs 63-64.
Publs. *Arab Community in Kuwait* 60.
c/o Ministry of State for Cabinet Affairs, Kuwait.

Hussein, Ahmed, PH.D.; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) politician and diplomatist; b. 1902; ed. Univ. of Berlin.
With Ministry of Agriculture 39-47; Deputy Under-Sec. Ministry of Social Affairs 47, Under-Sec. 48, Minister of Social Affairs until 52; Ambassador to U.S. 52-54; Deputy Chair, Egyptian Asscn. for Social Studies; mem. Permanent Agricultural Cttee. Int. Labour Organisation.
c/o The International Labour Organisation (Agric. Cttee.), Geneva, Switzerland; and 5 Sh. Sir Garstin, Zamalek, Cairo, U.A.R.

Hussein, Aly Hamdy, M.COM.; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) diplomatist; b. 20 Dec. 1915; ed. Univ. of Cairo and Univ. of Madrid.
Commercial Counsellor 48-57; Counsellor to Foreign Office 58; Consul-Gen. in São Paulo 60-64; Amb. to Bolivia 64-65; Dir. of Econ. Dept. of Foreign Office, Cairo 66-68; Amb. to Belgium 68-.
Embassy of the United Arab Republic, 2 avenue Victoria, Brussels 8, Belgium.

Hussein, Amin Ahmed; Sudanese diplomatist; b. 1913; ed. Gordon Memorial Coll., Khartoum.
Joined Ministry of Interior (Police), rose to Commr. of Police 54; Dep. Under-Sec. for Security, Ministry of Interior 57; Dep. Perm. Under-Sec. Ministry of Foreign Affairs Sept. 57-61; Ambassador to U.K. 61-Sept. 65, to U.S.A. 65-67 (withdrawn); G.C.V.O., O.B.E., Grand Officer of the Ethiopian Star.
c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Khartoum, Sudan.

Hussein, Major Kamal El-Din; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) soldier and politician; b. 1921; ed. Cairo Univ. and Mil. Coll.
Army service 39-52; mem. Revolutionary Council 53; Minister of Social Affairs 54, of Education 54-58; Minister of Education, U.A.R. 58-61; Pres. Exec. Council of Egyptian Region 60-61; Vice-Pres. of U.A.R. in charge of Public Services, concurrently Minister of Local Administration and Housing 61-64; mem. Presidency Council 62-64; arrested Oct. 65.
c/o Ministry of Justice, Cairo, U.A.R.

Hussein, Taha, DR. LITT.; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) writer; b. 1889; ed. Cairo and Paris Univs.
Prof. of Arabic Literature, Fouad I Univ. Cairo 20-32; fmr. Dean of the Faculty of Arts, Fouad I Univ., Under-Sec. of State at Ministry of Education, Rector Farouk I Univ. Alexandria; Minister of Education 50-52; fmr. Senator, Vice-Pres. Acad. for the Arabic Language; Pres. Inst. d'Egypte; corresp. mem. Acad. des Inscriptions et Belles Lettres Paris, Accad. dei Lincei Rome, Acad. of Mainz, Teheran, Damascus and Baghdad, and Royal Acad. of History, Madrid; Grande Médaille de l'Univ. de Paris,

Grand Officier de la Légion d'Honneur (France), Commdr. Order of the Nile (Egypt), Grand Cross Order of the Phoenix (Greece), Dr. h.c. (Univs. of Lyons, Montpellier, Rome, Oxford, Athens and Madrid).
Publs. Over 40 works: novels, translations from French and Ancient Greek into Arabic, studies on Arabic literature, on educational problems of modern Egypt, etc., and including *The Stream of Days* (2 vols.).
Ramatane, avenue des Pyramides, Guizeh, U.A.R.

Hussein, Talat Al-; Kuwaiti diplomatist; b. 1924; ed. American Univ. of Cairo.
Foreign News Editor *As-Shaab* (Jaffa, Palestine) 46-47; Controller, Arab Bank Ltd., Jaffa, Palestine 47-48; Editor Foreign News and Dir. of English Section, Broadcasting Station of Jordan 48-49; Dir. Press and Public Information Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Yemen 49-53; Sec. Gen., Development Board, Kuwait 53-60; Dep. Private Sec. to Emir of Kuwait 60-61; Minister-Counsellor, Kuwait Embassy, Washington 62-63, Amb. to U.S.A. 63-70, concurrently to Canada 65-70; Amb. to Morocco 70-.
2700 Foxhall Road, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20007, U.S.A.

Hussein ibn Talal, King of Jordan; b. 14 Nov. 1934; ed. Victoria Coll., Alexandria, Egypt, Harrow School and R.M.A. Sandhurst (both in England).
Succeeded his father August 11th, 1952; came to power May 2nd, 1953; married 55, Princess Dina, daughter of Abdel-Hamid Aoun of Saudi Arabia; daughter Princess Alia' b. 56 (marriage dissolved); married 61, Antoinette Gardiner (assumed name of Muna el Hussein); sons, Prince Abdullah, b. 62, Prince Feisal, b. 63; twin daughters, Princess Zein, Princess Aisha' b. 68.
Publ. *Uneasy Lies the Head* 62.
Royal Palace, Amman, Jordan.

Hussein, H.E. Haj Amin; Grand Mufti of Palestine; b. 1897; ed. Jerusalem and Al-Azhar Univ. Cairo.
Officer in Ottoman Army during First World War 14-18; became Mufti 21; elected Pres. of Supreme Muslim Council for life 22; elected Pres. World Muslim Conf. Jerusalem 31 and Pres. Arab Higher Cttee. for Palestine 36; left Palestine after disagreement with Mandate Govt. over policy of establishing Jewish Nat. Home in Palestine 37; in Lebanon 37-39, Iraq 39-41, in Persia and Europe 41-45, France 45-46; on return from Europe 46, re-elected Pres. Arab Higher Cttee. for Palestine; in Egypt as guest of King Farouk 46, elected Pres. Assembly and Supreme Council All-Palestine Govt. 48; Pres. World Muslim Conf., Karachi 51, Muslim Ulama Conf., Karachi 52, Exec. Cttee. World Muslim Conf., Karachi 52; Chair. Palestine Arab Del. to Asiatic-African Conf., Bandung 55; mem. Constituent Assembly, Rabitat al-A'lam al-Islami, Mecca 62; Pres. World Moslem Congresses, Baghdad 62, Mogadishu 65.
Blvd. Hadeth, Beirut, Lebanon.

Huzayin, Soliman Ahmed, M.A., PH.D., LL.L.; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) university professor; b. 1909; ed. Cairo, Liverpool and Manchester Univs.
Lecturer, Cairo Univ. 35; Dir.-Gen. Cultural Relations, Ministry of Educ., Cairo 50; Under-Sec. of State for Educ., Cairo 54; Rector, Univ. of Assiut 55-65; Minister of Culture Oct. 65-66; mem. Institut d'Egypte 47-, Pres. Institut d'Egypte 54, Int. Council for the Study of the Geography of Africa and Asia 56-, Perm. Cttee. for Social Affairs, League of Arab States.
Publs. *Some Contributions of the Arabs to Geography* 32, *Some New Light on the Beginnings of Egyptian Civilization* 37, *The Place of Egypt in Prehistory* 41, *Arabia and the Far East* 42, numerous articles.
c/o Institut d'Egypte, 13 Sh. Sheikh Rihane, Cairo, United Arab Republic.

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

I

Ibrahim, Wing Commr. Hassan; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) businessman and former air force officer and politician, b 1917, ed Egyptian Mil Coll and Egyptian Air Force Coll
Served Egyptian Air Force 39-52, mem Revolutionary Council 52-56, Minister for Presidency and for Production 54-56, Chair Economic Development Organisation 57-59, Pres El Nasr Company (pencil and graphite production) 58-61, Paints and Chemicals Industries 59-61, mem Presidential Council 62-64, Vice-Pres of U.A.R. 64-65, business exec 66-; Nile Collar of the U.A.R., various orders and decorations from Syria, Yugoslavia, Cameroon, Niger, Yemen, Bulgaria, Poland, Lebanon G.D.R., Morocco Malaysia Libya
6 Khartoum Street, Helipolis, Cairo, U.A.R.

Ibrahim, Sid Moulay Abdullah; Moroccan politician, b 1918, ed Ben Youssef Univ, Marrakesh and the Sorbonne, Paris
Mem Istiqlal (Independence) Party 44-59, mem Editorial Cttee *Al Alam* (Istiqlal organ) 50-52; imprisoned for political reasons 52-54, Sec of State for Information and Tourism, First Moroccan Nat Govt 55-56, Minister of Labour and Social Affairs 56-57, Prime Minister and Minister of Foreign Affairs Dec 58-May 60, leader Union National des Forces Populaires 59
Union National des Forces Populaires, B.P. 747, Casablanca, Morocco

Idelson, Beba; Israeli statistician, b 14 Oct. 1895, ed Kharkov
Teacher 12-15, Statistician in Russian Govt depts 16-22, Berlin 24-25, manual work as pioneer in Palestine 26-29, Statistician Jewish Agency Jerusalem 29-30, Gen Sec. of Moetzet Hapalot (Council of Women Workers in Israel) 30-70, mem. Council of State 48, mem. and Deputy Speaker of Knesset (Israel Parl.) 48-65, mem. of the Exec of the Labour Party 35-
22 Rembrandt Street, Tel-Aviv, Israel

Idris I (Sayyid Muhammad Idris as-Sanusi); former King of Libya, b 1889
Son of Sayyid Muhammad al Mahdi, succeeded his uncle, Sayyid Ahmed Sherif as Sanusi, in charge of affairs of the Sanusiya Order 16, became Amir of Cyrenaica proclaimed King of Libya Dec 2nd 50, ascended the throne 24 December 51, deposed by military coup Sept 69
Now living in United Arab Republic

Idris, Yusuf, m.d., United Arab Republic (Egyptian) physician and writer, b 1927, ed Qasr al-Aini
Qualified as psychiatrist; politically active 51-, several times imprisoned, first publication 53, awarded Hwar literary prize 65 but refused award, Medal of Republic 66
Publs include drama *The Republic of Farhat*, *The Cotton King*, *The Critical Moment*, *Al Farafr* 64, fiction *Love Story* 56, *The Hero* 56, *The Sin* 59, *A Matter of Honour* 59, *The Vice* 62
c/o Al-Gomhouriya, Galal Street, Cairo, United Arab Republic

Isel, Seltzer; Turkish diplomatist, b 1908, ed Galata Saray Coll. and Istanbul Univ
Entered Ministry of Foreign Affairs 30, served Belgrade 31, Tallinn 35, Dir Economic Div., Ministry of Foreign Affairs 39, Counsellor, Cairo 41, Asst. Dir Gen Economic Div., Ministry of Foreign Affairs 43, Counsellor, Paris 44, Dir Gen Economic Div., Ministry of Foreign Affairs 50-52, Asst Sec Gen Ministry of Foreign Affairs 52-54, Ambassador to Greece 54-57, Ambassador to German Federal Republic 57-60, Deputy for Izmir 65-, Commr Légion d'Honneur, Order of the Yugoslav Flag, Grand Cross 2nd Class (Order of Merit of the German Federal Republic) T.B.M.M., Ankara, Turkey

İnönü, Gen. Ismet; Turkish politician, b 24 Sept 1884, ed Military and Staff Colls
Attached 2nd Army Edirne 06, organised local patriotic society Party of Union and Progress, Gen Staff 4th Army Edirne 08, mem expeditionary force against insurgents, Arabia 10, Major, Chief of Gen Staff Yemen Army 12, Dir 1st section Gen Staff Istanbul April 13, military adviser Turkish Del Turco Bulgarian peace negotiations Aug 13, Lieut Col 14, Col, Chief of Gen Staff 2nd Army Eastern Thrace 15, Comm 4th Army Corps, Russian front 16, 20th Army Corps 17, 3rd Army Corps Syria 17, Under-Sec for War 18, joined Mustafa Kemal 20, Deputy for Edirne Nat Assembly, Minister and Chief of Gen Staff 20, commd Western Front and victor Battles of İnönü 21, promoted Brig Gen 21, Lieut. Gen 22, Gen 26-27, retd, Minister of Foreign Affairs 22, signed Treaty of Lausanne 23, four Vice-Pres. Republican People's Party, Leader 38, Prime Minister 23-24 and 25-37, Pres of Turkish Republic 38-50, Opposition Leader 50-60, 65, Prime Minister 61-65 c/o The Republican People's Party, Ankara, Turkey

Ioannides, George X.; Cypriot lawyer and politician, b 1924, Ktima Paphos, ed Greek Gymnasium, Paphos
Clerk Civil Service 41-45, did correspondence course in commerce and accountancy, studied law, Middle Temple, London, and called to Bar 47, lawyer, Paphos 48-70, mem House of Reps (Patriotic Front Group) 60-70, Minister of Justice 70
Ministry of Justice, Nicosia, Cyprus

Iran (Persia, Shah of, see Pahlavi, Mohammad Reza)

Iryani, Sheikh Qadi Abd al Rahman al-; Yemeni religious and political leader
Member of Revolutionary Council 62, Minister of Justice 62-63, Vice Pres Exec Council Oct 63-Feb 64, mem Political Bureau Jan 64, mem Presidency Council April 65, Chair 69, Chair Peace Cttee set up after Khamer Peace Talks May 65, leader of Zaidi (Shi'a) sect
Presidency Council Sana'a, Yemen Arab Republic

İplik, Hasan Esat; Turkish diplomatist and politician; b 1916, ed Ankara Univ
Ministry of Foreign Affairs 40, Consulate-Gen., Paris 45-49, Head of Section, Dept of Commerce and Econ Affairs, and Dept of Int Econ Relations 49-52, staff of Perm. Turkish Del to European Office of UN, Geneva 52-54, Dir-Gen of Dept of Commerce and Commercial Agreements, Ministry of Foreign Affairs 54-57, Asst for Econ. Affairs to Sec-Gen of Ministry of Foreign Affairs 57-62, Ambassador to Belgium 62-64, to U.S.S.R. 64-65, 66-68, to France 68, Ministry of Foreign Affairs 65
Turkish Embassy, rue d'Ankara, Paris 16e, France

Ismail, Abdul Malek; Yemeni diplomatist b 23 Nov. 1937, Aden ed Tawahi and Crater Aden, Tech School, Maalla, Khediwi High School, Cairo and Cairo Univ
Faculty of Commerce
Member United Nat Party, Editor *Al-Nour* and *Hakikah* (newspapers) 61-63, Vice-Chair Gen Union of Petroleum Workers 61-62, Chair Petroleum Workers Union 62-64, Vice-Pres Arab Fed of Petroleum Workers 62-65, leading mem Arab Nationalist Movement 56-63, leading mem Nat Front for Liberation of Occupied S. Yemen (FLOS) 63-65, Dir Nat Front Office, Cairo 65-66, mem Gen Command of Nat Liberation Front 66-68, Minister of Labour and Social Affairs 67-68, Minister of Econ, Commerce and Planning April 68, Perm Rep to UN Aug 70-
Permanent Mission of the People's Democratic Republic of Yemen at United Nations, 866 United Nations Plaza, Room 427, New York N.Y. 10017, U.S.A.

Ismail, Gen. Mohamed Hafez; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) soldier and diplomatist

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Assistant Under-Sec. of Foreign Affairs 60-64; Ambassador to United Kingdom 64-65; Amb. to Italy 67-69. Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Cairo, U.A.R.

Issawi, Charles Philip, M.A.; American economist; b. 1916; ed. Victoria Coll. Alexandria and Magdalen Coll. Oxford.

Sec. to Under-Sec. of State, Ministry of Finance, Cairo 37-38; Head of Research Section, Nat. Bank of Egypt, Cairo 38-43; Adjunct Prof. American Univ. of Beirut 43-47; U.N. Secretariat Economic Affairs Officer 48-55; Visiting Lecturer, Harvard Univ. 50, Johns Hopkins 67; Prof. Columbia Univ. 51-.

Publs. *Egypt: an Economic and Social Analysis* 47, *An Arab Philosophy of History* 50, *Egypt at Mid Century* 54, *Mushkilat Qaumia* 59, *The Economics of Middle East Oil* (co-author) 62, *Egypt in Revolution* 63, *The Economic History of the Middle East 1800-1914* 66, *The Economic History of Iran 1800-1914* 71.

Columbia University, New York, N.Y., U.S.A.

Italiaander, Rolf Bruno Maximilian; Netherlands writer and explorer; b. 20 Feb. 1913; ed. various European Univs. Explorer of Africa and Middle East 32-, studying anthropology, history, art, music, poetry and proverbs; Prof. of African History and Civilization, Hope Coll., Holland, Mich.; Sec.-Gen. Free Acad. of Arts, Hamburg; mem. several acad.; Hon. Pres. German Translators' Soc.; Pres. Int. Translators' Congress, Hamburg 65; Chair. Africa-Asia Cttee., Féd. Int. des Traducteurs; Hon. Consul of Senegal 64; Knight of Nat. Order of Senegal; Jahnn Prize 64.

Publs. *Der ruhelose Kontinent* (History of Africa) 60, *The New Leaders of Africa* 61, *Modern Art in Africa* 62, *Tanz in Afrika* 63, *The New Leaders of Asia* 64, *The Challenge of Islam* 64, *In the Lord's Name in the Congo* 65, *König Leopolds Congo* 65, *Die Friedensmacher* 65, *Rassen Konflikte in aller Welt* 66, *Die Gefährdung der Religionen* 66, *In der Palmweinschenke* 66, *Lebensentscheidung für Israel* 67, *Frieden in der Welt—Aber Wie?* 67, *Heinrich Barth* 67, *Terra Dolorosa (Indo-america)* 69, *Kongo-Bilder und Verse* 69; Biography and Bibliography: *Unterwegs mit Rolf Italiaander* 63.

Heilwigstrasse 39, Hamburg 20, German Federal Republic.

Izer, Zeki Faik; Turkish artist; b. 1905; ed. Acad. of Fine Arts.

Director Acad. of Fine Arts, Istanbul; works include painting and sculpture in Istanbul, balconies for Box of Honour, Nat. Opera House, Ankara; exhibited UNESCO Exhibition, Paris 46, London 47, Amsterdam 48.

Unutmaeni Ap. 28/2, Kumrulu Yokuş, Cihangir, Beyoğlu, Istanbul, Turkey.

Izzeddin, Halim Said Abu-, B.A., LL.B., LL.D.; Lebanese diplomatist; b. 11 June 1918; ed. American Univ. of Beirut and Faculté de Droit, Univ. de Paris.

Consul-General Cairo 44-46, Counsellor 46-50; Dir. Political Dept., Ministry of Foreign Affairs 50-53, 64-66; Dir.-Gen. Ministry of Information 53-55; Asst. Sec.-Gen. Ministry of Foreign Affairs 55-57; Ambassador to India 57-59; Gov. Northern Lebanon 59-64; Ambassador to United Arab Republic 66-; numerous decorations.

Publs. *Lebanon and its Provinces* (English) 53, *The Foreign Policy of the Lebanon* (Arabic) 66.

Embassy of Lebanon, 5 Ahmed Nessim Street, Guiza, Cairo, United Arab Republic.

J

Jabbur, Jibrail S., M.A., PH.D.; Lebanese university professor; b. 1904; ed. American Univ. of Beirut, Egyptian Univ. and Princeton Univ.

Vice-Principal, Homs Nat. Coll. 25-26; Instructor in

Arabic, American Univ. of Beirut 26-29, 30-35, Asst. Prof. 35-42, Assoc. Prof. 42-46, 47-48, Prof. 48-, Chair. of Arabic Dept. (Margaret Weyerhauser Jewett Prof. of Arabic) 49-; Gold Medal (Merit) of Nat. Education and Public Instruction from Lebanese Govt. 51.

Publs. *Ibn Abd Rabbihi and his 'Iqd.* 33, *Al-Hayah al-'Arabiyyah fi al-mi'at sanah al-'Ula ba'd wafat al-Nabi al-'Arabi* 34, *Umar Ibn Abi Rabiha*, Vol. I 35, Vol. II 39, Vol. III 70, *Fi al-Adab al-Andalusi* 49; Editor *Al-Kawakib al-Sa'irah*, Vol. I 45, Vol. II 49, Vol. III 59, *Kitab al-'Id* 67; translated and wrote with Philip Hitti and Edward Jurji, *Tarikh al-'Arab (al-Mutawwal)* 3 vols. 49-51.

American University of Beirut, Beirut, Lebanon.

Jaber, Brig.-Gen. Mamduh; Syrian soldier and politician.

Minister of Defence 64-65; Minister of State to the Presidency Jan.-March 66; Minister of Public Works March 66-69, of Affairs of Frontline Villages 69-70.

Ministry of Frontline Villages, Damascus, Syrian Arab Republic.

Jabre, Jamil Louis; Lebanese writer; b. 1924; ed. Univ. Saint-Joseph, Beirut.

Director of *Al-Hikmal* Revue; Cultural Counsellor for dailies *Al Jaryda* and *L'Orient* and United Unions for Employees and Workers; Founder-mem. Lebanese P.E.N. Club, Amis du Livre, Club du Roman, Club de la Jeunesse Vivante.

Publs. in Arabic include: *Fever, After the Storm, Agony* (3 vols.), *May Ziadé, Amine Rihani, Gébrane Khalil Gébrane, Tagore, May: Authoress, Jahiz and the Society of His Times, Views on Contemporary American Literature* (essays), *Dream of Nemrod*.

Beit-Chabab, Lebanon.

Jabre, Kamal Rachid; Lebanese commercial official; b. 1898.

Member Chamber of Deputies 37-39; Vice-Pres. Assen. des Industriels Libanais; Pres. Beirut Chamber of Commerce and Industry 64-; Vice-Pres. Banque de Crédit Agricole, Industriel et Foncier; Founder-Dir. Soc. de Filature et de Tissage; also founder of several industrial socs. and banks; Commr. Ordre National du Cèdre.

Beirut Chamber of Commerce and Industry, P.O.B. 1801, Beirut, Lebanon.

Jader, Adib Al-Jader Al-; Iraqi politician and economist. Member U.A.R.-Iraq Presidency Council 64-68; Minister of Industry Nov. 64-July 65; Minister of Economy July 67-Oct. 67; Chair. Iraq Nat. Oil Co. (INOC) Oct. 67-July 68; imprisoned and personal estate impounded July 68. c/o Ministry of Justice, Baghdad, Iraq.

Jadid, Lieut.-Col. Salah; Syrian army officer and politician.

Took part in the Revolution which overthrew President Kudsî 63; Chief of Staff of Army Nov. 63-Sept. 65; mem. Presidency Council Oct. 64-Sept. 65; fmr. Sec.-Gen. Nat. Baath Party.

c/o Presidency Council, Damascus, Syrian Arab Republic.

Jaffar, Khalid Mohammed; Kuwait diplomatist; b. 12 June 1922; ed. Mubarakia School, Kuwait.

Teacher, Kuwait 40-42; Chief Cashier, Kuwait Municipality 43-45; Kuwait Oil Co., rose to Supt. of Public Relations 45-61; Lord Chamberlain to His Highness The Amir of Kuwait 61-62; Ambassador, Foreign Affairs, Kuwait May-Dec. 62, concurrently Head of Press and Culture Div., Ministry of Foreign Affairs; mem. Delegation to UN before admission of Kuwait as a mem. Sept.-Oct. 62; deputized for Under-Sec. of State at the Ministry of Foreign Affairs 62-63; Amb. to U.K. 63-65, to France 65-67; Amb. to Lebanon 65-70, concurrently to Turkey 68-70. Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Kuwait.

WHOS WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Jahanbani, General Prince Amanollah, Iranian officer b. 1895 ed. Russian Artillery Coll and Russian and French Military Univs
Teacher and Interpreter and Commander of Cavalry Battery Military Attaché Iranian Delegation to Europe
Commander Iranian Artillery 21 formed Gen Staff later became Chief of Gen Staff Gen Commander Azerbaijan Province Commander Eastern Division Gen Insp of Army Min. of Industry and Mines Min. of Interior Min. of Roads Min. of War Chief of the Cabinet Chief Insp of East Com Commander of Southern Forces Chief Insp of Min of War Commander of Military Acad and Military Coll Chief Insp of Iranian Army Gen Insp of West and South West of Iran Senator 51 Free Iranian Nat Physical Education and Scouting Assn 47 numerous decorations
c/o Tarb at Badani Avenue Sepah Teheran Iran

Jahanbahi, Abdul Ali, PHD Iranian economist b 1921 ed Univ de Paris
Ministry of Justice 46-57 Univ of Teheran 57 Bank Mellat Iran 57-60 Vice-Gov Bank Markazi Iran 61-63 Minister of Educ. 64 Minister of State 64-65 Chancellor Nat. Law of Iran 65-66 Alt Exec Dir World Bank 66-71 Gov Bank Markazi Iran (Central Bank of Iran) 71 Bank Markazi Iran, Ferdowsi Avenue Teheran Iran

Jahid, Gen. Muhammad, Yemeni politician
Prime Minister April 64 Jan 65 Minister of Economy Jan. April 65 Vice Premier for Military Affairs and mem. Presidency Council July 65 July 66 Minister of War 66 Deputy C. in C. 68-
o Council of Ministers Sana a Yemen Arab Republic.

Jakobovits, Rabbi Immanuel, BA PHD British (Germany) Rabbi b 8 Feb 1921 ed Jews Coll London and Yeshiva Ets Chaim London
Minister of Brondesbury Synagogue London 41 44 of Soc. East London Synagogue 44 47 of Great Synagogue London 47-49 Chief Rabbi of Ireland 49-58 Rabbi of Fifth Avenue Synagogue New York 58-67 Chief Rabbi of the United Hebrew Congregations of the British Commonwealth of Nations London 67
Publ. *Jewish Medical Ethics* 59 rev edn 67 *Journal of a Rabbi* 66 *Jewish Law Faces Modern Problems* 66
Office of the Ch. Rabbi Adler House Taxi rank Square London WC3 England

Jalil, Badji Abdul Hadi, Iraqi civil servant and politician b 1915 ed. Technical and Industrial School Cairo and Technical Univ Switzerland.
Teacher Baghdad 46-54 including Asst Prof at Engineers Coll Dir of Technical and Vocational Instruction Ministry of Education 54 56 59-64 with Directorate of Agricultural Machines and Appliances 56-59 mem Economic Planning Board 64 Minister of Industry 66 Economic Planning Board Baghdad Iraq

Jamil, Sharif Husain ben, Jordanian politician
Former Minister of Royal Court Prime Minister April 63 July 64 Chief of the Royal Cabinet 67 mem Consultative Council 67 C. in-C. Armed Forces 69-70 Great Uncle of King Hussein
The Royal Cabinet Amman Jordan

Jamil, Talib Iraqi lawyer and businessman b 1919 ed. Baghdad Coll of Law
In private law practice 41 53 becoming Sec Gen of Iraqi Bar Dr Gen. of Legal and Economic Affairs Ministry of Planning then Dr Gen. of Commerce and Economics Ministry of Economy 53 59 returned to private practice 59-64 Under Sec. Ministry of Economics Jan July 64 Pres State Organization of Insurance July Dec 64 Perm. Del to Arab Economic Unity Council Cairo with rank of Amb Dec 64 Aug 68 Chair Al

Karamak Agencies and Export Co Baghdad Chair Asia Printing and Publ shing Co Baghdad
Apt 11 Gawhart el Nil Building 92 Sharna el Nil Rear el Galaa Bridge Cairo United Arab Republic.

Jamjoom, Ahmed Salah, BA PHD Saudi Arabian businessman and politician b 1925 ed Fouad Univ Cairo and Harvard Law School
Joined Arab Bank Jeddah 50 Minister of State and mem Council of Ministers 58-59 Supervisor of Economic Dept 59 Dec 60 Minister of Commerce July Dec. 60 Minister of Trade and Industry 61-62 Dir and Partner Mohd Nour Salah Jamjoom & Bros 62 Dir Jamjoom Vehicles and Equipment and Jamjoom Construction
Publ. *An Approach to an Integrated Economic Development* 60 *Economics of Mecca* 67
Mohamed Nour Salah Jamjoom and Brothers Riyadh and P.O. Box 1247 Jeddah Saudi Arabia

Jaq, Dr. Said Ahmed El-, MA PHD Sudanese politician b 1930 Khartoum ed Univ of Khartoum and in USA

Worked in Ministry of Works 54 56 later in consultative and des. en. engineering lecturer in Civil Eng Univ of Khartoum worked on water and electricity projects for Shendi and Berber towns founder and board mem Sudanese Engineers Trade Union helped to found Sudanese Teachers Assn Univ of Khartoum Minister of Works May 69-June 70 Minister of Transport and Communications June 70 mem American Eng Soc Sudanese Engineers Soc
Ministry of Transport and Communications Khartoum Sudan

Jarling, Gunnar, PHD Swedish diplomatist b 12 Oct 1907 ed. Lund Univ
Associate Prof Turkic Languages Lund Univ 33 40 Attaché Ankara 40-41 Chief Section B Teheran 41 Chargé d'Affaires a.l. Teheran and Baghdad 45 Addis Ababa 46-48 Minister to India 48-51 concurrently to Ceylon 50-51 to Persia Iraq and Pakistan 51 52 Dir Political Div Ministry of Foreign Affairs 53 56 Perm. Rep. to UN 56-58 rep on Security Council 57 58 Amb to USA 58-64 to USSR 64 and to Mongolia 65 Special Rep of Sec Gen of UN on Middle East situation Nov 67 Knight Commr Order of the North Star
Publ. *Studien zu einer osttürkischen Lautlehre* 33 *The Contest of the Franks—An Eastern Turkic Allegory* 36 *The Uzbek Dialect of Gilik Russian Turkistan* 37 *Uzbek Texts from Afghan Turkistan* 38 *The Distribution of Turk Tribes in Afghanistan* 39 *Materials for the Knowledge of Eastern Turkistan* (Vols I IV) 47 51 *An Eastern Turkic English Dialect Dictionary* 64
Swedish Embassy Ul' Vorovskovo 44 Moscow U.S.S.R.

Jisr, Hussein El, Lebanese lawyer and diplomatist
Administrator Mont Liban District 43 47 mem Higher Council for Common Interests of Lebanon and Syria 47 50 Plenipotentiary Minister 50 Ambassador to Saudi Arabia 55 59 to Belgium 59 60 to U.K. 60-62 to Morocco 62-65
Rue Surscock Beirut, Lebanon

Jordan, King of (see Hussein ibn Talal)

Joseph, Dov, BA BCL PHD Israeli politician b 1899 ed London and McGill Univs
Went to Palestine 21 Adviser Political Dept Jewish Agency Treasurer mem of the executive 36-48 56 60 Mil Gov during siege of Jerusalem 48 Minister of Supply and Agriculture 49-50 Minister of Communications 50 Minister of Commerce Industry and Justice 51 52 Minister of Development 53 55 of Health 55 of Justice 61 66 Mapai

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Publs. *Nationality, its Nature and Problems, British Rule in Palestine, The Faithful City* 48.

22 Alharizi Road, Jerusalem, Israel.

Joudi, Jamil Mohamed; Tunisian actor and theatrical director; b. 4 April 1934.

Leading actor in company of Théâtre Municipal de Tunis 54-65, twice performed with Nat. Popular Theatre, Paris; specializes in Molière and Shakespeare in Arabic trans.; Dir. Sfax Municipal Theatre Co., Sfax 65-; Inspector of Theatre Movement in the South of Tunisia 68-; Théâtre Municipal, Sfax, Tunisia.

Joukhdar, H.E. Mohammed Salom, B.A., M.A.; Saudi Arabian economist; b. 1932; ed. Univs. of California and Southern California.

Economic Consultant to Directorate-Gen. of Petroleum and Minerals, Saudi Arabia 58; Govt. Rep. Supervisory Cttee. for Expenditure and Purchasing, Arabian Oil Co. 61, Dir. 61-66; Sec.-Gen. Org. of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) 67-68; Deputy Minister of Petroleum and Mineral Resources 69-; mem. American Soc. of Economists.

Minister of Petroleum and Mineral Resources, P.O. Box 247, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.

Joumbiatt, Kamal; Lebanese politician and hereditary Druse chieftain; b. 1919.

Fmr. Minister of Nat. Economy; Pres. Social Progress Party of Lebanon; Minister of Education and Fine Arts 60-61; Minister of State for the Interior and Planning Services 61-64; Minister of Public Works and P.T.T. 66-67; Minister of the Interior April-June 70; Pres. Parti Socialiste Progressive.

Publ. *The Truth about the Lebanese Revolution* 59.

Zodak el Blat, Beirut, Lebanon.

Juffali, Ahmad; Saudi Arabian businessman; b. 15 Oct. 1924; ed. Saudi Arabia and United Kingdom.

Managing Dir., E. A. Juffali & Bros. 45-; mem. Board of Dirs. Saudi Electric Co. 52-; Man. Dir. Saudi Cement Co. 58, Medina Electric Co. 58-; Dir. Saudi Arabian Monetary Agency 60-; Hon. Danish Consul 59-.

E. A. Juffali & Bros., King Abdul Aziz Street, P.O.B. 1049, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia.

Juma, Midhet (brother of Saad Juma, q.v.); Jordanian diplomatist; b. 19 Aug. 1920; ed. Cairo Univ.

Attaché to Arab League, Cairo 45-47; First Sec. and Counsellor, Cairo 47-52; Counsellor and Chargé d'Affaires, London 52-53; Minister to Pakistan 53-55; Chief of Protocol, Royal Palace Amman 56; Under-Sec. for Press and Broadcasting 56-58; Ambassador to the U.S.A. 58-59, to Morocco 59-62, to Federal German Republic 62-65, to Lebanon 65-67, to U.K. 67-69, to Tunisia 69-; numerous decorations.

Embassy of Jordan, 24 rue de France, Tunis, Tunisia.

Juma, Saad (brother of Midhet Juma, q.v.); Jordanian diplomatist; b. 1916; ed. Syrian Univ., Damascus.

Civil Service for twenty-six years; Dir. Press and Publicity; Chief Censor; Sec. to Prime Minister; Perm. Under-Sec., Gov. of Amman; Under-Sec. for Foreign Affairs; Ambassador to Syrian Arab Republic 62, to U.S.A. 62-65; Minister of the Royal Court 65-67; Prime Minister and Minister of Nat. Defence April-Oct. 67; mem. Consultative Council 67; Amb. to U.K. 69-70; honours from Jordan, Iran, Syria, Italy and China (Taiwan).

Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Amman, Jordan.

K

Ka'abazi, Fuad; Libyan politician and writer.

Minister of State 60-61; Minister of Petroleum Affairs May 61-Jan. 62, March 64-May 67; Co-owner Intertec Libya Consulting Group.

Publs. several novels.

Sharia Donato Somma No. 5, Tripoli, Libya.

Kader, Yehya Abdel; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) diplomatist.

Ambassador to Saudi Arabia 64-68, to Yugoslavia 68-.

Embassy of the United Arab Republic, Andre Nikolica 12, Belgrade, Yugoslavia.

Kafai, Djafar; Iranian diplomatist; b. 1909; ed. Univ. of Paris.

Former Secretary, Supreme Court; Ministry of Foreign Affairs; Attaché, Iranian Embassy, France; Second Sec. Cairo; mem. Constituent Assembly; Consul-Gen., Geneva; Dir. of Information and Publication, Ministry of Foreign Affairs; Perm. Rep. to European Office of UN 54; Under-Sec. Ministry of Foreign Affairs 58; Ambassador to Greece; Ambassador to Pakistan and Ceylon 63-65; Ambassador to Turkey 65-68; retd. mem. Board of Dirs. Bank Bazargani Iran; Man. Dir. Southern Shipping Lines; Dir. Sté. Foriran; Homayoun Award Class II, Grand Award of St. George (Greece), Grand Award of Istiklal (Jordan).
c/o Bank Bazargani Iran, Teheran, Iran.

Kahale, Nouredin, B.S., M.S.; Syrian engineer; b. 1911, ed. Robert Coll., Istanbul, and Purdue and Illinois Univs.; U.S.A.

With Ministry of Public Works and Communications 41-51, Head Irrigation Section 41-43, Acting Dir. of Irrigation 43-46, Dir.-Gen. 47, Sec.-Gen. 48-51; Chair. Board and Dir. Latakia Port Co. 51-58; Minister of Public Works, Syrian Region, United Arab Republic 58-60, concurrently Pres. Syrian Exec. Council, Acting Minister of Planning, and Minister of State, Central Govt.; Vice-President U.A.R. and Minister of Planning, Central Govt. 60-61; Vice-President U.A.R. in charge of Production Sector 61; Chair. and Dir.-Gen. Euphrates Project Authority 61-; Sec. Assn. of Syrian Engineers 43-49; Pres. Damascus Assn. of Chartered Engineers 61-62; Pres. Supreme Council of Engineering Assns. of U.A.R. 61; Syrian Rep. to various Int. Confs.; decorations from Govts. of Syria, Cambodia, Denmark, Ethiopia, Greece, Morocco, Spain, Sudan and Yugoslavia.

Principal works: design and execution, Hama Irrigation Scheme 45-46; planning and execution, Latakia Harbour 51-58; planning Tartous Harbour 58-60, Euphrates Dam, Power Plant and Irrigation Project, Habur Dam and Irrigation Project 62-.

Publs. *The Solution of the Water Supply Shortage in Aleppo* 47, *The Latakia Harbour Project* 55 (Papers presented to Pan-Arab Engineers Confs.).

West Adnan Malki, Mohammed Kurd-Ali Street, Damascus, Syrian Arab Republic.

Kaid, Ahmed (Commandant Slimane); Algerian politician; b. 1924.

Joined Nat. Liberation Army (A.L.N.) 56; mem. of Ghardimaou Gen. Staff, and A.L.N. Rep. to Evian talks 62; Deputy for Tiaret 62-; Minister of Tourism 63-64; Minister of Finance 65-68; Sec.-Gen. F.L.N. Dec. 67-; mem. Revolutionary Council 65-
Council of the Revolution, Algiers, Algeria.

Kairouz, Habib Ignace; Lebanese politician; b. 1916, Becharre; s. of Ignace Kairouz and Soultaneh Rahme; ed. Faculté Française de Droit, Beirut.

Former Pres. of Syndicat des Hôteliers du Liban; fmr. Administrator of Casino du Liban; fmr. mem. of High Comm. on Tourism in the Lebanon; Deputy for Becharre 60, 64; Pres. of Parl. Comm. on the Nat. Economy and Tourism 60-69; Minister of Tourism 68-69; Gold Medal of the Lebanese Order of Merit.

Rue Mohamed El Hout, Imm. des Chaldéens, Beirut, Lebanon.

Telephone: 224-627.

Kaissouni, Abdel Monelm, B.COM., B.SC., PH.D.; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) financial administrator and

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

politician b 1916 ed Univ of Cairo and London School of Economics
 With Barclays Bank England 42-43 Lecturer and Asst. Prof. of Econ. Univ. of Cairo 44-50 Dir. Middle East Dept. Int. Monetary Fund Washington and later Chief Technical Rep. in Middle East 46-50 with Nat. Bank of Egypt 50-54 Minister of Finance Economy and Deputy Prime Minister 54-66 68 Pres. Cairo Conf. on Devt. 61 Pres. U.N. Conf. on Trade and Devt. 64 Grand Cordon of the Repub. (U.A.R.) Orders of Repub. of Egypt Nile Ment (Syria) St. Mark and Grade (Greece) Lt. Kawab 1st Grade (Jordan) Grand Cordon (Lebanon) Zaskava (Yugoslavia)
 *3 Seostus Street Helopolis U.A.R.

Kamel Hassan, LL.D. United Arab Republic (Egyptian) diplomatist and administrator b 6 Sept 1907 ed Univs of Montpellier Cairo and Paris
 Member Mixed Bar 30-36 Lecturer Admin Law High Coll. of Police and Admin 36-37 joined Ministry of Foreign Affairs 37 served in several countries including Italy Iran Syria Portugal Switzerland Libya Argentina Turkey and Hungary until 59 Legal Adviser Govt. of Qatar 60 Dir.-Gen. 61 67 Adviser 67 Adviser of several depts. to U.A. and Rep. on numerous Int. Confs. mem. several Law Assns. mem. Board of Dirs. Shell (Qatar) Ltd Qatar Petroleum Ltd
 Pubs. numerous legal articles
 Adviser to the Government Doha Qatar

Kamel Mustafa, LL.D. United Arab Republic (Egyptian) diplomatist b 27 Oct. 1908 ed Univs of Cairo and the Sorbonne
 Professor of Constitutional Law Univ. of Cairo Govt. Observer Summit Conf. Geneva 55 mem. Egyptian Del. to 1st Asian African Conf. Bandung 55 Ambassador of Egypt to India 55 58 Amb. of U.A.R. to U.S.A. 58 61, to Belgium and Luxembourg 67 68
 Publ. Textbooks on constitutional administrative and penal law
 c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs Cairo U.A.R.

Karageorghis, Vassos, PhD F.S.A. Cypriot archaeologist b 1929 ed Panypryan Gymnasium Nicosia Univ. Coll. and Inst. of Archaeology London Univ.
 Assistant Curator Cyprus Museum 52-60 Curator 60-63 Acting Dir., Dept. of Antiquities Cyprus 63-64 Dir. 64 Vice-Pres. Council of Soc. for Cypriot Studies mem. Governing Body Cyprus Research Centre Fellow Soc. of Antiquaries London Correspond. mem. Archaeological Soc. Athens Ord. mem. German Archaeological Inst. Berlin Cheval. de l'Ordre de la Légion d'Honneur
 Pubs. *Treasures in the Cyprus Museum* 62 *Nouveaux Documents pour l'Etude du Bronze Récent à Chypre* 64 *Corpus et asorum Antiquorum* 163 and 11 65 *Sculptures from Salamis* 1 64 11 66 *Excavations in the Necropolis of Salamis* 1 67 Cyprus (Archaeologia Mun.) 1 68 *Salamis New Aspects of Antiquity* 69 and articles in German American English and French journals
 c/o Cyprus Museum Nicosia Cyprus

Karami Rashid, Lebanese politician b 1921 ed Fouad I Univ. Cairo
 Minister of Nat. Economy and Social Affairs 54 55 Prime Minister and Minister of the Interior Sept. 55 Mar. 56 Prime Minister Sept. 58-May 60 Minister of Finance Economy Defence and Information Oct. 58 Oct. 59 of Finance and Defence Oct. 59 May 60 Prime Minister and Min. of Finance Oct. 61 April 64 Prime Minister July 65-66 Dec. 65-67 67 68 69 70
 Km. Karm Elie Beirut Lebanon

Karazmanoglu, Yakup Kadri, Turkish writer and diplomatist b 1889 ed Univ. of Istanbul
 University Prof. 15 18 active in War of Independence early collaborator of Kemal Ataturk Chief Editor *İkdam*

23 33 People's Party Dep. from Manisa 23 34 Diplomatic Service 34 56 Minister to Switzerland 42 49 51 53 Ambassador to Iran 49 51 to Switzerland 53 56 Chief Leader Writer *Ulus* until 62 resigned from Republican People's Party 62
 Güller Apt. Sayaklık Sok. Teşvikiye Istanbul Turkey

Karim Lamrani, Mohammed, Moroccan politician and public official
 Former Banker and Sec. of State to Prime Minister private econ. adviser to His Majesty the King mem. of the Privy Council Gen. Man. Office Chénien des Phosphates Chair Dir. Gen. Maroc Chimie Chair Société Nationale des Investissements Acting Chair Crédit du Maroc
 Office Chénien des Phosphates Rabat Morocco

Kassab Adnan Ali, Iraqi civil servant b 1934 ed H.gher Inst. of Industrial Engineering
 Resident Engineer to Army Canal Project 61-63 Dir. of Admin. in Industrial Govt. Projects 63-64 later arrested and underwent political imprisonment Dir. Gen. of Iraqi Ports Admin. 68
 Iraqi Posts Administration Basra Iraq

Katchalsky, Aharon, M.Sc. PhD Israeli scientist b Sept. 1914 ed Hebrew Gymnasium and Hebrew Univ. Jerusalem
 Asst. Lecturer in High Polymers and Tutor in Theoretical Organic Chemistry Hebrew Univ. 36-46 worked with brother on synthesis of poly amino acids with Prof. Kuhn in Basle on theory of polyelectrolytes 45 discovery of mechanochemical phenomena 51 Head Polymer Dept. Weizmann Inst. of Science 47 visiting Prof. of Physical Chemistry Hebrew Univ. Jerusalem 51 Chair Scientific Citee of Weizmann Inst. of Science 52 55 Pres. Israel Nat. Acad. of Sciences and Humanities 62 68 Pres. Int. Union of Pure and Applied Biophysics Hon. Foreign mem. American Acad. of Arts and Sciences mem. U.S. Nat. Acad. of Sciences shared Weizmann Prize with brother 54 Israel Prize 62
 Weizmann Institute of Science Rehovot Israel

Katz, Katriel, Israeli diplomatist b Poland 16 Oct. 1908 ed Herzliya Gymnasium and Warsaw Univ.
 Head Dept. of Propaganda and Education Haganah 42 43 spokesman of the Haganah 48 spokesman Public Relations Office Israel Defence Army 49 on staff of Ministry for Foreign Affairs 49-53 Int. Head Div. of Political Research. Chargé d'Affaires Budapest 53 56 Minister to Poland 56-58 Sec. to the Government 58-62 Consul Gen. of Israel New York 62 65 Ambassador to USSR 65-67 Chair Yad Vashem (Martyrs and Heroes Remembrance Authority) Jerusalem 67
 c/o Yad Vashem Jerusalem Israel

Katz, Mindru, Israeli (b. Rumanian) pianist b 3 June 1925 ed Bucharest Acad. of Music.
 First public recital 31 first public concert with Bucharest Philharmonic Orchestra 47 extensive tours of E. Europe 47 U.K. 58 South and East Africa 60 62 Far East Australia, New Zealand and S. America 61 has also played in France Germany Portugal Denmark Sweden and Turkey settled in Israel 59 Prizewinner Berlin Prague Bucharest Int. Piano Competitions 51 53
 45 Hanassi Street Herzliya Nof Yam Israel

Kayali, Sami, Syrian writer b 1900
 Editor of *Al Hadith Aleppo* (magazine) until 58
 Pubs. include *Sif El Daulat* et l'époque des Hamdanides *La pensée arabe hier et aujourd'hui* *Le mouvement arabe à Alep au régime séleucide* *Recueil de littérature contemporaine* *La littérature arabe contemporaine en Syrie* *Au fil de la vie* *Vers et l'in* *Etude sur la Poésie* *l'insolite dans la littérature arabe* biography (with Taha Hussein) *Emine El Rihani* *Le poète* *Walis El Din* *Yaguan* *Le philosophe*

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

"Ichraiki" Chahab El Dine El-Sahrawardi, *L'Histoire Ibn Il Adim défend Abi Ala El-Maari*; travel: *Un mois en Europe, Journal d'un Arabe en Amérique, Au pays de l'Andalousie*.

Aleppo, Syrian Arab Republic.

Kayla, Ziya; Turkish economist; b. 28 Dec. 1912; ed. School of Political Sciences, Istanbul.

Ministry of Finance 34-63, Asst. Inspector, Inspector and Chief Inspector of Finance 34-60; Deputy Minister of Finance 60-63; Chair, Board of Dirs. and Dir.-Gen. Central Bank of Turkey 63-66; Alternate Gov. for Turkey of Int. Bank for Reconstruction and Development 61-66; Pres. Banks' Asscn. of Turkey 63-66; Sec.-Gen. Comm. of Regulation of Bank Credits 63-66, Head of Foreign Investment Encouragement Cttee. 63-66; mem. Board of Controllers of the Prime Ministry 66-70. Publ. *Emission Movements in Turkey* 67. Büklüm sokak, 40/16 Ankara, Turkey.

Kayra, Cahit; Turkish civil servant and diplomatist; b. 13 March 1917; ed. Univ. of Ankara.

Inspector of Finance 42-50; Counsellor, Gen. Dir. of Finance 50-55; private financial adviser 55-59; Head of Foreign Trade Dept., Ministry of Trade 59-60; Head of Turkish Perm. Del. to Gen. Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) 60-63; Deputy Under-Sec. of State to Min. of Finance 63-64; Head of Turkish Del. to OECD 64-67; Head of Research Dept., Ministry of Finance 67-. Publs. *Middle Eastern Oil* 53, *A Guide to the Turkish System of Taxation* 57, *Import Policy in Turkey* 63. Research Department, Ministry of Finance, Ankara, Turkey.

Kedourie, Elie, B.Sc.(ECON.); British university teacher; b. 1926; ed. College A.-D. Sasson and Shamash School, Baghdad, London School of Economics and St. Antony's Coll., Oxford.

Assistant Lecturer, then Lecturer in Politics and Public Admin., London School of Economics 53-60; Reader in Political Studies with special reference to the Middle East, London Univ. 61-65; Prof. of Politics, London Univ. 65-; Editor *Middle Eastern Studies* 64-.

Publs. *England and the Middle East: the Destruction of the Ottoman Empire* 56, *Nationalism* 60, *Afghani and Abdur* 66, *The Chatham House Version* 70, *Nationalism in Asia and Africa* 71.

London School of Economics, Houghton Street, Aldwych, London, W.C.1, England.

Kellou, Mohamed; Algerian lawyer and diplomatist; b. 27 March 1931; ed. Univs. of Algiers and Montpellier.

Lawyer, Algiers; fmr. Vice-Pres. Union Générale des Etudiants Musulmans Algériens (U.G.E.M.A.) (in charge of Foreign Affairs); Front de Liberation Nationale (F.L.N.) Rep. in U.K. 57-61; Chief of Provisional Govt. of Algeria Diplomatic Mission to Pakistan 61-62; Chief of Africa-Asia-America Div., Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Republic of Algeria 62-63; Amb. to U.K. 63-64, to Czechoslovakia 64-70, concurrently to Hungary 65-70, to Poland 66-70. 40 boulevard des Martyrs, Algiers, Algeria.

Kemal, Yaşar; Turkish writer and journalist; b. 1922; self-educated; detained May 71.

Publs. *Memed, My Hawk* 61, *The Wind from the Plain* 63, *Anatolian Tales*; novels, short stories and essays in Turkish. P.K. 14, Basinköy, Istanbul, Turkey.

Kenter, Ayşe Yıldız; Turkish actress and producer; b. 1928; ed. State Conservatoire.

Worked in State Theatre for eleven years, playing about forty parts; Rockefeller Fellowship in Dramatic Art; teacher of Dramatic Art, State Conservatoire; now acting and producing independently; twice awarded Iskender Prize for best performance of the year.

c/o State Conservatoire, Ankara, Turkey.

Kenyon, Kathleen Mary, C.B.E., D.LITT., D.LIT., L.H.D., F.B.A., F.S.A.; British archaeologist; b. 5 Jan. 1906; ed. St. Paul's Girls' School and Somerville Coll., Oxford.

Sec. Inst. of Archaeology 35-48, Council for British Archaeology 44-49; Lecturer Univ. of London Inst. of Archaeology 48-62; Principal St. Hugh's Coll. Oxford Aug. 62-; Dir. British School of Archaeology in Jerusalem 61-66; Dir. Joint U.K.-Canadian Expedition in Jerusalem; has participated in and directed numerous excavations in U.K. and Middle East.

Publs. *Excavations at the Jewry Wall, Leicester* 48, *Samaria-Sebaste I* 42, *III* 57 (joint author), *Beginning in Archaeology* 54, *Digging up Jericho* 57, *Excavations at Jericho I* 60, *II* 66, *Archaeology in the Holy Land* 60, *Amorites and Canaanites* 66, *Jerusalem* 68.

Old Brands Lodge, Terriers, High Wycombe, Bucks., England.

Kerr, Malcolm Hooper, M.A., PH.D.; American university professor; b. 8 Oct. 1931; ed. Princeton Univ., American Univ. of Beirut, Harvard Univ. and Johns Hopkins Univ. Assistant Prof. of Political Science, American Univ. of Beirut 58-61, visiting Assoc. Prof. 65-66; Research Fellow St. Antony's Coll. Oxford 61-62; Asst. Prof. of Political Science, Univ. of Calif. 62-63; Assoc. Prof. 63-67; Prof. and Chair, Dept. of Political Science 67-70; Fellow, American Research Centre, Cairo 64-65.

Publs. *Lebanon in the Last Years of Feudalism 1840-1868* 59, *The Arab Cold War 1958-1964: a Study of Ideology in Politics* 65 (2nd edn. 1958-1967) 67, *Islamic Reform: the Political and Legal Theories of Muhammad Abdur and Rashid Rida* 66.

Department of Political Science, University of California, Los Angeles, California 90024, U.S.A.

Khadduri, Majid, B.A., PH.D.; Iraqi educationist and writer; b. 27 Sept. 1909; ed. American Univ. of Beirut and Univ. of Chicago.

Sec.-Treas. Baghdad P.E.N. Club; mem. American Society of Int. Law; Iraqi Del. to the 14th Conf. of the P.E.N. Clubs in Buenos Aires 36; adviser to the Iraq Delegation at the San Francisco Conf. 45; Visiting Lecturer in Near Eastern History at Indiana Univ. 47-48; fmr. Prof. Modern Middle-Eastern History at the Higher Teachers' Coll., Baghdad, Iraq 48-49; taught Middle East politics at Chicago and Harvard Univs. 49-50; Prof. Middle East Studies, Johns Hopkins Univ. 50-. Distinguished Research Prof. 70-; Dir. of Research and Education, Middle East Inst. 50-; Visiting Middle East Prof., Columbia Univ.; mem. American Pol. Science Asscn.; Pres. Shaybani Soc. of Int. Law Washington D.C.

Publs. *The Liberation of Iraq from the Mandate* (in Arabic) 35, *The Law of War and Peace in Islam* 41, *The Government of Iraq* 44, *The System of Government in Iraq* (in Arabic) 46, *Independent Iraq* 51, *War and Peace in the Law of Islam* 55, *Islamic Jurisprudence* 61, *Modern Libya* 63, *The Islamic Law of Nations* 66, *Republican Iraq* 69, *Political Trends in the Arab World* 70.

Office: 4454 Tindall Street, N.W., Washington 16, D.C., U.S.A.

Khal, Yusuf A. Al-, B.A.; Lebanese writer and publisher; b. 25 Dec. 1917; ed. American Univ., Beirut.

Teacher of Arabic Literature, American Univ. of Beirut 45-47. 55-58; Editor *Sawt al Mar'at* women's monthly 46-48; Editor-Writer, Dept. of Public Information, UN Secretariat 48-50; Information Officer Libyan Mission to UN 50-52; Editor *Al Hoda* daily, New York 52-55; Founder and Editor *Shir* poetry magazine, *Adab* literary quarterly 57-; owner Gallery One, Beirut; Editorial Dir. Dar An-Nahar Publishing Co., Beirut 67-70.

Publs. *Al Hurriyat* (poetry) 44, *Herodiat* (poetical play) 54, *Al Bi'r al Mahjourat* (poetry) 58, *Quasa'id fil Arba'yn* (poetry) 60; translations works by T. S. Eliot, Auden,

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Pound Sandberg, Frost and others, numerous essays and articles of literary criticism
Rue Patmarcat Beirut Lebanon

Khalaf, Kadhim M.; Iraqi diplomatist, b 1922, ed American Univ of Beirut and Inst des Hautes Etudes Internationales Paris

Member staff Perm Mission of Iraq to UN 48, Del to numerous confs, Dir -Gen UN Dept. Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Iraq 62-64; Under Sec of Ministry of Foreign Affairs 64 66 67-68 Perm Rep to UN 66-67, Head of Iraqi Del to Int Conf on Human Rights 68, Amb to UK 68-

The Embassy of Iraq 22 Queen's Gate, London, SW 7, England

Khalaf, Abbas Ali, PH D, Iranian diplomatist and administrator, b 1912, ed Univ of Paris
Ministry of Finance 40-42, Ministry of Foreign Affairs 42 served Teheran, Berne, Warsaw, Teheran, Paris, Teheran, Ambassador to Poland and Romania 59 62, Sec Gen. Central Treaty Org (CTO) 62 67, Deputy Foreign Minister 70

c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Teheran, Iran

Khalid ibn Abdullaziz, Crown Prince; Saudi Arabian Emir, b 1913; ed religious schools

Appointed Asst. to his brother, Prince Faisal 34, Rep of Saudi Arabia to various Int. Confs, Vice Pres Council of Ministers Oct 62; nominated Crown Prince 65
Vice-President's Office, Council of Ministers, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.

Khalid, Mansour, LL.D., Sudanese diplomatist and lawyer b 17 Jan 1931, Sudan, ed Univs of Khartoum Pennsylvania and Paris

Began his career as an attorney, Khartoum 57 59 Legal officer UN, NY 62-63 Deputy UN resident rep, Algeria 61-65 Bureau of Relations with Member States UNESCO, Paris 65-69 Visiting Prof of Int. Law, Univ of Colorado 68 Minister of Youth and Social Affairs Sudan 69 71 Chair of Del of Sudan to UN Gen Assembly, Special Consultant and Personal Rep of UNESCO Dir Gen for UNWRA fund raising mission 70, Perm Rep to UN for Sudan 71, Minister of Foreign Affairs July 71-
Permanent Mission of the Democratic Republic of the Sudan to the UN, 757 Third Avenue, New York, NY 10017, U.S.A.

Khalidi, Ismail Raghib, B.A., M.A., PH D, Saudi Arabian United Nations official, b 13 Nov 1916 ed St George's School and Govt. Arab Coll, Jerusalem American Univ of Beirut Michigan Univ and Columbia Univ, U.S.A.

Assistant Script Editor, Radio Arabic Desk, U.S. Office of War Information, New York 42-44, Sec-Gen, Inst. of Arab-American Affairs New York 44-47, New York Correspond. for *Al Misi* (Caro daily) 46-47, Assoc Dir Asia Inst. for Arabic Studies, New York 47-48, Adviser to Saudi Arabian Del UN 49, mem UN Secretariat 49, UN Mission to Libya 50-52, UN Observer, British N Cameroons 60-61, Political Affairs Officer, UN Security Council Affairs Div 55, Principal Sec UN Comm for Unification and Rehabilitation of Korea (UNCURK) 62-65
Publ. *Constitutional Development in Libya* 56
121 Lorraine Avenue, Mount Vernon, NY 10553, U.S.A.

Khalidi, Awni, B.A., Iraqi diplomatist, b 1912 ed American Univ of Beirut

Lecturer, Junior Training Coll, Baghdad 33-34, Asst Sec. Ministry of Foreign Affairs 34 35 Sec to Iraqi Del, L.N., Geneva 36-37, served Paris 37-39 London 39-45 Permanent Rep to UN 50 55 headed Comm to British and French Colonies in West Africa 49 Pres Trusteeship Council 52 Chair Fifth Cttee of Gen Assembly 54, Vice-Pres UNICEF 54, Sec-Gen Baghdad Pact 55 58
31/3/27 Nejib Pasha, Baghdad, Iraq

Khalifa, Sirr el Khaim, G.C.M.G., Sudanese educationalist and politician, b 1 Jan 1919, ed Gordon Coll, Khartoum Former teacher, Gordon Coll, Khartoum, and Bakhter-Ruda Inst., Head, Khartoum Technical Inst 60 64; Deputy Under-Sec Ministry of Educ 64; Prime Minister 64 65 Amb to Italy 65 68, to United Kingdom 68 69 c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Khartoum Sudan

Khalifa Abbas, El Obeid; Sudanese diplomatist; b 1915, ed Gordon Memorial Coll, Khartoum
Sudan Railway Service 33-44, 48 54, Dep Under-Sec for Special Functions 55, Dep Perm Under Sec Ministry of Foreign Affairs 56-57, Ambassador to Ethiopia 57-59, Ambassador to Iraq Lebanon Jordan and Turkey 59 61, to U.S.A. 65-Jan. 66, Permanent Under Sec for Foreign Affairs March 66-
Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Khartoum, Sudan

Khalifah, H. H. Shaikh Isa bin Sulman al-; Ruler of the State of Bahrain, b 1933

Appointed her apparent by his father, H.H. Shaikh Sulman bin Hamad al Khalifah 58 succeeded as Shaikh on the death of his father Nov 61
The Palace Manama, Bahrain Persian Gulf

Khalifah, Khalifah bin Sulman al-; Bahrain politician, b 1935

Son of the late Sheikh Sulman and brother of the ruler Sheikh Isa, Dir of Finance and Pres of Electricity Board 61 Pres Council of Admin 66-70 Pres State Council 70 The State Council P.O. Box 78, Bahrain Persian Gulf

Khalil, Abdullah, O.B.E., Sudanese politician, b 1892, ed Khartoum.

Served Egyptian Army 10-24 and Sudan Defence Force 25 44, reaching rank of Brig, founder mem Umma Party, Sec-Gen 45 mem and leader Legislative Assembly 48, mem Executive Council and min Minister of Agriculture, mem Constitution Amendment Comm, Minister of Defence and Public Works 56, Prime Minister and Minister of Defence 56-58
Khartoum Sudan

Khalil, Mohamed Kamal El-Din; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) diplomatist

Lecturer in Int and Public Law 41-56, Dir of Research Dept., U.A.R. Ministry of Foreign Affairs 56-60, Minister Plenipotentiary, London 60-61, Dir North American Dept., U.A.R. Ministry of Foreign Affairs 61-64, Ambassador to Jordan 64-66, Ambassador to Sudan 66-
Publ. *The Arab States and the Arab League* (2 vols) 62
Embassy of the United Arab Republic, Khartoum, Sudan; and 1103 Sh. El Nil, Garden City, Cairo, U.A.R.

Khalil, Mustafa, M.Sc., PH.D., United Arab Republic (Egyptian) civil engineer and politician, b 1920, ed Faculty of Engineering, Cairo Univ., and Illinois Univ, U.S.A.
Entered service of Egyptian State Railroads 41 sent by Govt to U.S.A. 47, training with Chicago-Milwaukee Railroad 47, studied for M.Sc. and Ph.D., Univ of Illinois 47-51, resumed service with Egyptian State Railroads 51 52, lecturer in Railroad and Highway Engineering Ein Shams Univ 52, Technical Consultant to Transport Cttee, Permanent Council for Nat Production 55, Minister of Communications U.A.R. 56-64, Dep Prime Minister for Communications and Transport 64-65, Deputy Prime Minister for Industry and Electricity 65-66, mem American Soc of Civil Engineers, American Railway Engineering Assn., etc
c/o Ministry for Industry and Electricity, Cairo U.A.R.

Khanlari, Parviz, PH.D., Iranian historian and politician, b 1913, ed Teheran Univ and Univ of Paris
Professor of Iranian Linguistics Teheran Univ 48, Ed *Sokhan* (literary monthly) 44 64 and of its *Scientific Supplement* 61 64, Dep Minister of Interior 55, Senator 57, Minister of Education 62 64 Co Founder *Mardom Party*

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

57; Gen. Sec. Imperial Foundation for Iranian Cultural Studies.

P.O. Box 984, Teheran, Iran.

Khatib, Ahmed al-; Syrian school teacher; b. 1931, Salkhad, Jabal al-Arab region. Formerly Head, Syrian Teachers Asscn.; mem. Presidential Council Sept. 65-Feb. 66; Pres. of Syria Nov. 70-Feb. 71; mem. Baath Party.

c/o Office of the President, Damascus, Syria.

Khayyal, Abdullah Al; Saudi Arabian diplomatist; b. 1913; ed. Fouad I Univ., Cairo. Private Sec. to Minister of Foreign Affairs, H.R.H. Prince Faisal 32; Dir.-Gen. of Schools, Eastern Saudi Arabia and Dir. A.H.S.A. Central School 41; Second Sec. Saudi Arabian Legation, Baghdad 43, First Sec. and Chargé d'Affaires 45; Minister to Iraq 47-55; Perm. Del. to UN 55-57; Ambassador to U.S.A. 55-63, concurrently Minister to Mexico 56-60, Ambassador 60-63; Pres. Islamic Center, Washington, D.C. 56-58; Dir. of Public Works 64-65. Department of Public Works, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia.

Khefacha, Mohamed El Hédi, L. ès L.; Tunisian politician; b. 11 Oct. 1916; ed. Coll. Sadiki, Lycée Carnot, Tunis and Faculté de Droit, Algiers. Called to Bar, Tunis 42; Pres. Union of Young Lawyers of Tunisia 50-56; Gen. Inspector of Customs 56-58; Sec. of State for Justice 58-66, concurrently Sec. of State for Finance 60-66; Sec. of State for Public Health Sept. 66-Sept. 69, for the Interior Sept. 69-71. 20 avenue de Paris, Tunis, Tunisia.

Kheir, Ahmed Mohamed; Sudanese politician; ed. Gordon Memorial Coll., and Khartoum School of Law. Advocate 44; mem. Sudan del. which negotiated Sudan's future 46; fmr. Vice-Pres. and Pres. of Nat. Cttee. for the Constitution; Minister of Foreign Affairs 58-64, of Mineral Resources 62-64.

Publs. (Arabic) *The Struggle of a Generation, Calamities of the British in the Sudan* (English), *Sudan Appeals to U.N.O.* Khartoum, Sudan.

Khene, Lamine Abderrahman, M.D.; Algerian doctor, politician and administrator; b. 6 March 1931; ed. Univ. of Algiers.

Secretary of State, Provisional Govt. of Algeria (G.P.R.A.) 58-60; Dir. of Political Affairs, Ministry of Interior, G.P.R.A. 60-61; Dir. of Cabinet, Ministry of Finances G.P.R.A. 61-62; Pres. of Technical Org. for Exploiting Wealth of Saharan Sub-Soil (l'Organisme Saharien) Sept. 62-Dec. 65; Pres. Electricité et Gaz d'Algérie (E.G.A.) July-Oct. 64; Pres. Industrial Co-operation Org. (O.C.I.) Jan. 66-Aug. 71; Minister of Public Works and Construction Sept. 66-July 70.

42 ch. cheikh B. Brahimi-El-Biar, Algiers, Algeria.

Khiary, Mahmoud; Tunisian politician and trades union official; b. 1911; ed. Ecole Normale, Tunis.

Teacher 31-55; Sec.-Gen. Tunisian Union of Teachers 41-52; Pres. Gen. Fed. of Tunisian Officials 47-58; fmr. Sec.-Gen., Gen. Union of Tunisian Workers; fmr. Minister of Posts and Telegraphs; fmr. Minister of Agriculture; mem. Nat. Constituent Ass.; Chief, UN Civil Operations in the Congo 61-62; Pres. Dir. Gen. Soc. Nat. Tunisienne de Cellulose, Soc. Nat. Tunisienne de Papier Alfa.

Société Nationale Tunisienne de Cellulose, 6 avenue Bourguiba, Tunis; and 6 avenue Bourguiba, Salambo, Tunisia.

Khlefi, Gen. Abdel Rahman; Syrian army officer and engineer; b. 1930.

Representative of Syria, Joint Arab Command, Cairo 64-67; Head, Armoured Forces Admin., Damascus 67-68; Head, Officers' Board, Ministry of Defence 68-70; Minister of the Interior Nov. 70-April 71; Prime Minister April 71-Office of the Prime Minister, Damascus, Syria.

Khoskhash, Youssof; Iranian banker; b. 1906; ed. Teheran Secondary School and Sorbonne, Paris.

Bank Melli Iran 34-39; Ministry of Finance, Iranian Del. to Europe 39-40, Commercial Del. to India 40-44; Vice-Pres. Bank Sepah 45-61; Pres. Bank Melli Iran 61-65. Bank Melli Iran, Teheran, Iran.

Khosrovani, Attaollah; Iranian politician; b. 1919; ed. Univ. of Teheran and Univ. of Paris.

Former Labour Attaché, France; Govt. Supervisor to Workers Social Insurance Organisation, later Head 54-58; Under-Sec. (Admin.) Ministry of Labour and Under-Sec. (Parl.) Ministry of Labour 58; Minister of Labour and Social Services 61-64; Minister of Labour 64-68 and of Social Affairs 65-68; Sec.-Gen. Iran Novin Party; Order of Homayoun, Second Class, Order of Sepasse, Order of Homayoun, First Class.

c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Teheran, Iran.

Khosrovani, Khosro, D.Sc.; Iranian diplomatist; b. 16 June 1914; ed. Iran and England.

Foreign Service, served Ministry of Foreign Affairs, UN, Washington; later Deputy Minister of Nat. Economy; Chair. Board of Inspectorate N.I.O.C. 63; Ambassador to Turkey 63-65, to U.S.A. 65-67; High Insp. Ministry of Foreign Affairs 67; Pres. Council of Political Planning and Programmes 70; Amb. to U.A.R. 71-72.

24 Boulos Hanna Street, Dokki, Cairo, U.A.R.

Khoury, Sheikh Maître Michel, LL.B.; Lebanese businessman and politician; b. 24 Nov. 1926; ed. Univ. St. Joseph, Beirut, Paris Univ. Faculté de Droit, Inst. d'Etudes Politiques and Coll. de France.

Political section, Ministry of Foreign Affairs 46-49; Contributor to *Le Jour* daily 44-45; Dir.-Gen. Ets. Derwiche Youssef Haddad 53-54; mem. Board Nat. Council of Tourism 62-66, Pres. 64-66; Minister of Defence and of Guidance, Information and Tourism Dec. 65-April 66; Minister of Planning and Tourism 66-68; Middle East Regional Editor *Columbia Journal of World Business*.

Ets. Derwiche Youssef Haddad, Beirut, Lebanon.

Khoury, Victor, LL.D.; Lebanese lawyer and diplomatist; b. 1904; ed. Lebanon and France.

Counsellor to the Lebanese Legation in London 44; Del. to the Preparatory Commission of U.N.O. 45; Del. to First Session of the General Assembly 45; Del. to Cttee. of Refugees and Displaced Persons, London 46; Minister to the United Kingdom 47-53, Ambassador 53-55; Del. to U.N. Gen. Assembly 46-49; Ambassador to U.S.A. 55-58; to France 59-66; Order of the Cedar, Syrian Order of Merit. Publ. *L'Evolution du Mandat "A"* 26.

c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Damascus, Lebanon.

Khowaitir, Abdul-Aziz al-, Ph.D.; Saudi Arabian university official; b. 1928; ed. Mecca, Cairo Univ. and School of Oriental and African Studies, London Univ.

Sec.-Gen. Univ. of Riyadh 60-61, Vice-Rector and Acting Rector 61-62.

University of Riyadh, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.

Kian, Gholan-Reza, LL.D.; Iranian professor and politician; b. 1901; ed. School of Political Sciences, Teheran and Univ. of Paris.

Magistrate with Ministry of Justice 31-34; Professor, Law Faculty, Teheran Univ. 35; various Government, banking commercial and industrial posts 36-58; Deputy to the Prime Minister 58-Sept. 60.

Publs. *Histoire Monétaire de la Perse des Origines à la fin de la Période Parthe* (French) 34, *History of External Relations of Iran* (Iranian) 35, *Elements of Statistics* 35, *Public Accounts* 36, *Public Finance and Fiscal Policy* 54, *Principles of Economics* 58, *Functional Finance* 62. Estakhr Avenue, Khajou Street 37, Teheran, Iran.

Kirk, George Eden, M.A.; American (b. British) author; b. 1911; ed. Cambridge, and Schools of Archaeology Athens and Jerusalem.

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Engraver with Colt expedition Palestine 35 38 Staff Officer (Int.) at G H Q Middle East Forces 40-45 Instructor Middle East Centre for Arab studies 45 47 M E specialist Royal Inst. of International Affairs 47 52 Assoc. Prof. Int. Relations American Univ. of Beirut 53 55 Lecturer Harvard Univ. Center for Middle Eastern Studies 57-66 Prof. of History Univ. of Mass 66 Publ. *A Short History of the Middle East* 48 (definitive edn. 64) *The Middle East in the War 50* *The Middle East 1945-50* 55 *Contemporary Arab Politics* 61 32 Cosby Ave. Amherst Mass 01002 U S A

Kirkwood Samuel Brown, M.D. American obstetrician and educationalist b 2 May 1907 ed Macalester Coll and Harvard Univ
Obstetrician 31 38 Clin. Prof. of Maternal Health Harvard Univ 39-53 Commr. Dept. of Public Health Mass 53 58 Chief Public Health Div. Int. Co-operation Admin. (I.C.A.) Iran 59-61 Dean Faculty of Medical Science and Prof. of Obstetrics American Univ. of Obstetrics and Gynecology Fellow American Public Health Assn. Assn. of Mil. Surgeons Assn. of American Medical Colls. Hon. D.Sc. Macalester Coll 51 Hon. LL.D. Amherst Coll 66
American University of Beirut Beirut Lebanon

Kittani Ismail T. Iraqi United Nations official b 5 April 1929 Amadiya ed Knox Coll Galesburg Ill.
High School teacher Iraq joined Foreign Ministry 52 Attache Cairo 54 57 mem. Iraqi mission to UN 57 Acting Perm. Rep. 58 59 Perm. Rep. to European Office of UN 61-64 Chief Specialized Agencies and Admin. Cttee of Co-ordination Affairs Dept. of Econ. and Social Affairs UN Sec. 64 Sec. Econ. and Social Council 65 67 Principal Officer later Dir. Exec. Office of Sec. Gen. of UN 67 69 Deputy to Asst. Sec. Gen. for Inter. Agency Affairs Nov 69-70 Asst. Sec. Gen. for Inter. Agency Affairs Jan 71 mem. del. of Iraq to various int. comms. and confs. mem. Gov. Board ILO 59 alt. mem. Exec. Board WHO 61
United Nations New York N.Y. U.S.A.

Kizilaya, Melin, Turkish civil servant and diplomatist b. 1918 ed Ankara Univ
Inspector of Finance 45 55 Deputy Dir. Gen. of Revenue Dept. Ministry of Finance 56-60 Financial Commr. of Istanbul 60-61 mem. Turkish Del. to Org. for Econ. Co-operation and Devt. (OECD) 61 64 Dir. Gen. of Treasury later Counsellor Ministry of Finance 64 65 Dir. Gen. Army Savings Bank 65 66 Deputy Under Sec. of State Ministry of Finance 66-68 Rep. of Turkey, at OECD 68-70
14 boulevard Malesherbes Paris 17e France

Kiziloglu, Major Gen. Muharrem Ihsan, Turkish soldier and politician b. 1905 ed War School War Acad. and Berlin War Acad.
Chief of Operations Branch at General Staff H Q 57 58 Major Gen. 58 Chief of Military Schools Dept. 59 60 Minister of the Interior 60-61 Vice Pres. and Minister of State Feb. May 61 Ambassador to the Vatican 61 66 c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs Ankara Turkey

Ki bi, Chadli, Tunisian politician
Secretary of State for Information and Cultural Affairs 61 64 for Cultural Affairs Nov. 64 also for Information and Guidance 66-69 Minister of Cultural Affairs 69-70 c/o Ministry of Cultural Affairs Government Place Tunis Tunisia

Knio Mohamed Ahmed, Lebanese physician b. 1916 ed Univ. Libanouse
Heart specialist 38 Dir. El Makassed Hospital 62 City Councilor Beirut 53 60 Minister of Public Health Posts and Telecommunications 64 Pres. Confed. of Young Muslims 61 Pres. Islamic Cttee 58
El Makassed Hospital Joze'de Lebanon

Koc, Vehbi, Turkish businessman b. 1901
Opened first grocery shop in Ankara 16 formed Koc Trading Corp. 37 General Elektrik Turk 49 and many other companies Chair Koc Holding Corp. 64 manufactured Turkey's first passenger car 66 Founded Vehbi Koc Foundation 69
Koc Holding Corporation Ankara Turkey

Kol, Moshe, Israeli educator and politician b. 1911 Poland ed Hebrew Secondary School Pinsk and Hebrew Univ. Jerusalem
Co-Founder Hanoar Hazoni (Zionist Youth) movement in Poland and its Rep. on Cen. Cttee of Zionist Org. in Poland came to Israel and joined Hamefalei pioneer group in Kfar Saba 32 Del. to all Zionist Congresses 33 mem. Histadrut Exec. 41 46 mem. Jewish Agency Exec. and Head of its Youth Aliya Dept. 46-66 mem. Provisional State Council 48 and Chair of its Foreign Affairs Cttee. mem. Knesset (Parl.) 49 66 Min. of Devt. and of Tourism Jan 66-Chair Central Cttee. Independent Liberal Party Vice-Pres. Liberal Int. 69 Co-Founder (in Israel) Oved Hazoni (Zionist Workers) Movement World Confed. of Gen. Zionists many Jewish Agency missions abroad Publ. *Arichim* (in Hebrew) *Youth Aliya* (in English and Hebrew)

Ministry of Development and Tourism Jerusalem Israel
Kollek, Theodore (Teddy), Israeli politician b. 1911 ed Vienna

Went to Palestine 34 mem. Kibbutz Ein Gev 37 with Zionist Youth groups in Europe and U.K. 38 40 Political Dept. Jewish Agency 42 47 Liaison with Jewish Underground in Europe 42 45 mem. Haganah mission to U.S.A. 47 48 Minister Plenipotentiary Washington 50 52 Dir. Gen. Prime Minister's Office 52 64 Chair Govt. Tourist Corp. 56-65 Chair Israel 10th Anniversary Celebrations Mayor of Jerusalem 65 Head of Nuclear Desalination of Water Project 64 66 Chair Board of Governors Israel Museum 65
Publ. *Jerusalem Sacred City of Mankind* 68 (with M. Pearlman)
Municipality of Jerusalem Jerusalem Home 6 Rashba Street Jerusalem Israel

Komedromes Epaminondas M., Cypriot politician b. May 1912 Drousha Village Paphos District ed Ambetios School Cairo and Athens Univ.
Lawyer 36-68 mem. Paphos School Cttee 50-53 Minister of Interior and Defence 68-
Ministry of Interior Nicosia Cyprus

Kony, Mohammed Awad El, United Arab Republic (Egyptian) diplomatist b. 1906
Consulate Rome 29-32 Attache Washington 37 39 Ministry of Foreign Affairs 39 41 Consul Bombay 41 43 Second Sec. Moscow 44 46 Ministry of Foreign Affairs 46 49 Counsellor Washington 49 52 Dir. Political Dept. Ministry of Foreign Affairs 52 55 Ambassador to U.S.S.R. 55-61 Amb. to U.K. 61 64 Perm. Rep. of U.A.R. to U.N. 64 69 Minister of Tourism 69 70
c/o Ministry of Tourism Cairo U.A.R.

Koper, Danis, Turkish politician and businessman b. 19 Dec. 1908 Diyaridin ed Ankara Lisesi and Munich Coll. of Technology
Engineer Water Works Dept. 36-48 Dir. Provincial Bank 51 Gen. Man. Hghways Admin. 51 56 Under Sec. Ministry of Public Works 56-57 Minister of Public Works 60 Chair Assn. of Chamber of Engineering and Architecture 58 60 Chair Turkish Airlines 59-60 Trustee Middle East Technical Univ. Ankara 59 60 mem. Constitutional Assembly 61 Partner Kuyas Construction Co. and Bormak Ltd. 60- Chair Board and Exec. Cttee. Erejli Iron and Steel Co. 61 68 Dir. Tekirwa Int. Turizm Co. 70 Baskent Yem Sanayi Co. 70 Gen. Sec. Turkish Atomic Energy Comm. Chair Board of Trustees Middle

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

East Technical Univ. 63-66; Chair. Board of Trustees, Ankara Koleji (High School) 63-; Chevalier, Légion d'Honneur.

Office: 16/4 Gazi Mustafa Kemal Blv., Yenisehir, Ankara; Home: 6 Sokak Nr. 37, Bahçelievler, Ankara, Turkey.

Koralan, Refik; Turkish lawyer and politician; b. 1890; ed. School of Law, Univ. of Istanbul.

Began career as Public Prosecutor; Inspector-Gen. of Nat. Security and Commr. of Police in Mersin and Trabzon Provinces 14-18; Garrison Area Commr., Gallipoli, World War I; Deputy for Konya to Grand Nat. Assembly 20-35; Gov. of Çoruh Province 35, Trabzon 37, Bursa 39; re-elected to Grand Assembly 42; Pres. Grand Nat. Assembly 50-60; Acting Pres. of the Republic 54; arrested and detained May 60; sentenced to death, later commuted to life imprisonment 61, released Sept. 64; founder and leader Democratic Party; decorations from Iran, Iraq, Germany, Greece, Yugoslavia, France and Afghanistan; Medal of the Independence War; Dr. Law h.c. Nihon Univ., Tokyo and Univ. of Seoul, Korea.

c/o Ulus Mahallesi 8, Etiler, Istanbul, Turkey.

Korutürk, Admiral Fahri S.; Turkish naval officer and diplomatist; b. 1903; ed. Naval Acad. and Naval War Coll.

Joined Navy 20; Naval Attaché, Rome 35-36, Berlin 37-38, Berlin and Stockholm 42-43; Commr. of Submarine Fleet 47-50; Commr. of Sea-Going Fleet 53-54; Chief of Intelligence, Armed Forces 54; Commr. of the Fleet 55; Commr.-in-Chief, Straits Area 56; Commr.-in-Chief of Navy and Commr. of Allied Forces, Black Sea 57-60, Ambassador of Turkey in U.S.S.R. 60-64, to Spain 64-65; mem. Defence Cttee. of the Senate 68. T.B.M.M., Ankara, Moda, Istanbul, Turkey.

Kramer, Samuel Noah, PH.D.; American cuneiform scholar; b. 28 Sept. 1897; ed. Temple Univ., Dropsie Coll. and Univ. of Pennsylvania.

Research Asst., Univ. of Pennsylvania 32-35, Research Assoc. 36-42, Research Assoc., Univ. Museum 42-43, Assoc. Curator 43-47, Curator of Tablet Section 48-68, Clark Research Prof. of Assyriology 48-68, Emer. Curator of Tablet Section 68-, Emer. Clark Research Prof. of Assyriology 68-; Guggenheim Fellowship for study in Istanbul 37-39; Annual Prof., American Schools of Oriental Research 46-47; Fulbright Research Prof. in Turkey 51-52; Exchange Prof., Soviet Acad. of Sciences and Univ. Museum 57; Fellow, American Council of Learned Socs. 59-60; John Frederick Lewis Prize of American Philosophical Soc. 44; Hon. Dr. Hebrew Letters (Hebrew Union Coll.); Hon. LL.D. (Temple Univ.).

Pubs. *Sumerian Literary Texts from Nippur in the Museum of the Ancient Orient at Istanbul* 44, *Sumerian Mythology* 44, *From the Tablets of Sumer* 56 (republished as *History Begins at Sumer* 59), *Mythologies of the Ancient World* 61, *The Sumerians* 63, *Literary and Religious Texts, Part I, Ur Excavation Texts VI* (with C. J. Gadd) 63, *The Sacred Marriage Rite* 69.

University Museum, 33rd and Spruce Streets, Philadelphia, Pa. 19104, U.S.A.

Kranidiotis, Nicos; Greek-Cypriot scholar and diplomatist; b. 25 Nov. 1911; ed. Pan Cyprian Gymnasium, Cyprus, Athens Univ., and Harvard Univ. Center for Int. Affairs.

Worked as schoolmaster in Cyprus; Dir. of *Hellenic Cyprus* (official political organ of Cyprus Ethnarchy) 49; Gen. Sec. Cyprus Ethnarchy 53-57, Councillor 57-60; Ambassador to Greece 60-63, to Yugoslavia 63-64, to Italy 64-70, to Bulgaria and Romania 70-; Sec. of 2nd and 3rd Cyprus Nat. Assemblies 54, 55; Founder, Dir. and Editor (with others) of *Kypriaka Grammata* (Cyprus Literature), a literary magazine.

Pubs. *Chronicles* (short stories) 45, *The Neohellenic*

Theatre (essay) 50, *Studies* (poems) 51, *Forms of Myth* (short stories) 54, *The Poet G. Seferis* (essay) 55, *The National Character of The Cyprus Literature* 58, *Cyprus in her Struggle for Freedom* (history) 58, *An Introduction to the Poetry of George Seferis* 64, *Cyprus-Greece* 66, *Cyprus Poetry* 69.

16 Prometheus Street, Nicosia, Cyprus.

Kubbah, Salih; Iraqi politician and economist.

Chairman Iraq Nat. Oil Co. (INOC) 64-67; Gov. Central Bank of Iraq 67-; Minister of Finance July 68.

Central Bank of Iraq, Banks Street, Baghdad, Iraq.

Küçük, Fazil, M.D.; Cypriot politician; b. 1906; ed. Istanbul and Lausanne Univs.

Owner and Editor *Halkın Sesi* (daily) 41-; Leader, Cyprus Turkish Party (now Cyprus Turkish National Union) 43-; Chair. Evcaf High Council 56-; Vice-Pres. Cyprus Aug. 60- P.O. Box 339, Nicosia, Cyprus.

Kudsi, Nazem El, PH.D.; Syrian politician; b. 1906; ed. American Coll., Beirut, Damascus Univ. and Univ. of Geneva.

Barrister in Aleppo 30; Dep. for Aleppo 36, 47, 55; Minister Plenipotentiary, Washington 44-45; Prime Minister and Minister for Foreign Affairs 50; Pres. Council of Ministers 54-57; Leader, Populist Party; held no political office during United Arab Republic régime 58-61; Pres. of the Syrian Arab Republic 61-63, retired 63.

Aleppo, Syrian Arab Republic.

Kuneralp, Zeki, DR.IUR.; Turkish diplomatist; b. 5 Oct. 1914, Istanbul; ed. Univ. of Berne.

Entered Diplomatic Service 40; Official, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Turkey 41-42, 47-49; Attaché to Embassy Bucharest 43-47, Prague 49-52; Del. to NATO (Paris) 52-57; Asst. Sec.-Gen. Diplomatic Service 57-60, Sec.-Gen. 60; Ambassador to Switzerland Sept. 60-64, to U.K. Feb. 64-66; Sec.-Gen. Ministry of Foreign Affairs Aug. 66-69; Amb. to U.K. Aug. 69-.

Embassy of Turkey, 43 Belgrave Square, London, S.W.1, England.

Kural, Adnan; Turkish diplomatist; b. 1910; ed. Ankara Univ.

Entered Foreign Service 35; served Rome, Moscow, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Rome 38-45; del. to UN 45-51; Ministry of Foreign Affairs 51-55; Ambassador to Syria 55-58; Political Adviser, Ministry of Foreign Affairs 58-60; Ambassador to Greece 60-62; Perm. Rep. to UN 62-64; Ambassador to Switzerland 64-65, to Italy 65-67, to Spain 67-70.

Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Ankara, Turkey.

Kurdoğlu, Faik; Turkish lawyer and politician; b. 1894; ed. Istanbul and Brussels Univs.

Former Dep.; fmr. Under-Sec. of State for Economy; leader Turkish mission to conduct commercial negotiations with several countries and to attend several int. confs.; fmr. Minister of Agriculture; econ., legal and financial adviser to various companies.

Pubs. *La Turquie Economique* 28, *La Turquie vous offre le marché qu'il vous faut* 30, *Turkish Tobacco* 31.

Valikonagi cad. 46/6, Nişantaşı, Istanbul, Turkey.

Kurtbek, Col. Seyfi; Turkish army officer; b. 1906; ed. War Academy.

Commissioned Lieut. 23; Mil. expert, Disarmament Confs., Geneva 33; Mil. Attaché, Paris 33; Mil. Expert, Montreux Conf. (Straits) 36; Major, Chief of Operations Army Corps 39; Mil. Attaché, Athens 40; Lt.-Col., Dir. of the Mobilisation Section of Gen. Staff, Ankara 44; Col. 48; resgnd. from the Army and elected Democratic Party Deputy for Ankara 50, re-elected 54; Minister of Communications 51-52; Minister of Defence 52-53; arrested 60, released 61; Vice-Pres. Justice Party 61-; Deputy for Sivas 65-; Chair. Parl. Foreign Affairs Comm. 65-; Medal of Independence.

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Publs (in Turkish) War and Economy Preparation of the Nat on for Defence Mobilization of Germany To Arms Women in National Defence
T B M M Ankara Turkey

Kuwat H H The Ruler of (see Sabah Emir Sabah Al Salem Al)

Kyprianos, Spyros, Cypriot politician b 28 Oct 1932 ed. City of London Coll and Gray's Inn
Qualified as barrister mem Cyprus Ethnarchy Secretariat, London 54 50 Cyprus observer at UN 57 headed del to UN General Assembly 19 20 21 sess ons rep Greek Cypriot s de in negotiations for tri partite pact between Greece Turkey and Cyprus 59 Minister of Justice Aug 60 Min str of Foreign Affairs 60 several decorations Ministry of Foreign Affairs Nicosia and 3 Georgiou Tynmou Street Nicosia Cyprus

L

Lab d Abdelwahab, Tunisian financier b 1929
Former Gen Man. Banque de Tunisie Insp Gen Banque Nat Agricole de Tunisie Man Soc Tunisienne de Banque Man Dir Nat Devt Bank of Niger Vice-Pres African Devt Bank June 69-Sept 70 Pres Sept 70
African Development Bank B P 1387 Abidjan Ivory Coast.

Ladgham Bahi, Tunisian politician b 10 Jan 1913 Tunis
Joined Dept of Interior 33 subsequently moved to Finance Dept. Sec of State for the Presidency and Sec of State for Defence 56-Sept 69 Prime Minister of Tunisia Nov 69-Nov 70 Chair Arab Cttee supervising the cease-fire between Jordanian Govt and the Palestinians in Jordan Sept 70-April 71 now personal rep of Pres Bourghiba Sec Gen. Socialist Destourian Party (Imrily Neo-Destur Party) 55
Office of the Prime Minister Tunis Tunisia

Laighzouli, Mohamed, Moroccan politician
Former Minister of Economics Imr Director of National Security Rep of King Hassan to Algerian leaders Conf held by French Govt Dec 61 March 62 Dir-Gen Office Chénouen des Phosphates and Chief Co-ordinator of State Econ Enterprises Jan 63 July 65 Minister of Tourism Industry and Mines June July 65 Pres Organization afro-asiatique de coopération économique May 66 Treas Democratic Socialist Party (PSD) May 64 Amb to U.K. June 69 Feb 71 to France Mar 71
Moroccan Embassy rue Le Tasse 3 Paris 16e France

Lahoud, Gen Jamil Georges, Lebanese army officer and politician b 1903 ed. Coll de la Sagesse Beirut and Ecole Militaire Damascus and Staff Coll in Turkey and England.
Army career 23-60 General 59 Dir Gen Military Office Presidency of the Republic 59 60 mem. Chamber of Deputies 60- Minister of Social Affairs and Works 66-67 numerous national and international decorations including Order Nat du Cèdre (Lebanon) Officier Légion d'Honneur (France) Grand Officier Ordre Chéhan (Iran) and Grand Officier Ordre Royal (Morocco)
c/o Ministry of Social Affairs and Works Beirut Lebanon

Lalla Aicha, H R H Princess, Moroccan diplomatist b 1930
Eldst daughter of late King Mohammed V Ambassador to U.K. and Kingdom 65-69 to Italy 69 Pres Moroccan Red Crescent Grand Cordon of Order of the Throne
Embassy of Morocco Via degli Scialoi 32 Rome Italy

Landau, Haim, Israeli engineer and politician b 10 Sept 1916 Cracow Poland ed Hebrew Technical Univ
Went to Israel 35 building engineer until 42 Chief of Staff 44 48 mem Exec Cttee Herut Movement Minister of Devt Dec 69 Aug 70
c/o Ministry of Development Jerusalem Israel

Landau, Moshe, LL B Israeli judge b Danzig 1912 ed London Univ
Immigrated 33 called to Palestine Bar 37 Magistrate of Haifa 40 District Court Judge Haifa 48 Justice Supreme Court Jerusalem 53
The Supreme Court Jerusalem Israel

Landau, Rom, British writer and educationalist
Sculptor and art critic visited King Ibn Saud and other religious leaders Near East 37 mem Exec Cttee World Congress of Fa ths London 35 44 R.A.F. Liaison Officer 39 later Air Gunner and Flight Lieut Senior Specialist Middle East Section Ministry of Information 41 mem Arab Cttee Political Intelligence Dept Foreign Office 41 44 lectured on Morocco at Columbia Princeton Yale and other U.S. Univs 52 and 53 54 Prof Islamic and North African Studies American Acad of As an Studies San Francisco 52 58 and Univ of the Pacific 56-67 Peace Corps Dir Area Studies Morocco Project 162 63 Commr Onissam Alaouite Order of Morocco 56 D'Hun Latt (Univ of the Pacific) 67

Publs *Minos the Incorruptible* 25 *Pilsudski's Hero of Poland* 29 *Padziewski's 34 God is my Adventure* 35 64 *Seven* 36 *Thy Kingdom Come* 37 *Search for Tomorrow* 38 *Arm the Apostles* 39 *Love for a Country* 39 *Of No Importance* 40 *We Have Seen Evil* 41 *Hitler's Paradise* 41 *The Fool's Progress* 42 *Letter to Andrew* 43 *Islam Today* (with Prof A. J. Arberry) 43 *The Brother Vane* 44 *The Wing* 45 *Sex Life and Faith* 46 *The Merry Oasis* 47 *Odyssus* 48 *Human Relations* 49 *Personalia* 49 *Invitation to Morocco* 50 *The Sultan of Morocco* 51 *The Beauty of Morocco* 51 *Moroccan Journal* 52 *Morocco* (survey for Carnegie Endowment for Int Peace) 52 *Portrait of Tangier* 52 *France and the Arabs* 53 *Among the Americans* 54 *The Arabesque* 55 *Moroccan Drama 1900-55* 56 *Mohammed V King of Morocco* 57 *An Outline of Moroccan Culture* 57 *Islam and the Arabs* 58 *The Philosophy of Ibn Arabi* 59 *Morocco Independent* 61 *The Arab Heritage of Western Civilization* 62 *King Hassan II* 62 *The Moroccans—Yesterday and Today* 63 *History of Morocco in the Twentieth Century* (in Arabic) 63 *Morocco Fes Rabat and Marrakesh* 67 *The Kasbas of Southern Morocco* 69 *Al Hassan al Thams Malik al Maghrib* (in Arabic) 69 *The Alaouites King Hassan's Cultural Contribi tion* 70
Echchouhada Marrakesh Morocco Faber & Faber 24 Russell Square London WC1 England

Laouisi, Henri, D ès L. French university professor b 1 April 1905 ed Lycée Louis Le Grand Paris Ecole Normale Supérieure Ecole des Langues orientales Sorbonne
Mem. French Inst Cairo 31 35 Prof Medresa de Constantine 36 37 Sec Gen French Inst Damascus 37 41 Dir 41 Prof Faculty of Letters Univ of Lyons 45 Collège de France 56 Chevalier de la Légion d'Honneur Officier de l'Instruction Publique Mérite Syrien Order of the Cedar (Lebanon)

Publs *Le Cal fat dans la doctrine de Rachid Rida* 38 *La méthodologie d'Ibn Taymiyya* 39 *Les doctrines politiques d'Ibn Taymiyya* 39 *Le traité de droit public d'Ibn Taymiyya* 47 *Le précepte de droit d'Ibn Qudama* 50 *Les gouverneurs de Damas sous les Mamlouks et les premiers Ottomans* 52 *Ibn Kathir historien* 55 *Ibn Hanbal* 56 *Les Prentres Professions de Foi Haraballies* 57 *La Structure Politique Religieuse de la Loi Musulmane* *Reflexions sur la Not on de Fih* 57 *La Profession de Foi d'Ibn Baïta* 58 *Le réformisme musul*

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

man dans la littérature arabe contemporaine, Le hanbalisme sous le Califat de Baghdad, Une fête d'Ibn Taimiya sur Ibn Tumart 60, *Le hanbalisme sous les Mamluks* 60, *La classification des sectes dans le Farq de Baghdad* 61, *Les schismes dans l'Islam* 65, etc.

Institut Français, B.P. 344, Damascus, Syria; and 13 rue des Alouettes, Gif-sur-Yvette (S. et O.), France.

Laraki, Moulay Ahmed; Moroccan diplomatist; b. 1931; ed. Univ. of Paris.

With Ministry of Foreign Affairs 56-57; Perm. Rep. to UN 57-58; medical affairs 59-61; Ambassador to Spain 61-65, to U.S.A., concurrently accred. to Mexico, Canada and Venezuela 65-67; Minister of Foreign Affairs 67-69; Prime Minister 69.

Presidence du Conseil, Palais Royal, Rabat, Morocco.

Laskov, Haim; Israeli army officer; b. 4 April 1919; ed. Reali High School Haifa and St. Anthony's Coll. Oxford. Guide to British Army units in Palestine 36-39; served with British Army (major) 41-46; Commdr. of Israel forces in capture of Nazareth and Upper Gallilee 48; G.O.C. Training Command and Dir. Mil. Training 48-51; Air Officer Commanding, Israel Air Force 51-53; Dep. Chief of Staff and Dir. of Operations 55; Commdr. Armoured Forces, Sinai Campaign 56; G.O.C. Southern Command 57-58; Chief of Staff, Israel Defence Force 58-60; Dir.-Gen. Israel Ports Authority 61-70.

75, Einstein St., Tel-Aviv, Israel.

Lasky, Ahmed; Moroccan civil engineer and politician; b. 30 April 1932; ed. Casablanca High School, Ecole spéciale des travaux publics and Ecole nationale des ponts et chaussées, Paris.

Public Works Engineer, Casablanca 56; Chief Engineer Agadir Region 59; Chief Engineer Casablanca Region 60-62; Dir. Casablanca Harbour 62-65; Minister of Public Works and Communications 65-67; Dir.-Gen. Royal Air Maroc 67-; Officier, Ordre du Trône (Morocco), Ordre de George I (Greece), Commdr. Ordre de l'Istiqlal (Tunisia), Ordre Egyptien, Ordre Iranien.

Publs. numerous technical pamphlets about bridges and harbours in French and foreign magazines.

6 Rue de Liège, Casablanca, Morocco.

Lavon, Pinchas; Israeli politician; b. Poland 1904; ed. Lwów Univ.

Co-founder Gordonia (Zionist Youth Organisation in Poland) 24; settled in Palestine 29; Sec. Mapai 35-37; Exec. Cttee. Mapai and Histadrut 42-; mem. Knesset 49-; Minister of Agriculture 50-51; Minister without portfolio 52-54; Minister of Defence 54-55; Chair. Solel Boneh Ltd.; mem. Zionist Actions Cttee.; Sec.-Gen. Histadrut (Gen. Fed. of Labour in Israel) 56-61; Editor *Min Hayesod* 62-.

Publ. *Yesodot* (Foundation).

85 Gordon Street, Tel-Aviv, Israel.

Leclant, Jean, D. ès L.; French archaeologist and epigrapher; b. 8 Aug. 1920; ed. Lycées Voltaire and Henri IV, Ecole normale supérieure and Univ. de Paris.

Studied at Institut français d'archéologie orientale, Cairo 48-52; Dir. of excavations for Ethiopian Govt. 52-55; Prof. of Egyptology, Univ. de Strasbourg 54-64; developed a special interest in Meroitic script; Prof. of Egyptology, Univ. de Paris and Dir. of Studies, Ecole pratique des hautes études 64-; excavations at Karnak, Tanis, Sakkarah, Soleb, Axum; Prés. Soc. française d'égyptologie; mem. Deutsches Archäol. Inst., Comité national de la recherche scientifique.

Publs. *Enquêtes sur les sacerdores de la XXVe dynastie* 54, *Dans les pas des pharaons* 58, *Montouemhat, prince de la ville* 61, *Recherches sur les monuments thébains de la XXVe dynastie dite éthiopienne* 65; co-Editor *Annales d'Ethiopie* and *Meroitic Newsletter*.

77 rue Georges-Lardennois, Paris 19e, France.

Lee, James E., B.S.; American oil executive; b. 1921; ed. Louisiana Polytechnic Inst.

With Gulf Oil Corp. 42-66; Man. Dir. Kuwait Operations, Kuwait Oil Co. Ltd. Aug. 66-June 69; Pres. Gulf Oil Co. Gulf House, 2 Portman Street, London, W.1, England.

Levanon, Chaim; Israeli politician; b. 25 March 1899; ed. Cracow Univ.

Came to Palestine 27; mem. Jewish Agency Exec.; Mayor Tel-Aviv-Jaffa 52-59; Chair. Exec. Council, Gen. Zionist Party (now Liberal Party) 53-; Founder Tel-Aviv Univ.; Initiator, Freddy Mann Auditorium; Founder Havazelet Hasharon Settlement, Sharon.

18 Dubnon Street, Tel-Aviv, Israel.

Lowin, Daniel, LL.D.; Israeli diplomatist; b. 18 Aug. 1907; ed. Berlin, Freiburg, Heidelberg, Basle and Paris Univs.

Member Kfar Hamaccabi 38-52, Histadrut Council 42-46; Head, Jewish Agency Del. to Belsen 46-48; Consul, Vienna 48-50, Chargé d'Affaires, Netherlands 50-52; Dir. Asia and African Div., Ministry of Foreign Affairs 52-57; Ambassador to Burma and Minister to Laos and Philippines 57-60; Minister to Japan and Ceylon 60-63, concurrently Ambassador to Korea 62-63; Dir. Asia Div., Ministry of Foreign Affairs 65-66, Amb. to Netherlands 66-68, to Thailand 69-.

Embassy of Israel, 31 Soi Lang Suan, Ploenchit Rd, Bangkok, Thailand.

Lewis, Bernard, B.A., PH.D., F.R.A., F.R.HIST.S.; British university professor; b. 31 May 1916; ed. Univs. of London and Paris.

Lecturer in Islamic History, School of Oriental Studies, Univ. of London 38; served R.A.C. and Intelligence Corps 40-41; attached to Foreign Office 41-45; Prof. of History of the Near and Middle East, Univ. of London 49-; Visiting Prof. of History, Univ. of California at Los Angeles 55-56, Columbia Univ. 60; Indiana Univ. 63, Princeton Univ. 64, Inst. for Advanced Study 69.

Publs. *The Origins of Ismā'ilism* 40, *Turkey Today* 40, *British Contributions to Arabic Studies* 41, *Handbook of Diplomatic and Political Arabic* 47, *Land of Enchanters* (Editor) 48, *The Arabs in History* 50 (revised edn. 65), *Notes and Documents from the Turkish Archives* 52, *The Kingly Crown* 61, *The Emergence of Modern Turkey* 61, 68, *Historians of the Middle East* (ed. with P. M. Holt) 62, *Istanbul and the Civilization of the Ottoman Empire* 63, *The Middle East and the West* 64, *The Assassins* 67, Co-editor *Encyclopaedia of Islam* 56-.

School of Oriental and African Studies, University of London, London, W.C.1, England.

Liebesny, Herbert J., LL.D.; American lawyer; b. 1911; ed. Univs. of Munich and Vienna.

Fellow in History, Columbia Univ. 39; Univ. of Pennsylvania 39-42; Legal Adviser, American Independent Oil Co. 48-50; Summer Lecturer Near East Law Univ. of Michigan 50-52; mem. Board of Advisory Eds. *Middle East Journal* 46-; Research analyst Dept. of State, Washington 50-60; Lecturer George Washington Univ. 55-; Deputy Dir. Office of Research and Analysis for Near East and South Asia, Dept. of State 61-.

Publs. *Zenon Papyri* vol. 2, 40, *The Government of French North Africa* 43, Ed. *Law in the Middle East*, Vol. I (with M. Khadduri) 55.

4652 South 31st Street, Arlington, Va., U.S.A.

Lloyd, Seton, C.B.E., M.A., F.B.A., F.S.A., A.R.I.B.A.; British archaeologist; b. 30 May 1902; ed. Uppingham and Architectural Assen.

Asst. to Sir Edwin Lutyens, P.R.A. 27-28; excavated for Egypt Exploration Society, Egypt 29-30, for Oriental Inst., Univ. of Chicago in Iraq 30-37, for Univ. of Liverpool in Turkey 37-39; Technical Adviser, Govt. of Iraq.

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Directorate-Gen of Antiquities 39-49, Dir British Inst of Archaeology in Ankara 49-61, Hon Sec 64, Prof of Western Asiatic Archaeology, Univ of London 62-69 Hon MA (Edinburgh)

Publs *Mesopotamia* 34, *Sennacherib's Aqueduct at Jerwan* 35, *The Girsulim Temple* 40, *Presargonic Temples* 42, *Runed Cities of Iraq* 42, *Turn Rivers* 43, *Foundations in the Dust* 48, *Early Anatolia* 56, *Alanya Ala'tuya* 58, *Art of the Ancient Near East*, *Byzantine* 62, *Mounds of the Near East* 63, *Highland Peoples of Early Anatolia* 67, *Woolstone Lodge*, Farlington, Berkshire, England

Locker, Berli Israeli journalist and politician, b 1887, ed *Leuz* of Cernaui

Ed *Yiddisher Arbeter* 11-14, Gen Sec World Zionist Socialist Union (Poale Zion) 16-28, mem Zionist Gen Council 23-31, mem Executive Jewish Agency for Palestine 31-35, 46-56, Political Adviser, mem Political Cttee Jewish Agency 38-45, mem, Exec. Gen. Fed Jewish Labour in Palestine 36-48, London Rep of Fed until 48, Chair Exec Jewish Agency 48-56, mem Exec Poale Zion, mem Knesset 55-59, Acting Chair Zionist General Council 59-60

Publs, *Palestine and the Jewish Future* 42, *A Stiff-necked People Palestine in Jewish History* 46, *Covenant Everlasting* 48, *Jewish Survival and Revival* (in Hebrew) 64, *Mishlei and Jerusalem* (Autobiography) 69, 7 Alkalay Street, Jerusalem, Israel

Logali, Hilary Nyigilo Paul; Sudanese politician b 1931, Juba, Equatoria Province ed Khartoum Univ Yale Univ official with Ministry of Finance, Minister of Public Works, then of Communications 65, Minister of Labour and Co-operatives 67-69, Man Dir Bata Nationalized Corpn Bata Nationalized Corporation, P O Box 88 Khartoum Sudan

Loizides, Andreas M.; Cypriot accountant and politician b 1933, Limassol, ed Limassol Greek Gymnasium, and studies as a chartered accountant Scotland. Qualified as chartered accountant, Scotland 57, later partner in firms Metaxas Christofides, Loizides and Scotts and Touche Ross & Co., founder mem Inst of Certified Public Accountants of Cyprus later Pres mem Council of Cyprus Employers Consultative Asscn 65-69 mem Board Central Bank of Cyprus 68, Minister of Commerce and Industry July 70, Ministry of Commerce and Industry, Nicosia Cyprus

Longrigg, Stephen Hemsley, OBE, DLitt (Oxon), British historian administrator, lecturer and retd army officer, b 1893, ed Highgate School and Ornel Coll Oxford Army World War 14-18, Iraq Govt 18-31, Iraq Petroleum Co 31-51, GHQ Cairo 40, Mil Govt Cyrenaica 41-42, Chief Admin. Entree 42-44, Baghdad 41-45, Lecture Tours in USA, etc., annually 56-67, Visiting Prof Columbia Univ 66, Colorado 67, Order of Rafidain 31, Lawrence of Arabia Medal 62, Richard Burton Memorial Medal 69, Publs *Four Centuries of Modern Iraq* 25, *Short History of Entree* 45, *Iraq 1900-1950* 53, *Oil in the Middle East* 54, (3rd edn 68) *Syria and Lebanon under French Mandate* 58, *Nations of the Modern World Iraq* (jointly) 58, *The Middle East A Social Geography* 63, 70

58 Chancellor House, Tunbridge Wells, Kent, England

Loombe, Claude Evan, CMC, British banker, b 9 Aug 1905, Banking posts in Ceylon India and China 32-41, Ministry of Finance Iraq Govt 41-45, with Bank of England 45-65, latterly as Adviser to Govs, Chair British Bank of the Middle East 67, mem Currency Board, Kuwait, then Jordan 48-63, Sudan 56-60, Kuwait 60-69, Libyan Currency Comm. 52-56, Order of Al Rafidain 4th Class (Iraq) 46, Order of Independence, 2nd Class 61 and Order of Jordanian Star, 1st Class 65, Flowermead, Maon Road, Guildford, Surrey, England

Lourie, Arthur, MA, LLB, Israeli diplomatist, b South Africa 10 March 1903, ed Univ of Cambridge and Cape Town, and Harvard Univ

In legal practice, also lecturer in Law, Witwatersrand Univ 27-32, Political Sec to Jewish Agency for Palestine, London 33-40, Dir UN Office of the Jewish Agency, New York liaison officer with Anglo-American Cttee of Enquiry, Palestine 46 promoted to Minister Plenipotentiary and Envoy Extraordinary 50, 4th Consul Gen of Israel in New York and Deputy Rep of Israel to UN; Asst Dir Gen Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Jerusalem 54-57, Ambassador to Canada 57-59, to Great Britain 60-65, Chair Israeli Del to XIV Session UN, Deputy Dir Gen Ministry of Foreign Affairs 65, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Jerusalem Israel

Luce, Sir William Henry Tucker, CBE, FRCGS, FRCGS, British overseas administrator, b 25 Aug 1897, ed Clifton Coll and Christ's Coll Cambridge

Joined Sudan Political Service 30, Private Sec to Gov Gen 41-47, Deputy Gov Equatoria Province 50-51, Gov. of Blue Nile Province and Dir Sudan Gezira Board 51-53, Adviser to Gov Gen on Constitutional and External Affairs 53-56, Gov and C-in-C Aden 56-60, Political Resident, Persian Gulf 61-66, Dir Eastern Bank 66-, Tilbury Overseas Contractors and Gray, Mackenzie 67, Special Rep of UK to Persian Gulf States 70- Brook House, Fovant, Salisbury, Wiltshire, England

Lugman, Ali Muhammad Ali, BA, Yemeni journalist poet and politician, b 6 Aug 1918 ed Univ of Aligarh India and American Univ, Cairo

Editor *Fatat-ul-Jazrah* (Arabic daily) 47-62, *Al-Qalam al-Adani* (Arabic weekly) 53-63, *Al-Akhdar* (Arabic daily) 63-67, mem Legislative Council, Aden 58-65, Trustee, Aden Port Trust, Aden 59-64, Sec Aden Asscn. 49-58, Sec, Aden People's Congress, Aden 60-65, Aden Rep., Commonwealth Parl Conf, London 61, Jamaica 64, Minister for Civil Aviation, Fed of S Arabia 64-65, Chair Aden Electricity Corpn 66, Dir Aden Press Agency 65, Publs *Poetry Almatr Almaghmoor* 44, *Ashjan Fil Lail* 45, *Al-Rimal Swah*, *Annat Shaab*, *Laylah Ghareeb*, *Hader al-Qafilah* Poetical Drama, *Pygmalion*, *Ad Dhi Almanshood*, *Qais Laila*, *Al Adl al-Mafsood*, *Samraa al Arab*; *Fatat-ul-Jazrah* (English) 48, Political *Self Government* 49, News House Holkat Road P O Box 435, Crater, Aden, People's Democratic Republic of Yemen

Lugman, Muhammad Ali Ibrahim; Yemeni lawyer and journalist, b 1898, ed Aden and India, Man Clayton Ghaleb and Co Ltd 18-19, Man. English Pharmacy 21-22, Headmaster Govt School Aden 24-28, Founder Arab Literary Club 24-30, Man A Besse (British Somaliland Branches) 32-34, Pres Arab Reform Club 30-35, etc., Pres Poor Boys' Asscn.; Pleader of the Supreme Court Aden Colony, Ed *Fatat-ul-Jazrah Newspaper* 40, and *The Aden Chronicle*, Minister of Civil Aviation Nov 63-May 65, Sec Gen. People's Congress Party, Adviser to Aden Cultural Council, mem Township Authority Exec Cttee

Publs *Springs of European Progress* 33, *The British Nation* 40, *Saeed* 40, *Aradh Adhaaher* 45, *Kamilia Devi* 47, *The French Revolution* 48, *Lahay Constitution* 52, *Aden Needs Self-Government* 53, *The Story of the Yemen Revolution* (joint editor) 62, Esplanade Road Crater, Aden, People's Democratic Republic of Yemen

Lutfi, Ashraf Tawfiq, BA, Kuwaiti petroleum consultant; b 1 Jan 1919 ed Scots Coll, Safad, Palestine, Teacher in elementary and secondary schools 38-46, Welfare Officer 46-48, Sec to State Sec in Govt Sec 48-55, Asst Sec of State 55-61, Dir of Office of Emir of Kuwait 61-64, Adviser on Oil Affairs, Ministry of Finance and Industry 64-, Sec Gen Org of Petroleum

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Exporting Countries (OPEC) 65-Jan. 67; Adviser on Oil Affairs to Ministry of Finance and Oil 67-69; mem. Board Kuwait Nat. Petroleum Co. 61-; Chair. Board Kuwait Aviation Fuelling Co. 62-; Publs. *Arab Oil: A Plan for the Future* 60, *OPEC Oil: A Review of its Problems* 66. Box 7030, Beirut, Lebanon.

Luz, Kaddish; Israeli politician; b. 10 Jan. 1895; ed. in Russia.

Mem. Central Supervising Cttee., Gen. Fed. of Jewish Labour in Palestine 35-40, Labour Council, Tel-Aviv 41-42, Secretariat, Havor Haqvoutzot (Union of Agricultural Co-operative Settlements) 49-51; mem. Knesset 51-; Minister of Agriculture 55-59; mem. Central Cttee. Labour Party 56; Gen. Council Fed. of Jewish Labour; Speaker of Knesset 59-69.

Publs. *Haqvoutza Ve Hanoar* (The Co-operative Settlement and the Young Generation), *Gidool Haqvoutza Vehmurot* (The Growth of the Co-operative Settlement and Social Changes), *Gorme Mesheq Haqvoutza* (Household Factors in the Co-operative Settlement), *Darko shel Hever Haqvoutzot*, *Avnei Derech* 62, *Ahad Mishneim-Assar* 70.

Degania B, Jordan Valley, Israel.

M

Ma'ayani, Ami; Israeli composer; b. 1936, Tel-Aviv; ed. Tel-Aviv Univ., Haifa Technion and Columbia Univ., New York.

Studied music with Paul Ben-Haim and Prof. Vladimir Ussachevsky; Chair. League of Composers of Israel; Musical Dir. and Conductor of Nat. Youth Orchestra.

Works include: *Toccata for Harp* 59-60, *Concerto for Harp and Orchestra No. 1* 60, *Maqamat for Harp* 60, *Music for Strings* 62, *Tecamin* 64, *Electronic Music* 64-65, *Concerto for Percussion and Eight Wind Instruments* 66, *Concert Symphonique* 66, *Regalim* 66, *Concerto for Violin and Orchestra* 67, *Concerto for Violoncello and Orchestra* 67, *Concerto for Two Pianos and Orchestra* 69, *Qumran-Symphonic Metaphor* 70, chamber music, songs, etc. 8 Nahum Street, Tel-Aviv, Israel.

Telephone: 447962.

Mabrouk, Ezzidin Ali, LL.B., LL.M.; Libyan politician; b. 28 May 1932; ed. Cairo Univ. and Univ. Coll., London. Public Prosecutor, Tripoli 56; subsequently Judge, Summary Court, Tripoli, Pres. Tripoli Court and Counselor of Supreme Appeal Court; Senior Legal Adviser, Org. of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC); Chair. Council, Org. of Arab Petroleum Exporting Countries, Kuwait (OAPEC); Minister of Petroleum, Libya 70-; Ministry of Petroleum, P.O. Box 256, Tripoli, Libya.

McDougall, James Forsyth; New Zealand international civil servant; b. 3 Oct. 1918; ed. Otago Univ.

Member of staff, Auckland Univ. 46-50, Educ. Dept., UNESCO, Paris 51-68; Assoc. Sec. Nat. Educ. Comm., Pakistan 59, Educ. Comm., India 64-66; Regional Dir. UNICEF, Eastern Mediterranean 68-.

Publs. various UNESCO publs. on education 53-64.

UNICEF, P.O. Box 5902, Beirut, Lebanon.

Maghrabi, Mahmoud Soliman; Libyan politician; b. 1935; ed. George Washington Univ., U.S.A.

Helped to organize strikes of port workers June 67, for which he was sentenced to four years imprisonment and deprived of Libyan nationality; released Aug. 69; following the coup of Sept. 69 became Prime Minister, Minister of Finance and Agriculture, and of Agricultural Reform; dismissed from the Govt. 70.

Tripoli, Libya.

Mahdi al Tajir, H.E. Mohamed; Dubai administrator; b. 26 Dec. 1931; ed. Bahrain Govt. School and Preston Grammar School, Lancs., England.

Department of Port and Customs, Govt. of Bahrain, Dir. 55-63; Dir. Dept. of His Highness the Ruler's Affairs and Petroleum Affairs March 63-; Dir. Nat. Bank of Dubai Ltd. 63-; Dir. Dubai Petroleum Co. April 63-; Chair. Dubai Nat. Air Travel Agency Jan. 66-; Dir. Qatar-Dubai Currency Board Oct. 66-; Chair. South Eastern Dubai Drilling Co. April 68-; Hon. Citizen of State of Texas, U.S.A. 63.

Post Box 207, Dubai, Trucial States.

Mahfouz, Naguib; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) author; b. 11 Dec. 1911; ed. University of Cairo.

Civil servant 34-, successively with Univ. of Cairo, Ministry of Waqfs, Dept. of Arts and Censorship Board; fmr. Dir.-Gen., now Adviser, Cinema Org. of U.A.R.; State Prize for 1st volume of *Bein el Kasrein* 57.

Publs. *Whisper of Madness* 38, *Play of Destiny* 39, *Radobis* 43, *Struggle of Tayiba* 44, *New Cairo* 45, *Khan el Khalil* 46, *Zuqaq el Madaq* 47, *The Mirage* 48, *Beginning and End* 49, *Bein el Kasrein* (trilogy) 52, *Children of our Quarter* 59, *Quails and Autumn* 62, *The Road* 64, *The Beggar* 65, *Small-talk on the Nile* 66, *Thief and Dogs*, *God's World*.

c/o Cinema Organisation, TV Building, Maspero Street, Cairo, U.A.R.

Mahgoub, Mansour; Sudanese accountant and politician; b. 1912, El Kowa; ed. Gordon Memorial Coll.

Joined Dept. of Finance 35; trained with various companies in England 50-51; Inspector, Auditory Dept., Sudan Dec. 51-Jan. 54; Asst. Dir. of Accounts, Ministry of Finance Jan. 54-March 55; Under-Sec. for Internal and Monetary Affairs March 55-58; Under-Sec. Ministry of Commerce, Industry and Supply 58, retd. 64; joined Sudan Commercial Bank as Asst. Dir. 64; Minister of the Treasury May 69-June 70; Minister of Economy, Trade and Supplies June 70-.

Ministry of Economy, Trade and Supplies, Khartoum, Sudan.

Mahgoub, Mohammed Ahmed; Sudanese lawyer and politician; b. 1908; ed. Gordon Coll. and Khartoum School of Law.

Qualified as an architect and lawyer; practising lawyer; mem. Legislative Assembly 48-54; accompanied Umma Party Del. to Lake Success 47; mem. Constitution Amendment Comm.; non-party candidate in Gen. Election 54; Leader of the Opposition 54-56; Minister of Foreign Affairs 56-58; practising solicitor 58-64; Minister of Foreign Affairs Oct. 64-Feb. 65; Prime Minister June 65-July 66; Prime Minister and Minister of Foreign Affairs May 67-June 68; Prime Minister and Minister of Defence June 68-69.

Publ. several vols. of poetry (in Arabic).

Khartoum, Sudan.

Mahmassani, Sobhi Mohamed Ragab El; Lebanese politician; b. 1909; ed. American Univ. of Beirut, Univ. of Lyon, France, and Univ. of London, England.

President of Court of Appeal, Beirut 44-46, now Hon. Pres.; Legal Counsellor Lebanese Del. to UN at San Francisco 45; Prof. of Muslim Law, Univ. Libanaise; mem. Chamber of Deputies 64-; Minister of Nat. Econ. 66-67; Attorney-at-Law 67-.

Publs. several legal works in French, English and Arabic. Azaria Building, Beirut, Lebanon.

Mahroug, Smail; Algerian economist.

Economic Counsellor to the Presidency and Dir.-Gen. Caisse Algérienne de Développement 63-65; Dir.-Gen. of Finance 65-66; Econ. Counsellor to the Presidency 67-; Ministry of Finance, Algiers, Algeria.

Mahsas, Ahmed Ali; Algerian politician; b. c. 25.

Joined nat. liberation movement 47; Minister of Agriculture Sept. 63-66, and Agrarian Reform Dec. 64-66; mem.

WHOS WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Political Bureau of F.L.N. 64 mem Revolutionary Council
July 65-66 mem O.C.R.A. 66-
Algiers Algeria.

Mawdud, Mohamed Hashim, Afghan diplomatist
scholar and writer b 23 March 1921 ed privately in
Kabul
Editor of *Ilm* 42 Dir Afghan Encyclopaedia
44 Editor of *Ans* 45 Acting Pres of Press Dept. of
the Royal Afghan Govt 49 Press Adviser of His Afghan
Majesty 50 Pres Press Dept of Afghan Govt 51
Counsellor Afghan Embassy in Washington 53 Pres
Press Dept. Afghan Govt 54 Deputy Foreign Minister 54
Amb to United Kingdom 57 to Pakistan 57 58 63 65 to
the U.S.A. 58 63 First Class Star 58 Minister of Press and
Information 64 Prime Minister Nov 65 Oct 67 leader of
nat political movement Progressive Democracy
Kabul Afghanistan

Majdani Nassim Mikail, Lebanese banker and politi-
cian b 1912 Beirut ed American Univ of Beirut and
Universit  de Lyon

Barrister 37 44 Deputy for Beirut 57 60 64 Vice Pres
of Council of Ministers and Minister of Justice 60 61 64 65
mem. of Admin Council of Bank N Majdani Beirut
Minister of Economy 68 69 Minister of Foreign Affairs
60- Grand Cordon of Order of Tunisia Medal of Order of
St Vladimir

Ministry of Foreign Affairs Beirut Home Rue Omar Ben
Khattab Beirut Lebanon
Telephone 224 132 (Home)

Majid, Abdul PHD Afghan diplomatist b 14 July 1914
ed Cornell Univ and Univ of California (Berkeley)
member Afghan Inst of Bacteriology 47 Dir 41 42 Prof
of Biology and Physiology Kabul Univ 40-46 Pres of
Univ 46-48 Minister of Public Health 48 50 Minister
of Education 50 56 Amb to Japan 56-63 to U.S.A. 63-67
to U.K. 67 70 Leader of Afghan del to UN 66 Order of
Educ First Class 56 Sardar Ali 59 A Haas Award (Univ
of Calif.) 66
c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs Kabul Afghanistan

Majidi Dr Abdul Majid, PHD Iranian politician and
lawyer-ed Teheran Facult  de Droit Paris Univ and
Harvard Univ

Held posts in Export Devt Bank and in Plan Org Head
of Budget Bureau of Plan Org 59-60 Financial and Admin
Asst. to Dir of Plan Org 62 64 Head of Budget Bureau
formed in 1964 Deputy Prime Minister and Dir of Central
Budget Bureau 66 Minister of Agricultural Products and
Consumer Goods 67 68 of Labour and Social Affairs
68.

Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs 457 Avenue
Eisenhower Teheran Iran

Makal, Mahmud, Turkish educationist b 1933 ed
Gazi Ehtim Enstitüsü Ankara
Village teacher 47 53 Institute of Educ. 53 55 Inspector
of Educ 55

Publs *Bizim Koy Hayal ve Gercek Memleketin Sahipleri*
Kuru Suda Halkın Ayrısı Dusenler Kalkima Masal
17 Nisan Koy Gidenler Kampı Teslimi Otelin Havast
Apekgiz Koy
Sanatçiyom Caddesi Konservatuvar Evleri A Z/10
ke iden Ankara Turkey

Makarios III, Archbishop, Cypriot ecclesiastic and
statesman b 13 Aug 1913 ed Theological Coll of Athens
Univ and School of Theology Boston Univ
Ordained Deacon Greek Orthodox Church 38 studied in
Greece 38 43 mem teaching staff Kykkos Abbey 43 46
ordained Priest 46 studied in U.S.A. supported by World
Council of Churches Fellowship 46-48 Bishop of Kit on
48-50 Archbishop of Cyprus and Ebnarch 50- Cypriot
national leader identified with *Enosis* (Union with Greece)

movement has travelled abroad to promote interest and
support for *Enosis* led negotiations with Sir John Harding
Gov of Cyprus 55 56 deported to the Seychelles 56
released Mar 57 in Athens until return to Cyprus March
59 President-elect 59-60 President of Cyprus 60- many
decorations and hon doctorates
Presidential Palace Nicosia Cyprus

Makhouf Dr Ibrahim, Syrian politician.
Member of Baath Party's Supreme Command 65 Deputy
Prime Minister and Minister of Foreign Affairs Sept 65
Dec 65 March 66-68
c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs Damascus Syrian Arab
Republic

Makki Hassan, Yemeni politician
Minister of Economy April 63-64 Minister of Foreign
Affairs April Sept 66 Deputy Prime Minister for Internal
Affairs Nov Dec 67 Minister of Foreign Affairs Dec 67
69
Ministry of Foreign Affairs Sana a Yemen Arab Republic

Maktum, H H Sheikh Rashid bin Said Al, Ruler of
Dubai b 1914 ed privately
Succeeded his father Said bin Maktum, as 4th Sheikh 58
Royal Palace Dubai Trucial States

Malayeri, Mahmood, Iranian diplomatist b 1904 ed
Univ of Paris

Former staff Ministry of Roads Meli Bank and Ministry
of Interior for Technical Dir Library of Ministry of
Foreign Affairs Head of Translating Dept First Sec
Iranian Embassy London 51 52 Inspector Ministry of
Foreign Affairs 52 53 Consul Gen Baghdad 53 55
Basrah 55 57 Dir of Information and Publications
Teheran 57 59 Dir First Political Dept 59 Minister
Charg  d Affaires Baghdad 59 60 Consul Gen Hamburg
60 61 Ambassador to Syrian Arab Republic 62 63 65
mem High Political Council 63 64 Dir Gen. Ministry of
Foreign Affairs 64 65
c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs Teheran Iran

Malek, Reda, Algerian diplomatist b 1931 ed Univs
of Algiers and Paris

Director of weekly *El Moudjahid* Tunis 57 61 mem
F.L.N. Del to Evian talks 61 Amb to Yugoslavia 63 65
to France 65 70 to USSR 70
Embassy of Algeria rue Hamelin 18 Paris 16e France

Malik, Charles Habib, MA PHD Lebanese diplomatist
b 1906 ed American Univ of Beirut and Harvard and
Freiburg Univs

Instructor Maths and Physics American Univ Beirut
27 29 with *Al Hital* Publ House Cairo 29 30 with Rocke-
feller Found Exped Cairo 30-32 Asst in Philosophy
Harvard 36 37 Instructor in Philosophy American Univ
Beirut 37 39 Adjunct Prof 39-43 Assoc Prof 43 45
Head of Dept 39 45 on leave 45 55 Dean of Graduate
Studies and Prof of Philosophy 55 56 57 E K Hall
Visiting Prof Dartmouth Coll 60 Visiting Prof Harvard
Summer School 60 Minister of Lebanon to U.S.A. 45 53 to
Cuba 46-55 Ambassador to U.S.A. 53 55 Minister desig-
nate to Venezuela 47 48 Lebanese del. UN Conf and Signa-
tory UN Charter 45 mem and Chair Lebanese del. to UN
45 54 Pres 13th Gen. Assembly UN 58 59 del to Ban-
dung Conf 55 Minister for Foreign Affairs 56-57 for Nat
Education and Fine Arts 56-57 mem of Parl 57 60
Lebanese rep Security Council and Disarmament Comm
53 54 Pres Security Council 53 54 Pres Economic and
Social Council 48 Chair Human Rights Cttee 51 52
Chair Lebanese del for Peace Treaty with Japan 51 mem
many assns incl Int Law Assn American Assn for
Advancement of Science American Soc of Int Law
American Phil Assn American Political Science Assn
Hon Litt.D. and LL.D. many American Univs Hon
Rector Dubuque Univ 51 decorated by Govts of

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Lebanon, Italy, Jordan, Iraq, Syria, Cuba, Iran, Brazil, Dominican Republic, Austria, Greece and Republic of China (Taiwan).

Publs. *War and Peace* 50, *Problem of Asia* 51, *Man in the Struggle for Peace* 63, etc.; many articles in journals.

American University, Beirut, Lebanon.

Malikyar, Abdullah; Afghan diplomatist; b. 1909; ed. Isteklal Coll., Kabul, and Franco-Persian Coll., Teheran. Secretary and Gen. Dir. Prime Minister's Office 31-35; Head, Govt. Purchasing Office, Europe 36-40; Vice-Pres. Central Bank and Deputy Minister of Commerce 41-42; Gov. of Herat 42-47, 51-52; Minister of Communications 48-50; Pres. Hillmand Valley Authority Projects 53-62; Minister of Commerce 55-57, of Finance 57-June 64. Deputy Prime Minister 63-Feb. 64; Acting Prime Minister Feb.-June 64; Amb. to U.K. 64-67, to U.S.A. 67-; Sardar Ali Reshteen Decoration.

Royal Afghan Embassy, 2001 24th Street, N.W. Washington, D.C., U.S.A.

Mallakh, Kamal El, M.A.; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) archaeologist and artist; b. 1918; ed. Cairo Univ. and Military Engineering Coll.

Entered Govt. Antiquities Dept. 44, Dir. of Giza area and Lower Egypt 45; illustrator and art critic; Art Critic, *Al Ahram* 45, *Akhbar el Yom* 50-; Art and Archaeology Commentator, U.A.R. (fmr. Egyptian) Broadcasting Service 50-; Gold Cedar Decoration (Lebanon); held one-man exhibitions 39, 49; 2 paintings in Cairo Museum of Modern Art. Publs. Five books on art, archaeology and the discovery of solar boats.

173 Twenty-Sixth of July Street, Zamalek, Cairo, U.A.R.

Mallowan, Sir Max Edgar Lucien, Kt., C.B.E., M.A., D.LIT., F.B.A., F.S.A.; British archaeologist; b. 6 May 1904; ed. Lancing and New Coll. Oxford.

Expeditions Ur of the Chaldees 25-30, Nineveh 31-32, Arpachiyah 33, Chagar Bazar and Brak 34-38, Balikh Valley 38, Nimrud 49-57; Wing Commr. R.A.F.V.R.; Adviser Arab Affairs, Tripolitania; Pres. British School of Archaeology, Iraq, and Editor of the journal *Iraq* 47-71; Pres. British Inst. of Persian Studies 62-; Prof. Western Asiatic Archaeology, Univ. of London 47-62, Prof. Emeritus 62-; Fellow of All Souls Coll., Oxford 62-; corresp. mem. Arab Acad., Baghdad 54; Schweich Lecturer, British Acad. 55; Lucy Wharton Drexel Medal for Archaeological Research 57; Lawrence of Arabia Memorial Medal, Royal Central Asian Soc. 69; fmr. Editor of Near-Eastern and Western Asiatic Series of Penguin Books; foreign mem. Acad. des Inscriptions et Belles-Lettres 64. Publs. *Prehistoric Assyria, Excavations at Chagar Bazar, Excavations in the Balikh Valley, Excavations at Brak, Excavations at Nimrud, Twenty-Five Years of Mesopotamian Discovery, Early Mesopotamia and Iran, Nimrud and Its Remains, Ivories in Assyrian Style*.

Winterbrook House, Wallingford, Berkshire, England.

Mammeri, Mouloud; Algerian writer; b. 28 Dec. 1917; ed. Rabat, Algiers and Paris.

Director Inst. of Ethnology, Univ. of Algiers; mem. Algerian Writers' Union.

Publs. Novels: in French *La colline oubliée* 52, *Le Sommeil du juste* 55, *L'opium et le bâton* 65; Play: *Le Foch* 67; *Les isefra de Si Mohand* (collection of oral poems in Berber). Institut d'Ethnologie, Faculté des Lettres, Université d'Alger, Algiers, Algeria.

Mamoun, Sheikh Hassan; United Arab Republic lawyer and university official; b. 13 June 1894; ed. religious schools and Al Azhar Univ.

Official of Sharei Judiciary 36-41; Grand Judge of Sudan 41-47; Pres. Cairo Primary Sharei Court 47-55; Vice-Pres., then Pres. Higher Sharei Court 52-55; Grand Mufti of Egypt 55-61; mem. Nat. Assembly 61-64; Chancellor of

Al Azhar University, Cairo 64-; Grand Imam and Sheikh of Islam 64-; mem. Arab Socialist Union.

Office of the Chancellor, University of Al Azhar, Cairo, United Arab Republic.

Mansour, Ali Ali, LL.B., LL.M.; United Arab Republic judge; b. 25 Nov. 1902; ed. Cairo Univ.

Member of Parl. for Cairo 44-45; Dir. of Litigation Dept., Ministry of Awqaf, Cairo 46-48; Counsellor of the Egyptian Council of State 49-55; Pres. Court of Appeal, Tanta 55-60, Cairo 60-64; mem. Supreme Council for Islamic Affairs 60-69, Chair. Cttee. of Scientific Experts and Cttee. of Islamic Heritage 60-69; Chief Justice, Supreme Court of Libya 69-; Bikawiyya Order, First Class 46.

Publs. *Islamic Law and International Law: A comparative analysis* 62, *Constitutional and Administrative Systems in Islamic Law and Positive Laws: A comparative analysis* 64, *Introduction to Legal Sciences and Islamic Jurisprudence* 67, *Religions and Personal Status Laws* 68, *Comparison Between Islamic Law and Positive Laws* 70; several legal treatises and dissertations in magazines and periodicals. Supreme Court, Tripoli, Libya; Home: 15 Share' An-Nabatat, Garden City, Cairo, United Arab Republic.

Mansour, Gamal; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) diplomatist.

Ambassador to France 63, to German Federal Republic 64-65; Head of W. European Div., Ministry of Foreign Affairs 65-.

Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Cairo, U.A.R.

Manyera, Dr. Niyazi; Cypriot physician and politician; b. 1912; ed. Turkish Lycée, Nicosia, and Turkey.

Medical practice, Famagusta 39-; fmr. Municipal Councillor, Famagusta; mem. Turkish Secondary Schools' Cttee. 50-52; Chair. Famagusta District, Turkish Secondary Schools' Cttee. 53-59; Minister of Health 60-63; withdrew from active participation in the govt. Dec. 63. c/o Ministry of Health, Nicosia, Cyprus.

Marei, Sayed; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) agriculturalist and politician; b. 26 Aug. 1913; ed. Faculty of Agriculture, Cairo Univ.

Worked on his father's farm after graduation; subsequently with import-export, pharmaceutical, seed, and fertilizer companies; mem. Egyptian House of Commons 44; Del. mem. Higher Cttee. for Agrarian Reform 52-; Chair. of Board, Agricultural Co-operative Credit Bank 55; initiated "Supervised Credit System"; Minister of State for Agrarian Reform 56-57; Minister of Agriculture and Agrarian Reform 57-58; Central Minister for Agricultural and Agrarian Reform in the U.A.R. 58-61; Dep. Speaker, Nat. Assembly and Man. Dir. Bank Misr, Cairo 62-67; Minister of Agriculture and Agrarian Reform 67-.

Publs. *Agrarian Reform in Egypt* 57, *U.A.R. Agriculture Enters a New Age* 60, *Food Production in Developing Countries* 68.

Ministry of Agriculture, Cairo; and 9 Sh. Shagaret El Dorr, Zamalek, Cairo, U.A.R.

Martin, Jean-Pierre, Ph.D.; French United Nations official; b. 2 Jan. 1926; ed. Univs. of Montpellier and Paris. Economist, UN Dept. of Econ. and Social Affairs 49-60; Special Asst. to the Special Rep. of Sec.-Gen. of UN in Congo 60-61; Chief, Financial Policies and Institutions Section. UN Dept. of Econ. and Social Affairs 61-62; Chef de Cabinet of Under-Sec.-Gen. of UN for Econ. and Social Affairs 62-66; Dir. UN Econ. and Social Office, Beirut 66-.

Publs. *Les Finances de Guerre du Canada* 51, *Les Finances publiques britanniques 1939-1955* 56; articles on financial and econ. subjects.

United Nations, B.P. 4656, Beirut, Lebanon.

Martola, Maj.-Gen. Armas Eino Ilmari; Finnish army officer and United Nations official; b. 12 May 1896.

Attended Nat. War Coll., Paris 19-21; Officer in Finnish

WHO S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Army mem Defence Revision Cttee 23 24 mem Disarmament Comm Geneva 26-34 Finnish Mil Attaché Paris 28 31 Div Commr Karelian Isthmus 39 40 Corps Commr 41 44 Deputy Minister for Foreign Affairs 44 later Gov. of Uusimaa Province until 46 later Man Dir Paper Office Finnish Paper Mills Assn Personal Adviser to UN Sec Gen on Mil Matters Relating to UN Emergency Force 56-57 Commr UN Forces in Cyprus (UNFICYP) 66-68 Finnish Red Cross Headquarters, UN Forces in Cyprus Nicosia, Cyprus Home Merkatu 5 Helsinki 14 Finland

Mashayekh Faridani, Mohammed Hossein, M A PH D Iranian diplomatist and educationist b 1914 ed Pahlavi Coll. Darolfonoon Coll and Teheran Univ Lecturer in Literature and Philosophy Teheran 40 44 Technical Inspector Teheran Secondary Schools 44 46 Dir of Cultural Dept. Ministry of Education 46 Editor Education and Instruction Magazine 46 Cultural Counselor Karachi 48 51 New Delhi 52 55 Cultural Adviser Ministry of Foreign Affairs 55 56 Dir of Cultural Relations Ministry of Foreign Affairs 57 *Dir of Public Relations and Editor of Magazine* 57 *Dir Asian Countries Dept* 58 Minister-Counselor Baghdad 59-63 Ambassador to Iraq 63-64 Political Dir Gen Ministry of Foreign Affairs 64 Amb to Saudi Arabia 64 68 to Pakistan 69 several decorations from Iran Pakistan Holland and Jordan Imperial Embassy of Iran Rawalpindi Pakistan

Mashour, Ahmed Mashour, United Arab Republic (Egyptian) engineer b April 1918 ed. Cairo Univ Staff Officers Coll U.K. and Fort Belvoir U.S.A. With Ministry of Transport 41 Army Engineer 42 Lecturer at Egyptian Acad of War 48 52 Staff Officer Egyptian Corps of Engineers Dir of Transit Suez Canal Authority 56 mem. Board of Dir. Timsah Shipbuilding Co Ismailia Chair and Man Dir Suez Canal Authority 65 various decorations Suez Canal Authority Ismailia United Arab Republic

Masmoudi, Mohamed, Tunisian politician b 29 May 1923 ed. Tunis and Univ of Paris Member of Tunisian Nationalist Movement 34 Minister of State in Govt. negotiating Tunisian Independence 53 55 Minister of the Economy 55 56 Amb to France 56-58 65 68 Minister of Information 58 61 Sec Gen Destour Socialist Party 69- Minister of Foreign Affairs 70- assoc with Action later re-named *Afrique Action* Ministry of Foreign Affairs Tunis and La Manouba Tunis Tunisia.

Massé, Henri, D. ès L. French orientalist b 1886 Prof. Faculty of Letters Univ of Algiers 19 27 Prof. Ecole nationale des langues orientales Paris 27 58 mem Institut de France. *Publ. Essai sur le poète Saadi* 19 *Le Bihâristan de Djâmî* (translation from the Persian) 25 *Les épopées persanes* Firdousi 35 *Croyances et Coutumes persanes* (2 vols) 38 *Anthologie persane* 50 *L'Islam* (9th edn) 66 editions and translations of Arab and Persian authors 19 avenue Roosevelt 92 Sceaux France

Massoud Ansari, Abdolhossein, Iranian diplomatist b 1900 ed Teheran Coll Imperial School of Law Petrograd (now Leningrad) and Moscow Univ Former Dir various depts in Foreign Office Consul Gen India 37 40 Minister to Scandinavian countries 40-44 Gov Gen Gilan 45 47 Isfahan 47 49 Ambassador to Afghanistan 49-51 Minister to Holland 52 54 Ambassador to Pakistan 55 to USSR 56-61 to India 61 63 decorations Homayoun 1st Class (Iran) Vasa and Class North Star Grand Cross (Sweden) Sardare Aala (Afghanistan) Grand Cross Orange Nassau (Holland) c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs Teheran Iran

Massoudi, Abbas, Iranian publisher b 1901 Founded daily *Ettela* at 25 Proprietor and Pres of *Ettela* at and its other publications Vice Pres Iranian Senate numerous articles *Ettela* at Kh Kayyam Teheran Iran

Mavrommatis, Andreas, Cypriot lawyer and politician b 1932 Larnaca ed Greek Gymnasium Limassol and Lincoln's Inn London Called to Bar 54 practised law Cyprus 54 58 Magistrate Paphos 58 60 District Judge 60 District Judge Nicosia 64 70 Minister of Labour and Social Insurance 70- Ministry of Labour and Social Insurance Nicosia Cyprus

Maximos V Hakim, His Grace Archbishop George, D D Lebanese Archbishop b 18 May 1908 ed St Louis School Tanta Holy Family Jesuit School Cairo and St Anne Seminary Jerusalem Teacher Patriarchal School Beirut 30 31 Rector and Principal Patriarchal School Cairo 31 43 Archbishop of Acre Haifa Nazareth and all Galilee 43 elected Patriarch of Antioch and all the East Alexandria and Jerusalem Nov 67 founded *Le Lien* (French) Cairo 33 *Ar Rabbia* (Arab) Haifa 43 Commr Légion d'Honneur Dr h.c. (Laval Univ Canada) and many U.S. univs *Publ. Pages d'Évangile lues en Galilée* 54 Greek Catholic Patriarchate P.O. Box 50076 Beirut Lebanon

Mazar, Benjamin, D PH D Russian born Israeli archaeologist b 28 June 1906 ed Berlin and Glessen Univs Settled in Palestine 29 joined staff of Hebrew Univ Jerusalem 43 Prof of Biblical History and Historical Geography of Palestine 51 Rector 52-61 Pres 53-61 Pro Rector 61 Chair Israel Exploration Soc Dir excavations Ramat Rahel 31 Beth Shearim 36-40 Beth Yerah 42 43 Tell Qasile 48 50 59 Lin Ged 60 62 64 65 Old City of Jerusalem 68 mem Israel Acad of Sciences and Humanities Hon. mem British Soc for Old Testament Study American Soc of Biblical Literature and Exegesis Hon. D.H.L. Hebrew Union Coll (Jewish Inst of Religion U.S.A.) Jewish Theological Seminary of America *Publ. Untersuchungen zur alten Geschichte Syriens und Palästinas* 30 *History of Archaeological Research in Palestine* 36 *History of Palestine from the early days to the Israelite Kingdom* 38 *Beth Shearim Excavations 1936* 40 40 (2nd edn 58) *Historical Atlas of Palestine Israel in Biblical Times* 41 *Excavations at Tell Qasile* 51 Chair Editorial Board *Encyclopaedia Biblica* 50 *Ein Ged* 64 *The World History of the Jewish People Vol II* 67 Hebrew University of Jerusalem Jerusalem and 9 Abar banel Street Jerusalem Israel

Mazidi, Faisal, B.Econ Kuwaiti economist b 1933 ed Kuwait and University Coll of North Staffordshire Keele England Appointed to Dept of Finance and Economy 59 Dir State Chlorine and Salt Board Dir Kuwait Oil Co Ltd 60 Econ Asst to Minister of Finance and Economy 60 Chair Econ and Industrial Cttee 61 Dir Kuwait Fund for Econ Development of Arab Countries 62 mem Kuwait Univ Higher Council 62 64 Chair and Man Dir Kuwait Chemical Fertilizer Co 64 Chair Govt Oil Concession Cttee 63 Govt Refinery Cttee 64 Kuwait Maritime Mercantile Co 65 Dir Petrochemical Industries Co 63 Kuwait Chemical Fertilizer Co P.O.B. 3964 Kuwait

Mboro, Clement, Sudanese politician b c 1920 Joined Govt Service 40 rose to Deputy Gov Darfur Province 64 Minister of Interior 64 65 Minister of Industry and Mining 68 69 mem and fin Pres Southern Front 64 c/o Ministry of Industry and Mining Khartoum Sudan

Medani, Tewfik; Algerian politician.

Minister of Awqaf 62-64; Rep. to Arab League Dec. 64-. Algerian Delegation to the Arab League, Midan Al Tahrir, Cairo, United Arab Republic.

Medeghri, Ahmed; Algerian politician; b. 1935.

Former mem. A.L.N. in Tunisia; Prefect, Tlemcen 62; Minister of Interior 62-64, 65-; mem. F.L.N. Political Bureau 64-; mem. Revolutionary Council June 65-. Ministry of the Interior, Algiers, Algeria.

Meguid, Esmat Abdel; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) diplomatist; b. 1923; ed. Sorbonne, Paris.

Attaché at London embassy 50-54; Dir. of British Affairs Section at Foreign Ministry 54-57; mem. U.A.R. del. to UN 57-63; Minister-Counsellor at Paris embassy 63-67; Dir. of Cultural Affairs at Foreign Ministry 67-69; Govt. Spokesman 69-70; Amb. to France June 70-Nov. 70; Minister of State Nov. 70-. Council of Ministers, Cairo, U.A.R.

Meir, Golda; Israeli politician; b. Kiev 3 May 1898; ed. Teachers' Seminary, Milwaukee, U.S.A.

Teacher and leading mem. Zionist Labour Party, Milwaukee; del. U.S. Section, World Jewish Congress until 21; emigrated to Palestine 21; joined Merhavia collective farm village; with Solel Boneh, Histadrut Contracting and Public Works Enterprise 24-26; Sec. Women's Labour Council of Histadrut 28; mem. Exec. and Secretariat, Fed. of Labour 29-34; Chair. Board of Dirs., Workers' Sick Fund 36; Head, Political Dept., Fed. of Labour; Mapai Del., Action Cttee., World Zionist Organisation; mem. War Economic Advisory Council of Palestine Govt. 39; Head, Political Dept., Jewish Agency for Palestine, Jerusalem 46-48; Israel Minister to U.S.S.R. Aug. 48-April 49; Minister of Labour and Social Insurance 49-52, of Labour 52-56; Minister for Foreign Affairs June 56-66; Sec.-Gen. Mapai Feb. 66-68; Prime Minister 69-. Office of the Prime Minister, Jerusalem, Israel.

Melikishvili, Georgy Alexandrovich; Soviet (Georgian) historian; b. 30 Dec. 1918; ed. Tbilisi Univ.

Works deal with the ancient history of the Near East and Transcaucasia; Prof. Tbilisi Univ.; Dir. Dept. of Ancient History, Historical Inst. of Georgian Acad. of Sciences; mem. Acad. of Sciences of Georgian S.S.R. 60-; Lenin Prize 57. Pubs. *Nairi-Urartu* 54, *Urartian Inscriptions in Cuneiform Characters* 60, *History of Ancient Georgia* 59. Academy of Sciences, Tbilisi, Georgian S.S.R., U.S.S.R.

Mellink, Machteld Johanna, PH.D.; Netherlands archaeologist; b. 26 Oct. 1917; ed. Amsterdam and Utrecht Univs.

Field Asst. Tarsus excavations 47-49; Asst. Prof. of Classical Archaeology Bryn Mawr Coll. 49-53, Assoc. Prof., Chair. Dept. of Classical and Near Eastern Archaeology 53-62, Prof. 62-; staff mem. Gordion excavations organised by Pennsylvania Univ. Museum 50-, during which the putative tomb of King Midas was discovered 57; field dir. excavations at Karatas-Semayik in Lycia 63-, excavations of painted tombs in Elmali district 70-. Pubs. *Hyakinthos* 43, *A Hittite Cemetery at Gordion* 56; *Archaeology in Asia Minor* (reports in *American Journal of Archaeology*) 55-, editor *Dark Ages and Nomads c. 1000 B.C.* Department of Classical and Near Eastern Archaeology, Bryn Mawr College, Bryn Mawr, Pa. 19010, U.S.A.

Memmi, Albert; Tunisian writer; b. 15 Dec. 1920; ed. Lycée Carnot, Tunis, Univ. of Algiers and Univ. de Paris à la Sorbonne.

Teacher of Philosophy in Tunis 55; Dir. Psychological Centre, Tunis 56; Researcher, Centre national de la recherche scientifique, Paris 59-; Asst. Prof. Ecole pratique des hautes études 59-66, Prof. 66-70; Prof. Univ. of Paris 70-; Commr. Ordre de Nichan Iftikhar. Pubs. include: *The Pillar of Salt* 53, *Strangers* 55,

Anthologie des écrivains nord-africains 55, *Colonizer, Colonized* 57, *Portrait of a Jew* 62, *Le français et le racisme* 65, *The Liberation of the Jew* 66, *The Dominated Man* 68, *Le Scorpion* 69.

5 rue Saint Merri, Paris 4e, France.

Menemencioğlu, Turgut; Turkish diplomatist; b. 1914; ed. Robert Coll., Istanbul, and Geneva Univ.

Turkish Ministry of Foreign Affairs 39-; Perm. Del., European Office UN, Geneva 50-52; Counsellor, Turkish Embassy, Washington 52; Dir. Gen. Econ. Affairs, Ministry of Foreign Affairs 52-54; Dep. Perm. Rep. to UN 54-60; Ambassador to Canada 60; Perm. Rep. to UN 60-62; Amb. to U.S.A. 62-66; High Political Adviser Ministry of Foreign Affairs 67; Sec.-Gen. Central Treaty Org. 68-. c/o CENTO, Eski Büyük Millet Meclisi Binası, Ankara, Turkey.

Méouchi, Badri Selim, L. en D.; Lebanese judge; b. 1 Dec. 1902, Beirut; ed. Univ. of St. Joseph, Beirut.

Magistrate 27; Pres. of Court of First Instance 29-39; Judge, Court of Appeal, Beirut 39-46; Pres. Court of First Instance, Beirut 46; Pres. Court of Appeal, Beirut 46-50; First Pres. Court of Cassation 50-66; Pres. Conseil Supérieur de la Magistrature; Minister of the Interior and of Nat. Defence 66-68; Advocat à la Cour 68; Grand Officier, Ordre National de Cèdre; Grand Officier de Jordani, de Haïti. Court of Cassation, Palais de Justice, Beirut, Lebanon.

Meouchi, H.E. Cardinal Paul Pierre; Lebanese ecclesiastic; b. 1894.

Ordained priest 17; fmr. pastor in New Bedford, Mass. and Los Angeles; Bishop of Tyre 34-55; Patriarch of the Maronites 55-; Asst. at the Papal Throne; created Cardinal 65. Winter: Patriarcat Maronite, Bkerké, Lebanon; Summer: Patriarcat Maronite, El-Diman, Lebanon.

Merlin, Samuel; Israeli author and director of political studies; b. 17 Jan. 1910; ed. Lycée, Kishineff, Univ. of Paris.

Secretary-General World Exec., Zionist Revisionist and New Zionist Org. 34-38; Editor-in-Chief Yiddish daily *Di Tat*, Warsaw, Poland 38-39; Sec.-Gen. Hebrew Cttee. for Nat. Liberation 40-48; mem. First Knesset 48-51; Pres. Israel Press Ltd. 50-57; Dir. of Political Studies, Inst. for Mediterranean Affairs, N.Y. 57-; Hon. mem. of Abu Gosh village near Jerusalem.

Pubs. *The Palestine Refugee Problem* 58, *United States Policy in the Middle East* 60, *The Ascent of Man* (Co-Author) 63, *The Cyprus Dilemma* (Editor) 67, *The Big Powers and the Present Crisis in the Middle East* 68, *The Search for Peace in the Middle East* 69, *Guerre et Paix au Moyen Orient* 70.

Institute for Mediterranean Affairs, 1078 Madison Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10028, U.S.A.

Mesnil du Buisson, Robert du, Count, D. ès L., D. en D.; French archaeologist; b. 19 April 1895.

Dir. French Archaeological Missions in Syria, Egypt and France; Lecturer Ecole des Hautes Etudes 38-; Head Archaeological Mission, Centre Nat. de la Recherche Scientifique, Palmyra 65-; Pres. Société Nat. des Antiquaires de France 46-47; Pres. Société Historique et Archéologique de l'Orne 47-55, Hon. Pres. 56-; Pres. Soc. du Manoir d'Argenteilles 57-; Dir. Centre Culturel et touristique de l'Orne 67-; Vice-Pres. Fédération des Sociétés normandes 47-55, Soc. d'Ethnographie de Paris 60-69, Pres. 69-; Commr. of Legion of Honour 46; Lauréat Acad. des Inscriptions et Belles-Lettres 40, 63, Acad. des Beaux-Arts 58.

Pubs. *Les Ruines d'El-Mishrifé au Nord-Est de Homs* 27, *La Technique des fouilles archéologiques* 33, *Le Site Archéologique de Mishrifé-Qatna* 35, *Les noms et signes égyptiens désignant des vases* 35, *Souran et Tell Masin* 35, *Le Site de Qadesh* 36, *Inscriptions juives de Doura-Europos*

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

to Greece 66, to U.A.R. 68; Minister of Econs. and Foreign Trade May 69-; Minister of Planning Oct. 69-; Ministry of Economics and Foreign Trade, Khartoum, Sudan.

Mirghani, Mohamed; Sudanese journalist; b. 1932; ed. Univ. of Besançon and London School of Journalism. Foreign News Editor, Al Ayam Press House 49-58; Man Regional News Services and Reuters, Khartoum 58-; Sudan Corresp. for Reuters and *Daily and Sunday Telegraph*, contributor to B.B.C. programmes. Regional News Services, P.O. Box 972, Khartoum, Sudan.

Mohammed, Brig. Jassim; Iraqi army officer and politician; b. 1918; ed. Iraqi Military Coll., Iraqi Staff Coll., and British Staff Coll., Camberley. Artillery Officer 38, rose to Dir. of Military Training, Ministry of Defence 58; Dir. of Military Operations and Asst. Chief of Staff 58-59; Commandant, Iraqi Staff Coll. 59-64; Ambassador of Iraq to Jordan 64-67, to Algeria 67-69; Order of Rafidain. c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Baghdad, Iraq.

Mohammed Zahir Shah; King of Afghanistan; b. 30 Oct. 1914; ed. Habibia High School, Istiqlal Coll. (both in Kabul), Lycée Janson-de-Sailly and Univ. of Montpellier, France.

Graduated with highest honours; attended Infantry Officers' School, Kabul 32; married Lady Homira, Nov. 4th 1931; children, Princess Bilqis, Prince Ahmad Shah Khan, Princess Maryam, Prince Mohammed Nadir Khan, Prince Shah Mahmoud Khan, Prince Mohammed Daoud Jan, Prince Mirvis Jan; Asst. Min. in Ministry of Nat. Defence 32-33; acting Minister of Educ. 33; crowned King Nov. 8th, 33. Dilkusha, Royal Palace, Kabul, Afghanistan.

Mohieddin, Zakaria; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) army officer and politician; b. May 1918; ed. Mil. Coll. and Staff Officers' Coll., Cairo. Former lecturer Mil. Coll. and Staff Officers' Coll. and Dir.-Gen. Intelligence; Minister of the Interior 53-58; Minister of the Interior U.A.R. 58-62, Vice-Pres. U.A.R. and Chair. Aswan Dam Cttee. 61-62; mem. Nat. Defence Cttee. 62-, Presidency Council 62-64; mem. Exec. Cttee. Arab Socialist Union 64-; Deputy Prime Minister 64-65, June 67-68; Prime Minister and Minister of the Interior 65-66. c/o Arab Socialist Union, Cairo, U.A.R.

Moinian, Nosratollah, LL.B.; Iranian civil servant; b. 1924; ed. Isfahan and Teheran schools, Teheran School of Arts, and Univ. of Teheran. Former official, Iranian State Railways; went into journalism; Deputy Dir. Publications and Broadcasting 53-55, Acting Dir.-Gen. 55-56, Dir.-Gen. 56-58; Asst. to Prime Minister, in charge of Dept. of Publications and Broadcasting 58-63; Minister of Roads 63; Deputy Prime Minister 63-64; Minister of Information 64-65. c/o Ministry of Information, Maidan Ark, Teheran, Iran.

Mokaddem, Sadok; Tunisian diplomatist; b. 1914; ed. Lycée Carnot, Tunis, Faculty of Sciences, Montpellier and Faculty of Medicine, Paris. Physician, Tunis; mem. Néo-Destour 34-, mem. Political Bureau 52-; Sec. of State for Justice 54-55, for Public Health 55; Dep. to Constituent Ass. 56-59; Ambassador to Egypt 56-57; Sec. of State for Foreign Affairs 57-62; Ambassador to France 62-64; Pres. Nat. Assembly Nov. 64-71; Chair. Destour Socialist Party 70-; Grand Cordon of Nat. Order of Independence and the Repub.; several foreign decorations. National Assembly, Palais du Bardo, Tunis, Tunisia.

Mokady, Moshe; Israeli artist; b. 1902; ed. Vienna, Zürich and Paris. Went to Palestine 20; taught music, painting, Vienna 24-

25, Paris 27-33, France, Belgium and Sweden 46-47, U.S.A. 48; Dir. of Arts, Ministry of Education and Culture, Govt. of Israel 51-52; paintings in several museums in Europe, U.S.A., Egypt and Israel and in many private collections. 4 Liebermann Street, Tel-Aviv, Israel.

Moses, Siegfried, DR. JUR.; Israeli (b. German) lawyer and administrator; b. 3 May 1887; ed. Univ. of Berlin. Began law practice 12; organised food control, Danzig, during First World War; later Man. Dir. Deutscher Städtetag (organisation of German towns); Chair. Reichsstelle für Schuh-Versorgung (Controller of Footwear Supply); law practice 20-36; Dir. Schocken concern (chain stores) 23-29, mem. Board 30, Chair. 35; Emigrated 36; Man. Dir. Haavara (organisation for transfer of Jewish property from Germany to Palestine) 37; expert on tax problems 41-49; Public Auditor, Tel-Aviv 38-49; State Comptroller of Israel 49-61; Pres. Zionist Organisation for Germany 33-37, Council of Jews from Germany 57-, Leo Baeck Inst. of Jews from Germany 55-; mem. Board of Van Leer Jerusalem Foundation, Bank Leumi Le Israel 62-, ATA Co. 62-.

Publs. *Deutsches Kohlen-Wirtschaftsgesetz* 20, *Reform des Obligationen-Wesens* 33, *The Income Tax Ordinance of Palestine* 42 (2nd edn. 46), *Jewish Post-War Claims* 44, etc. Shlomo Molchostr. 9, Jerusalem, Israel.

Mostofi, Khosrow, M.A., PH.D.; Iranian professor; b. 8 July 1921; ed. Univs. of Teheran and Utah. Assistant Prof. Political Science, Portland State Coll. 58-60, Univ. of Utah 60-65; Acting Dir. Inst. of Int. Studies, Univ. of Utah 62-63; Assoc. Prof., Univ. of Utah. 65-; Acting Chair. Dept. of Political Science 67; Dir. Middle East Center, Univ. of Utah 67-; Fulbright-Hays Fellow, Turkey and Iran 65-66; Research Fellow, Univ. of Utah 66-68; Board mem. American Inst. of Iranian Studies 68-; Co-Dir. American Center for Iranian Studies in Teheran 70-; mem. N.D.F.L. Panel of Consultants, U.S.O.E. 68-, American Asscn. of Univ. Profs., American Acad. of Political Sciences, Western Political Science Asscn.

Publs. *Suez Dispute: A Case Study of a Treaty* 57, *Aspects of Nationalism: The Sociology of Colonial Revolt* 64, *Parsee Nameh* 69, a Persian reader in 8 vols. 63, 4th edn. 69. Room 112, Middle East Center, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, Utah 84112; Home: 2481 East 13th South Street, Salt Lake City, Utah 84108, U.S.A.

Moulay Ali, H.R.H. Prince; Moroccan diplomatist. Ambassador to France 65-, recalled Jan. 66. c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Rabat, Morocco.

Moulay Hassan Ben El Mehdi, H.R.H. Prince, (Uncle of King Hassan II); Moroccan diplomatist; b. 1911. Caliph Northern Zone of Morocco 25; Amb. to Great Britain 57-64, to Italy 64-67; Minister of Saharan and Mauritanian Affairs 67-; decorations include, Ouissam Alaoui, Charles I Medal, Great Military Ouissam, Great Medal of Portugal, Great Dominican Medal, Great Naval Medal, Great Mahdoui Medal, Great Houssni Medal. Ministry of Saharan and Mauritanian Affairs, Rabat, Morocco.

Mourad, Rashad; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) diplomatist and government official; b. 1912; ed. Saidia Secondary School and Univ. of Cairo. Attaché, Egyptian Embassy, London 34-39; Vice-Consul of Egypt, San Francisco 39-47; Second Sec. Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Cairo 48; Consul, Beirut 49; Chief, Int. Orgs. Section and Code Section, Ministry of Foreign Affairs 50; Chargé d'Affaires, Santiago, Chile 51-53; Consul-Gen. New York 53-54, Counsellor, Washington, D.C.; Dir.-Gen. of Tourism Egyptian Govt. 55-64; decorations from U.K., Lebanon, Chile and Italy. Cairo, U.A.R.

WHOS WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Moussalli Paul Michel Négib, b 1900 ed Lebanese lawyer and United Nations official b 9 April 1932 ed Lyce français de garçons Beirut Faculty of Law Beirut Univ of Lyons France Max Planck Inst für Ausländisches Öffentliches Recht und Völkerrecht Heidelberg Germany and Graduate Inst of Int Studies Geneva Switzerland Legal Adviser Office of UN High Commr for Refugees (UNHCR) Geneva 61-62 UNHCR Rep for Tunisia 62 UNHCR Rep at Tripolite Repatriation Comm (Algerian refugees) 62 UNHCR Rep for Algeria 62-63 UNHCR Legal Adviser Geneva (questions relating to refugees in Africa and Asia) 63-66 UNHCR Regional Rep for Africa Addis Ababa Ethiopia 66- UNHCR Regional Liaison Office for Africa Chamber of Commerce Building P O Box 1076 Addis Ababa Ethiopia.

Mushaf, Muhafel Mohamed Al-, Kuwaiti diplomatist ed in schools in Kuwait Egypt and UK Member staff Ministry of Education 53 61 Chargé d'Affaires Lebanon 62-64 Syria 64-65 Amb to Pakistan 65-67 Perm Rep to UN 67 Permanent Mission of Kuwait to the United Nations 235 East 42nd Street New York N.Y. 10017 USA

Müzzinoğlu, Ziya, Turkish civil servant and diplomatist b 1919 ed Ankara Univ and Germany and Switzerland Inspector of Finance Turkish Ministry of Finance 42 53 Adviser to Treasury Ministry of Finance 53 59 Dir Gen of Treasury 59-60 Dir Gen of Treasury and Sec Gen Org for Int Econ Co-operation in Turkey 60 mem Constituent Assembly 60 Chair Interministerial Cttee for Foreign Econ Relations 62 Sec of State of State Planning Org 62-64 Ambassador to German Federal Republic 64-67 Perm Del to EEC and Chief Mission to C.E.C.A. and C.E.E.A. Délégation Permanente de Turquie auprès de la C.E.C.E. 49 avenue Louise Brussels 5 Belgium

Mutli Ebrahim El, Sudanese politician Minister of Finance and Econ. May July 65 Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Foreign Affairs 66-67 Minister of Irrigation and Hydro-Electric Power 68 71 c/o Ministry of Irrigation Khartoum Sudan

Mutli, Said El-, Jordanian politician b 1898 ed Turkish School Damascus Governor of Amman 25 39 Mayor of Amman 27 38 mem First Legislative Council 29 31 Head of Treasury 39 Minister of Communications 44 Minister of Interior 44 45 Minister of Finance and Communications 45 Deputy 47 51 and 54 Minister of Commerce and Agriculture 47 Prime Minister and Minister of Foreign Affairs 55 Prime Minister 56 Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Interior and Agriculture 57 Pres of Senate 58 Deputy Prime Minister 63 Pres of Senate 63 mem Consultative Council 67 Jordan Medal of Independence First Class Jordan Star First Class and many others. House of Parliament P O B 72 Amman Jordan

Mutli Shawkat El-, m.d. Jordanian doctor and diplomatist b 1905 ed Secondary School Damascus French Lazarists School Damascus and Friedrich Wilhelm Univ of Berlin Med Cal Officer Amman 32 Under Sec of State Ministry of Health 53 Ambassador of Jordan to Turkey 62-66 Publ. Trans. Into Arabic of *History of Circassians* by Adolph Berge 53 *Heroes and Emperors in Caucasian History* 62 c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs Amman Jordan

Muntasser, Dr Omar Mahmud, Libyan politician and diplomatist b 28 July 1930 ed. Univ of Florence and Oxford. Minister Libyan Embassy Washington 60-61 London

61 62 Minister of Justice Libya 62-63 63-64 of Foreign Affairs 63 Ambassador to U.K. concurrently to the Netherlands 64 69 and Malta 66-69 c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs Tripoli Libya

Muntasser Suddiq Al, Libyan diplomatist b 17 Dec 1913 ed High School in Libya and Oriental Univ Naples Italy Posts held include District Officer of S Desert Area District Commr of Misurata District Provincial Commr of E Provinces Under Sec of Communications of Govt of Tripolitania Governor Gen Rep of King Idns I Tripolitania Amb to USA Chief of Libyan Del to UN Amb to U.A.R. and to Saudi Arabia Chief of Libyan Del to Arab League Minister of Defence business positions held include Chair Commercial Bank S.A.L. Tripoli Libya Texas and Oil & Refining Co Ltd Gordon Woodroffe Co Libya Ltd Latco (Libyan Agency and Trading Co) Lavco (Libyan Aviation Co) Rep of Richard Costant Civil Engineering Ltd Costant and Press Tripe and Wakeham Amb to German Fed. Repub 67 to Switzer land 68 decorations from Libya and U.A.R. Strachensweg 30 Bonn, German Federal Republic

N

Nabi, Belkacem, Algerian oil executive Director of Energy and Oils Ministry of Industry and Energy Algeria until 66 Président Directeur Général Soc Nat de Recherche et d'Exploitation des Pétroles en Algérie (S.N. REPAL) 66- Adviser to Minister of Finance 66 70 Wali de Tlemcen 70 S.N. REPAL Algiers Algeria

Nabulsi, Suleiman, Jordanian diplomatist and politician, b 1910 ed American Univ Beirut Bank official and Man till 46 Minister of Finance and Economics 46 47 and 50-51 Ambassador to London 53 54 (resigned) leader Nat Socialist Party Prime Minister and Foreign Minister Oct 56-April 57 mem Consultative Council 67 Orders of Nahda and of Istiglal, Jordan Star c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs Amman Jordan

Naccache, George, Lebanese newspaper executive politician and diplomatist b 20 Nov 1904 ed Jesuit Coll Alexandria and Univ Saint Joseph Beirut Owner and Editor of dailies *L'Orient* and *Al Jaryda* Pres Beirut Exec Council of Major Projects 63 64 Minister of Public Works and Minister of Information and Tourism 60 64 Minister of Public Works 65 Pres Libano-Arab Centre of Public Relations 65 Ambassador to France 66 67 P O B 688 Beirut Lebanon

Naficy, Said, Iranian writer b 1896 ed France and Persia Professor Faculty of Arts Teheran Univ 36 mem Iranian Acad Visiting Prof Univs in America Lebanon Germany India etc Hon Prof Univ of Kabul Publ 220 including *History of Persian Literature Social History of Iran* Rue Naficy Avenue Hedayat Teheran and University of Teheran Iran

Naggar, Abd El Monem El, United Arab Republic (Egyptian) army officer and diplomatist b 1920 ed Cairo Military Academy Cairo Staff Academy Cairo Univ and Inst de Hautes Etudes Univ of Paris Egyptian Army 39 57 Military Attaché Paris 53 54 Madrid 55 57 Head of East European Dept. Ministry of Foreign Affairs Cairo 58 U.A.R. Consul General Bombay

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

59-62, Hong Kong 62-63; Ambassador to Greece 63-64, to France 64-69; numerous decorations.
Embassy of the United Arab Republic, 2 Place des Etats-Unis, Paris 16e, France.

Nahas, Gébran; Lebanese politician; b. 1884.
Member of Parl. 27, and 47; Deputy Prime Minister Aug. 49-Feb. 51; Minister of Justice Aug.-Sept. 49; Minister of Economy and of Posts, Telegraphs and Telephones Oct. 49-March 50; Minister of Justice March 50-Feb. 51; Minister of Finance, Labour and Social Affairs May-July 60; Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Justice Feb.-Aug. 64; Minister of Education Aug.-Nov. 64; several Lebanese and other decorations.
Chamber of Deputies, Beirut, Lebanon.

Naim, H.R.H. Mohammad; Afghan diplomatist and politician; b. 1911; ed. Istiqlal Coll. Kabul.
Entered Political Section, Ministry of Foreign Affairs 30, Dir. 33; Minister to Italy 34; Under-Sec. Ministry of Foreign Affairs 36; Minister of Public Instruction 39; Minister to Great Britain 46; Amb. to U.S.A. 48; Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Foreign Affairs 53-63.
c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Kabul, Afghanistan.

Najar, Amiel Emile, LIC. en DR.; Israeli diplomatist; b. 6 Sept. 1912; ed. Univ. of Paris.
President of Exec., Zionist Fed. of Egypt 43-47; Dir. Western European Div., Ministry of Foreign Affairs 52-57, Asst. Dir.-Gen. Ministry of Foreign Affairs 57-58; Minister to Japan 58-60; Ambassador to Belgium and Luxembourg, Chief of Mission to the European Communities 61-68; mem. Israeli Del. to UN 48, 51-53, 55-57, 61, 64, 67; Observer, Suez Conf., London 56; Amb. to Italy and Malta Nov. 68.
Embassy of Israel, Via M. Mercati 12, Rome, Italy.

Najjar, Joseph; Lebanese engineer and politician; b. 1908; ed. Univ. St. Joseph, Beirut, Ecole Nat. des Ponts et Chaussées, Paris.
Consultant to Ministry of Interior 33-38; Dir. Hydraulic Service 38-40; Sec. of State to Ministry of Finance 40-41; mem. Planning Council 52-64; mem. Admin. Council, Office of Electricity 59-64; Prof. of Higher Engineering School, Beirut 41-; Pres. Nat. Scientific Research Council 63-; Minister of Planning, Agriculture, Posts and Telegraphs July 65-66; Perm. Rep. to UNESCO 66-67; Minister of Posts and Telegraphs 67-68; Ordre du Mérite Libanais, 1er classe; Officier Légion d'Honneur, etc.
c/o Ministry of Posts and Telegraphs, Beirut, Lebanon.

Nakhai, Hossein Ghods, G.C.V.O.; Iranian diplomatist; ed. Coll. of Political Sciences, Teheran.
Counsellor, Iranian Embassy, Washington 34, London 42; Dir.-Gen. Ministry of Foreign Affairs 50; Deputy Minister and Acting Minister of Foreign Affairs 50; Iranian Ambassador to Iraq 51 and 53, to Japan 56-58, to Great Britain 58-61; Minister of Foreign Affairs 61-62; Amb. to U.S.A. 62-63; Minister of the Imperial Court 63-67; Amb. to Vatican 67-; Homayoun Order (1st Class).
Publs. *Rubaiyat* (in Persian and English), *God and Man, The Development of Personality, The Shahsavan's Daughter, Paradise, Lady of the Isles* (in English).
Imperial Iranian Embassy to the Holy See, Via Archimede 156, Rome, Italy.

Nakshabandi, Dr. Abdullah Mustafa; Iraqi (Kurdish) lawyer, economist and politician; b. 1924; ed. Cairo Univ.
Early career in the civil service, fmr. mem. Civil Service Board; Minister of Finance 66; Minister of Econs. 67.
c/o Ministry of Economics, Baghdad, Iraq.

Nakshabandi, Mosleh Al; Iraqi politician.
Minister of State 63-64; Minister of Religious Affairs 64-65, also Acting Minister of Justice July to Sept. 65; Minister of Justice 66, 67, 68.
Ministry of Justice, Baghdad, Iraq.

Namir, Mordechai; Israeli politician; b. 23 Feb. 1897; d. Univ. (Law and Economics), and Musical Conservatoire.
Unskilled labourer for a short period 24; on staff *Davar* Hebrew Labour daily, Tel-Aviv 25-26; Sec. Tel-Aviv branch of Jewish Labour Party "Ahdut Haavoda" 26-29; Dir. statistical dept. of Jewish Labour Fed. in Palestine ("Histadrut") 29-36; Gen. Sec. Labour Council, Tel-Aviv 36-43; mem. Council of World Zionist Organisation 46-48; mem. "Histadrut" Secretariat 44-48; mem. Tel-Aviv staff of "Hagana"—Jewish unofficial Defence Force 31-47; "Hagana" H.Q. 48; Del. World Zionist Congress, Zurich 37, Basle 46, of "Histadrut" to World Fed. of Trade Unions Congress in Prague 47; detained by the British Mandatory Authorities in Palestine on a charge of activities against the White Paper and its Land Transfer Restrictions 40; on declaration of the State of Israel sent as Special Envoy of the Israel Foreign Office to Romania, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia 48; Counsellor of the first Israeli Legation in Moscow 48-49; Minister in Moscow 49-50; Gen. Sec. Histadrut 51-56; mem. Knesset 51-69; mem. Secretariat Israel Labour Party; Minister of Labour 56-59; Mayor of Tel-Aviv 59-69; Chair. Exec. Cttee. Tel-Aviv Univ.
Publs. *Industry in Palestine* 32, *Yearly Palestine Economic Summaries* 32-35, *Labour in Histadrut and in State*.
40 Be'eri Street, Tel-Aviv, Israel.

Nashashibi, Nasser Eddin; United Arab Republic (b. Palestine) editor and diplomatist; b. 1924; ed. Arab Coll., Jerusalem and American Univ. Beirut.
Arab Office, Jerusalem 45-47; Chief Chamberlain, Amman 51; Dir.-Gen. Hashemite Broadcasting 52; Roving Editor *Akhbar El Yom*, Cairo; Chief Editor *Al Gomhouria*, Cairo 59-65; Roving Rep. of the Arab League June 65-67; Roving Dip. Editor *Al-Ahram*, Cairo; Jordanian Independence Star, 1st degree.
Publs. *Steps in Britain* (Arabic) 48, *What Happened in the Middle East* 58, *Short Political Stories* 59, *Return Ticket to Palestine* 60, *Some Sand* (Arabic) 62, *An Arab in China* (Arabic and English) 64.
38 Rue Athenée, Geneva, Switzerland.

Nasir, Mohammed, B.Sc., M.A., ED.D.; Iraqi educator and diplomatist; b. 1911; ed. Teacher Training Coll., Baghdad, American Univ., Beirut and Columbia Univ., New York.
Schoolteacher 31-32; Prof. of Educ. and Dean of Coll. of Educ., Baghdad Univ. 41-45, 55-63; Cultural Attaché and Perm. Rep. of Iraq to Arab League Cultural Comm. 45-48; Cultural Attaché, Washington 48-54; Alternate Del. to UN 5th Gen. Assembly; Pres. Teachers Union of Iraq 63-64; mem. Council, Univ. of Baghdad 63-64; Minister of Educ. 64; Ambassador to U.S.S.R. Nov. 64-66; Minister of Culture and Nat. Orientation 66; Prof. of Educational Admin., Kuwait Univ. 67-.
Publs. include many school books in Arabic, *Arabic Readings* (2 vols., joint author) 40, *Civic Education* (joint author) 40, *Guide to Higher Education in the U.S.A.* 58.
c/o Kuwait University, P.O. Box 5969, Kuwait.

Nassiri, Lt.-Gen. Ne'matollah; Iranian army officer; b. 1907; ed. Teheran Military Acad.
Early career in army posts including Commdr. Imperial Guards 50; arrested Mossadegh under Shah's orders 53; Lt.-Gen. 53; Mil. Gov. Teheran 63; Chief of Police until 65, Head State Security and Intelligence Org. (Savak) and Dept. Prime Minister 65-.
Savak, Teheran, Iran.

Nassif, Albert; Lebanese lawyer and diplomatist; b. 1915; ed. Univs. of Cairo and Paris.
Studied Law and Political Economy, Paris, also journalist, Egypt, Lebanon, and French Equatorial Africa 36-44; ed. journal *Le Jour* 44-47; Lecturer, Faculty of Law, Beirut 45-47; 2nd Sec., Lebanese Legation, Vatican 47-50; 1st Sec., Lebanese Legation, Switzerland 50-53; Counsellor,

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Lebanese Embassy, France 53-55. Head of Social and Cultural Dept., Lebanese Ministry of Foreign Affairs 56, Counsellor, London 57-59, Ambassador to Liberia 59 61, to India 61-63 to Turkey 63 65, Dir Int Dept, Ministry of Foreign Affairs 66-69, Amb to Tunisia June 69, *Commander Order of St Grégoire*, Chevalier Légion d'Honneur, Officer Order of the Cedar (Lebanon), Ordine al Merito della Repubblica Italiana
 Public Political economic and legal studies
 18 avenue Charles Nicolle, Tunis, Tunisia

Natra, Sergiu; Israeli composer, b 1924 Romania ed National Conservatoire Bucharest
 Settled in Israel 61, G. Enesco Prize 45 State Prize 51, Engel Prize 69
 Works include *March and Chorale 44, Suite for Orchestra 48 Sinfonia 60 Music for Violin and Harp 60 Tocatta for Orchestra 63 Music for Harpsichord and Six Instruments 64 Sonatina for Harp 65, Voices of Fire (ballet music) Music for Oboe and Strings 65 Prelude for Narrator and Orchestra Commentary on Nicheia Song of Deborah Mezzo Soprano and Chamber Orchestra 67 Prayer for Harp 70 10 Barth Street, Ramat Aviv, Tel Aviv, Israel
 Telephone 416329*

Ne'eman, Yuval, BSC, DIP ING, DEM, DIC, PHD, Israeli soldier and scientist; b 14 May 1925, ed Herzlia High School, Tel-Aviv, Israel Inst of Technology, Haifa, Ecole Supérieure de Guerre, Paris, and London Univ Hydrodynamics Design Engineer 45, in Hagana 46, Captain Israeli Defence Forces (Infantry) 48, Major 49, Lieut-Col. 50, Col 55, Defence Attaché, London 58 60, joined Israeli Atomic Energy Establishments 60 Scientific Dir Soreq Research Establishment 61-63, Head Physics Dept, Tel Aviv Univ 62, Prof of Physics 64, Research Fellow, Calif. Inst. of Technology 63, Visiting Prof of Physics 64-65, Vice-Rector and Vice-Pres Tel Aviv Univ 65-66 mem Israeli Atomic Energy Comm 66, Israel Nat Acad. of Sciences 66, known mainly for his co-discovery of Unitary Symmetry (The Eightfold Way) 61, Hon D Sc., Weizmann Prize for the Sciences 66, Rothschild Prize 68, Israel Prize for Exact Sciences 69, Albert Einstein Medal and Prize (USA) 70
 Publ *The Eightfold Way* (with M Gell Mann) 64 *Algebraic Theory of Particle Physics* 67
 Physics Department, Tel Aviv University, Tel Aviv, Israel

Negahban, Ezatollah, N A, M A, PHD; Iranian archaeologist b 1 March 1925 ed Teheran and Chicago Univs Assoc. Prof. Univ of Teheran 56-62, Prof 62, Dir Univ Inst. of Archaeology 58, Technical Dir Iranian Archaeological Service 60-65, Technical Adviser to Ministry of Culture 65; Hon mem. German Archaeological Inst., mem. Perm. Council, Congress of Pre- and Proto-historic Archaeology, excavated at Marlik 61 62 Haft Tappe, Dir Iranian Archaeological (Iran Bastan) Museum 66
 Publ *The Gold Treasures of Marlik 62, Preliminary Report on Marlik Excavation 64*
 Darband Teheran, Iran

Neguib, Gen. Mohamed; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) army officer, b Khartoum 1901, ed Sudan Schools, Gordon Coll., Khartoum Royal Mil Acad and Egyptian Univ Cairo
 Commissioned in infantry 17, served in Gen Staff, Adjutant Gen. and QM Gen's departments during Second World War; Sub-Governor of Sinai and Governor of Red Sea Provinces in Frontier Corps, Col Command 2nd Machine Gun Bn, Brig., and in command of Egyptian troops in Palestine and command successively 1st and 3rd, 4th and 10th Inf. Bdes during hostilities with Israel 48, Dir Gen Frontier Corps 50, Dir Gen Infantry 51, C. in C

Egyptian Army July 52, Prime Minister, Minister for War and Manne C in C of the Army and Military Gov of Egypt Sept. 52 53, President of the Republic of Egypt June 53 December 54
 Cairo, U A R

Nekrouf, Younés, L. és L., Moroccan diplomatist, b 1916, ed Inst. des Hautes Etudes Marocaines, Rabat and Univs of Bordeaux and Algiers
*Government Interpreter 35 39, School Teacher and Inspector of Schools 39-53, Dir de Cabinet to Minister of Education 55 57, Cultural Counsellor, Moroccan Embassy, Paris, and Perm Del to UNESCO 57 59, Dir Cultural Affairs and Technical Assistance, Ministry of Foreign Affairs 59 61, Counsellor, then Minister Plenipotentiary, Paris 61 64, Ambassador to Senegal 65 67, concurrently to the Gambia, Guinea and Liberia, Ambassador to Yugoslavia 67 68 Moroccan Rep to several int. confs., Officer, Légion d'Honneur, Palmes Académiques, France Ous-same Alaouite, Morocco, Officier, Ordre du Trône, Morocco Publ *Méthode Active d'Arabe* (2 vols.) 58, various essays and articles on Portuguese colonisation
 c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Rabat, Morocco*

Nemery, Maj.-Gen. Jaafar Mohammed al-; Sudanese army officer and political leader, b 1 Jan 1930, Omdurman, ed Sudan Military Coll
 Former Command Khartoum garrison, campaigns against rebels in Southern Sudan, placed under arrest on suspicion of plotting to overthrow the government, Chair Revolutionary Command Council (R.C.C.) and C-in C of Armed Forces May 69- Prime Minister Oct 69, and Minister of Foreign Affairs July 70
 Office of the Chairman, Revolutionary Command Council, Khartoum, Sudan

Newson, David Dunlop, A B, M S; American diplomatist; b 6 Jan 1918, ed Richmond Union High School and Calif and Columbia Univs
 Reporter, *San Francisco Chronicle* 40 41, U S Navy 41 45, Newspaper publisher 45 47, Information Officer U S Embassy Karachi 47 50, Consul, Oslo 50-51, Public Affairs Officer, U S Embassy, Baghdad 51 55, Dept of State 55-59, U S Nat War Coll 59 60, First Sec, U S Embassy, London 60-62, Dir Office of Northern African Affairs, State Dept 62 65, Amb to Libya 65 69, Asst Sec of State for African Affairs 69 Dept of State Meritorious Service Award 58
 Department of State, Washington D C, U S A

Niamir, Kazem; Iranian diplomatist, b 1914, ed Sarvat Coll., Teheran and Teheran and London Univs
 Court of Justice Teheran 34 37, Ministry of Foreign Affairs 38-, served London 40 46, Iranian Political Adviser to UN 46, Ministry of Foreign Affairs 46-48, Counsellor, New Delhi 49 52, Chief of Cultural Dept, Ministry of Foreign Affairs 52-54, Minister Counsellor to Japan 54 58, Chief Third Political Dept of Ministry of Foreign Affairs 59 63, Amb to Jordan 63 65, mem Ministry of Foreign Affairs High Political Council 66, Sec Gen of the Iranian Assn for the UN, num Iranian and foreign decorations
 Publ *Treaty of Versailles and after 37, Demography 37, Political Organisation of Japan 55*
 c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Teheran, Iran

Nikolayev, Vasilii Fyodorovich; Soviet diplomatist, b 1916 ed Sverdlov All Union Communist Univ and Acad of Social Sciences of CPSU Central Cttee
 Member CP of Soviet Union 31, Party official 36-48, First Sec North Kazakhstan Regional Cttee, Kazakh CP 40 44, Sec Water Transport District Cttee, CP of Ukraine 44 45, Sec Odessa City Cttee, in Teaching Service 48 54, Deputy Head Fourth European Dept, Ministry of Foreign Affairs 54-56, Counsellor Soviet Embassy, Romania 56-60 Fifth European Dept, Ministry of Foreign Affairs

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

60-62; Counsellor-Minister, Prague 62-65; Ambassador to Iraq 65-; Soviet orders and medals.
U.S.S.R. Embassy, Baghdad, Iraq.

Nissim, Isaac; Israeli Rabbi; b. 1896 Baghdad.

In Israel since 25; advocates consolidation of the various Jewish tribes into one single community; elected Rishon le Zion and Chief Rabbi (Sephardi) of Israel Feb. 55, installed March 55; Pres. Rabbinical High Court 55-; Pres. Beth Hamidrash le Rabbanim Ule-Dayanim, Jerusalem. Publs. *Yen Hatov, Canogah Zidkiah Umishpat*. Office of the Rishon Le-Zion, The Chief Rabbi of Israel, Jerusalem, Israel.

Nofal, Sayed, DR. ARTS; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) international civil servant; b. 1910; ed. Cairo Univ. Head of Literary Dept. *Al Siyassa* 35-38; Teacher, Cairo Univ. 38; later Dir. of Technical Sec., Ministry of Educ. and Ministry of Social Affairs; later Dir. of Legislative Dept., Upper House of Egyptian Parl.; later Dir. Political Dept., League of Arab States, Asst. Sec.-Gen. 60-. Publs. include *Poetry of Nature in Arabic and Western Literature* 44, *Egypt in the United Nations* 47, *The Egyptian Parliament in a Quarter of a Century* 51, *The Political Status of the Emirates of the Arab Gulf and Southern Arabia* 59, *The Arab-Israeli Conflict* 62, *Arab Unity* 64, *The Record of Israel* 66, *Joint Arab Action Book I* 68, *Book II* 71.

League of Arab States, Midan Al Tahrir, Cairo, U.A.R.

Noman, Ismail Said; Yemeni diplomatist; b. 1941; ed. Boston Univ. Former Sec. Aden Electricity Corpn.; Perm. Rep. to UN 67-Aug. 70.

Aden, People's Democratic Republic of Southern Yemen.

Noman, Muhammad Ahmed; Yemeni politician; b. 1933; ed. Taez, Aden, Sana'a. Leader of Shaf'i (Sunni) sect; fmr. leader Free Yemen Movement; Rep. to Arab League 64-65; mem. Political Bureau Jan.-April 64; Vice-Pres. Exec. Council Feb.-April 64; Amb.-at-Large May 65-; Political Adviser to the Republican Council 70-. Sana'a, Yemen Arab Republic.

Nouira, Hedi; Tunisian politician; b. 1911, Monastir. Secretary of Gen. Confed. of Tunisian Workers 38; in detention 38-42; Sec.-Gen. of Neo-Destour Party 42-54; Minister of Commerce 54-55; Minister of Finance 55-56; Dir. of Central Bank of Tunisia 58-70; Minister of the Economy 70; Prime Minister Nov. 70-. Office of the Prime Minister, Tunis, Tunisia.

Noujaim, Gen. Jean; Lebanese army officer; b. 1915, Kesrwan; ed. Saida, Beirut, and Homs Military Acad., Syria.

Instructor, Homs Mil. Acad. 38-40; Chief of Fourth Bureau 42-43; Capt. and Commdr. of Mil. Acad. 45; Commdr. intercommunications branch 46-51; Lt.-Col. 51; Col. 58; Commdr. Bekka Sector 62; Brig. 64; Commdr. Southern Lebanon and Western Sector of Israel front 66-68; Commdr. Bekka Sector and section of Israeli front 68-70; C.-in-C. of Army Jan. 70-; many Lebanese and foreign decorations.

c/o Ministry of Defence, Beirut, Lebanon.

Nur, Abdul Mohsen Abu al-; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) politician; b. 4 Aug. 1918; ed. Egyptian Military Acad.

Fought in Palestine war 48-49; took part in revolution 52; subsequently served as Mil. Attaché, Egyptian embassies in Sudan, Syria, Lebanon; Deputy Commdr. of the First Army 58; Gov. of Suez (town); Minister of State for Land Reform 62, for Agrarian Reform and Land Reclamation 63; Deputy Prime Minister for Agriculture and Irrigation 64-68; Minister for Local Admin. 68; Deputy Sec.-Gen.

Arab Socialist Union 67-70, Sec.-Gen. 70-May 71; to be tried for treason.

Cairo, United Arab Republic.

Nurock, Mordechai, O.B.E., M.A., LL.D. (HON.); Israeli diplomatist; b. 1893; ed. Dublin Univ.

With British Colonial Admin. Service, Palestine 20-36, Uganda 37-45; with British Control Comm., Germany and Austria 45-49; Adviser on Personnel to Israel Govt. 49-51; Financial Sec. Hebrew Univ. 51-52; Israel Minister to Australia and New Zealand 53-58; Israel Chargé d'Affaires South Africa 59; mem. Board of Govs. Hebrew Univ. 63-; Editor Govt. Year Book 63-; ranking Ambassador 64-; Adviser on Publications, Foreign Ministry. 201 Elm Tree Court, St. John's Wood, London, N.W.8, England; and Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Jerusalem, Israel.

Nuseibeh, Anwar Zaki, M.A.; Jordanian diplomatist; b. 20 Jan. 1913; ed. Govt. Arab Coll., Jerusalem, and Queens' Coll., Cambridge.

Land Officer, Palestine 36, Magistrate 37-42; Lecturer in Constitutional Law, Jerusalem Law Classes 36-48; fmr. mem. Jordan Parl. and Senator; Chief Arab Del., Jordan and Israel Mixed Armistice Comm. 51; Minister of Defence 53, of Educ. 54-55, of Reconstruction and Devt. 54-55; Gov. of Jerusalem, Jordan 61-62; Ambassador to U.K. 65-66; private business in Jordan 66-; Order of El Kawkab (1st Class); Assoc. Knight Order of St. John of Jerusalem; Knight of Order of Holy Sepulchre. c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Amman, Jordan.

Nuseibeh, Dr. Hazem; Jordanian politician. Deputy Chair. of Development Board 58-60; Under-Sec. Ministry of Nat. Economy 59-60; Sec.-Gen. of Development Board 61-62; Minister of Foreign Affairs 62-63, 65-66; Minister of Reconstruction and Devt. 67-68. c/o Ministry of Reconstruction and Development, Amman, Jordan.

Nutting, Rt. Hon. (Harold) Anthony, P.C.; British politician and writer; b. 11 Jan. 1920; ed. Eton and Trinity Coll., Cambridge.

In British Foreign Service 40-45; mem. Parl. 45-56; Chair. Young Conservative and Unionist Movement 46, Nat. Union of Conservative and Unionist Asscns. 50, Conservative Nat. Exec. Cttee. 51; Parl. Under-Sec. of State for Foreign Affairs 51-54; Minister of State for Foreign Affairs 54-56 (resigned over British Suez policy); Leader, Brit. Del. to UN Gen. Assembly and UN Disarmament Comm. 54-56. Publs. *I Saw for Myself* 58, *Disarmament* 59, *Europe Will Not Wait* 60, *Lawrence of Arabia* 61, *The Arabs* 64, *Gordon, Martyr and Misfit* 66, *No End of a Lesson* 67, *Scramble for Africa* 70.

47 Addison Road, London, W.14, England.

O

Obbink, Hendrik, Willem, D.D.; Netherlands university professor; b. 20 March 1898; ed. Univs. of Utrecht and Groningen.

Minister of Dutch Reformed Church 23-29, serving at Ootmarsum, Geldermalsen, Middelburg and Utrecht; Hon. Lecturer Hebrew and Aramaic Univ. of Utrecht 32-39, Prof. of History of Religions and Egyptian Language 39-, retd. Sept. 68; Knight Order of the Netherlands Lion. Publs. *The Magic Significance of the Name, Especially in Egypt* 25, *The Book of Daniel* 32, *History of the Ancient Near East* 39 and 51, *Theological Considerations on the Old Testament* 38, *Cybele, Isis, Mithras, Oriental Religions in the Roman Empire* 65.

Weteringpark 7, Flat 72, Zwolle, Netherlands.

WHOS WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Oekba Abdallah Omar, Yemeni politician
Former Presidential Sec. for Internal and External Affairs
Minister of Nat. Guidance Culture and Yemen Unity
Affairs April 68
Ministry of National Guidance as Shaab People's Democratic Republic of Yemen

Oeksha, Sarwat Mahmoud Fahmy, D. Sc. L. United Arab Republic (Egyptian) diplomatist politician and banker
b. 1907 ed. Military Coll. and Cairo Univ
Cavalry officer 39 took part in Palestine war 48-49 Mil
Attaché Berné 53-54 Paris and Madrid 54-56 Attaché in
Presidency of Republic 56-67 U.A.R. Ambassador to
Italy 57-58 Minister of Culture and Nat. Guidance and
Pres. of Supreme Council for Literature Art and Social
Sciences 58-62 Chair Board of Dir. of Nat. Bank of
Egypt 62 mem. UNESCO Exec. Board 62 mem. Nat.
Assembly and Pres. Foreign Affairs Comm. 64-66 Deputy
Prime Minister and Minister of Culture 66-68 Minister of
Culture 68- Pres. Egypt France Assn. 65 numerous
awards and decorations
Public Nineteen works (incl. translations) since 42
National Bank of Egypt Cairo Home Villa 34 St. 14
Masri Cairo U.A.R.

Olasy Osman, Turkish diplomatist b. 17 Jan 1924 ed.
St. Joseph French Coll. Istanbul and Faculty of Political
Science Univ. of Ankara
Joined Ministry of Foreign Affairs Turkey 45 Lieut.
Turkish Army 46 Foreign Ministry 47 Vice Consul
London 48-50 Second Sec. London 50-52 Chief of
Section, Dept. of Econ. Affairs Ministry of Foreign
Affairs 54-55 First Sec. NATO Paris 54 Councillor and
Deputy Perm. Rep. 58-59 Asst. Dir. Gen. NATO Dept.
Min. of Foreign Affairs Ankara 59-60 Dir. Gen. 60-63
Asst. Sec. Gen. 63-64 Amb. to Finland 64-66 to India
and Ceylon 66-68 Deputy Sec. Gen. of NATO Brussels 69-
c/o OTAN/NATO 1110 Brussels Belgium
Telephone 41 00-40

Offendort Franz, Dr. Ing. Israeli electrical engineer b.
1900 ed. Technische Hochschule Berlin and Danzig
Asst. Technische Hochschule Danzig 22-24 Asst. to Chief
Engineer Siemens-Schuckert Werke A. G. Berlin 24-28
Lecturer Technische Hochschule Berlin-Charlottenberg
28-33 teacher in several high schools in Germany and
Palestine 33-37 Prof. of Electrical Engineering Haifa 37
and former Dean of the Faculty Mem. Research Council of
Israel mem. Israel Acad. of Sciences and Humanities
Weermann Prize 48 Israel State Prize 50
Public *Die Grundlagen der Hochfrequenztechnik* 26 *Erd-
strom* 28 *Potentiale der Elektrotechnik* 32 *Die Welt
der Vektoren* 50 *Technische Elektrodynamik I—Berechnung
elektrischer Felder* 52 II—*Innere Elektromagnetik des Einzel-
elektrischen* 52 *Gesamtladungstabellen* (with Knoll and Rompe)
3 vols. 33
30 Smolensk Street Haifa Israel

Onar, İddî kâmil, Turkish law professor b. 1897 ed.
Istanbul Law School and Paris Univ
Practised law and served as judge 22-33 Prof. Admin. Law
Istanbul Univ. 33 Rector Istanbul Univ. 46-48 and 60
Dean Faculty of Law 33-37 43-46
Public *Administrative Law* 44 *Principles of Administrative
Law* 52 II 60
Istanbul University Istanbul Turkey

Örek, Osman Nuri, Cypriot lawyer and politician b.
1925 ed. Turkish Lycée Nicosia Univ. of Istanbul and
Middle Temple London
Founder mem. Cyprus-U.S. Turkish Assn. London Chair
51-52 Sec. Nicosia Branch Cyprus Turkish Nat. Union
Party 53-55 Sec. Gen. 55 July 60 Dep. Chair July 60.
Dep. Chair High Council of Evros 56-60 rep. Turkish
Cypriot Community at London Conf. 59 and subsequent
Joint Ctte. Minister of Defence 69- mem. Exec. Council of

Turkish Cypriot Provisional Admin. for Defence Internal
and External Affairs Dec. 67
c/o Ministry of Defence Nicosia Home 10 Fleming Street
Nicosia Cyprus

Orgad Ben Zion Israeli composer b. 1926 Germany
ed. Acad. of Music in Jerusalem and Brandeis Univ.
U.S.A.
Studied violin with Kinory and Bergman and composition
with Paul Ben Haïm and Josef Tal studied in U.S.A.
under Aaron Copland (g.v.) and Irving Fine now Super-
visor of Musical Educ. Israel Ministry of Educ. and
Culture recipient of several awards for compositions
Compositions include cantatas *The Story of the Spies*
(UNESCO Koussevitzky Prize 52) *Israel's Vision* works
for orchestra *Building a King's Stage* *Choreographic
Sketches* *Movements on A Kaleidoscope* *Music for Horn
and Orchestra* *Hatsvi Israel* (Symphony for baritone and
orch.) *Out of the Dust* (for solo and instruments) *Ballada*
(for violin) *Taksim* (for harp) *Monologue* (for viola)
works for soloists and orchestra songs piano pieces etc.
Ministry of Education and Culture Hadar Daphna Build-
ing Tel Aviv Home 14 Bloch Street Tel Aviv Israel
Telephone 254122 (Office)

Osma Slesil, Turkish army officer and politician b.
1913 ed. Military War Coll. and Gen. Staff Coll.
In various units and branches of the Armed Forces 42-50
Mil. Attaché at Amman and Baghdad 55-58 ret'd from
Army 60 co-founder Justice Party 61 then Gen. Sec. for
three years now Pres. of its Central Ctte. of Arbitration
and mem. of Central Exec. Ctte. mem. for İzmir Nat.
Assembly 61 also mem. Foreign Affairs and Defence
Ctte. Nat. Assembly

Yenşehir Feri Çakmak Sokak 10/12 Ankara Turkey

Osman Ahmed, LL.D. Moroccan diplomatist and politi-
cian b. 3 Jan 1930 m. Princess Lailah Nesh ed. Royal
High School Rabat Univ. of Rabat and Univ. of Bor-
deaux France
Member of Royal Cabinet (judicial matters) 56 joined
Ministry of Foreign Affairs 57 Sec. Gen. Ministry of Nat.
Defence 59-61 Ambassador to German Fed. Repub. 61-62
Under Sec. of State for Industry and Mines 63-64 Pres.
and Gen. Man. Moroccan Navigation Co. 64-67 Ambassa-
dor to U.S.A. Canada and Mexico 67 participated in UN
sessions 57-58 60-61 Conference on Maritime Law 58
Conference of the League of Arab States 61
Embassy of Morocco 1601 21st Street N.W. Washington
D.C. 20009 U.S.A.

Osman, Hassan Mutwakil Mohamed, Sudanese cotton
executive b. Jan 1918 ed. Coll. of Agriculture Sudan
Agric. Specialist with Sudanese Dept. of Agriculture 42-48
Senior Officer Atbara Dairy 48-50 Insp. of Mechanized
Crop Production 50-51 Insp. of Agriculture Sennar and
Irga Districts 51-54 Govt. Soil Conservation Officer 54-57
Asst. Dir. of Agriculture Dept. of Agriculture 59-62
Deputy Dir. 63-65 Dir. Ministry of Agriculture 65-66
Dir. Sudan Gezira Board 64-66 mem. Council Univ. of
Khartoum and Board of Faculty of Agriculture 64-69
Man. Dir. and Chair Sudan Gezira Board 66-70 Chair
Board of El Nilein Bank May 70-
Sudan Gezira Board Barakat Blue Nile Province Sudan

Osman, Osman Ahmed, B.Sc. United Arab Republic
(Egyptian) civil engineer b. 1917 ed. Cairo Univ.
Chairman The Arab Contractors (Osman Ahmed Osman
& Co.) 52 and of its assoc. companies Saudi Enterprises
Kuwaiti Engineering Co., The Libyan Co. for Contracting
and Dev't. United Arab Republic Medal (For Classing)
Russian Hero of Labour Medal
Chief works undertaken include (in Egypt) Aswan High
Dam Suez Canal deepening and widening, Fort Said Ship-
yard Cairo Int. Airport Salehah reclamation project
High Dam Electric Power Transmission Lines (in Saudi)

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Arabia) Dhahran Airport, Riyadh Mil. Coll., Dammam Mil. Barracks; (in Kuwait) Municipality Centre, Kuwait drainage system; (in Libya) Benghazi drainage system, Benghazi Stadium; (in Iraq) Kirkuk Feeder Canal No. 2 and 3; (in Jordan) Khaled Ibn El-Walid Dam and Tunnels; (in Sudan) 200 bedroom First Class Hotel. The Arab Contractors, 34 Adly Street, Cairo, U A.R.

Osman, Yacoub, LL.B.; Sudanese diplomatist; b. 1912; ed. Gordon Coll., Khartoum, Secondary School, Cairo and Leeds Univ.

Worked in aircraft factory in London in Second World War, also Arabic translator in British Broadcasting Corporation; returned to Sudan 45; joined independence movement, became Editor of *El-Nil* (daily of independence movement) and Asst. Gen. Sec. of Umma (Independence) Party; rep. independence movement in London; resigned from Umma Party 55; Perm. Rep. to U.N. 56-59; Ambassador to U.S.S.R. 59-64, also accred. to Czechoslovakia 64, to Ethiopia 64-.

Sudan Embassy, Box 110, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

Osorio-Tafall, Bibiano F.; Mexican United Nations official; b. 1903, Spain; ed. *Universidades de Santiago y de Madrid* and *Biologische Anstalt, Dahlen*.

Government posts in Spain and prof. of several academic insts. in Spain and Mexico until 49; Fisheries Regional Officer for Latin America, Food and Agriculture Org. (FAO) 49-51, Dir. Regional Office for Western Latin America, Santiago, Chile 51-55, Chief, Technical Assistance Mission in Chile 55-56; Resident Rep. in Chile, UN Technical Assistance Board (now UN Devt. Programme UNDP) 56-59, in Indonesia 59-61, in U.A.R. 61-64; Resident Rep. UNDP, Dem. Repub. of Congo 64-66; Special Rep. of the Sec.-Gen. of UN in Cyprus Feb. 67-.

Office of UN Special Representative in Cyprus, P.O. Box 1642, Nicosia, Cyprus.

Osseyran, Adel; Lebanese politician; b. 1905, Saïda; ed. American Univ. of Beirut.

Deputy for Southern Lebanon 43; Minister of Supplies in first Cabinet after Independence 43; mem. of Lebanese Del. to UN 47, 48; Deputy for Zahrani 53, 57, 60; Pres. Chamber of Deputies 53, 57, 58; Minister of the Interior 68-69; Grand Cordon of the Order of the Cedar; several foreign decorations.

Ministry of the Interior, Beirut, Lebanon.

Othman as-Said, Muhammad; Libyan politician; b. Oct. 1922; ed. Sanusi religious institutions, Fezzan.

Head of Religious Court for Admin. Region of Brak 45; organized Libyan Nationalist Activity in Fezzan 47; imprisoned by French 48-50; Leader Fezzan Del. to Libyan Independence Comm. 50; mem. Constituent Assembly 50; mem. Advisory Comm. to UN in Libya 50; Minister of Health, Libya 51, later Minister of Public Health until 58; Deputy to Constituent Assembly 58; Minister for Econ. Affairs 60; Prime Minister 60-March 63; Deputy 64; private business 64-; numerous decorations. Geraba Street 6, Tripoli, Libya.

Otten, Heinrich; German orientalist; b. 27 Dec. 1913. Professor and Dir. Oriental Seminar, Marburg Univ. 59-; mem. Acad. of Sciences and Literature, Mainz 59-; Exec. mem. Deutsche Orientgesellschaft 64-; mem. German Archaeological Inst. 69-.

Publs. several works on Hittitology and history of the ancient Near East.

355 Marburg/Lahn, Biegenstrasse 26, German Federal Republic.

Ötügen, Adnan; Turkish librarian; b. 1911; ed. Lycée and Univ. of Istanbul, and Germany.

Asst. Turkish Language and Literature Dept., Univ. of Istanbul 40; Dir. of Publs., Asst. Dir.-Gen. of Fine Arts, Ministry of Education 52-54; Lecturer of Library Science,

Univ. of Ankara; mem. Exec. Cttee. Turkish Nat. Comm. of UNESCO and Exec. Board Turkish Librarians' Asscn.; Dir. Turkish Nat. Library 60-65; Under-Sec. for Culture, Ministry of Educ. 65-67; Lecturer in Turkish Language and Literature, Lycée Teachers' Training Coll., Ankara 67-; Gen. Sec. Turkish-Iraqi Standing Cttee. of Cultural Agreement; fmrlly. Turkish Cultural Attaché in Germany.

Publs. *Bibliyotek bilgisi ve bibliyografi* (Library Science and Bibliography) 40, *Istanbul Üniversitesi Yayınları Bibliyografyası* (Bibliography of the Publs. of the Univ. of Istanbul) 41, *Seçme eserler bibliyografyası*. 1. cilt (Selected Bibliography, Vol. 1) 46, *Millî Kütüphane kuruluşu* (Establishing the National Library) 46, *Istanbul Üniversitesi Yayınları Bibliyografyası, 1933-45* (Bibliography of the Publs. of the Univ. of Istanbul, 1933-45, with Acaroğlu) 47, *Dünya edebiyatından tercemeler. Klâsikler Bibliyografyası, 1940-48* (Bibliography of classical and modern works translated and published by Turkish Ministry of Education, 1940-48) 47, (2nd edn.) 1940-50 52, *Bibliyotekçinin el kitabı, 2 cilt* (Manual of the Librarian, 2 vols.) 47-48, *Millî Kütüphane Nasıl Kuruldu* (How the Turkish National Library was founded) 55, *Türk dilinin Başına gelenler* (The things that happened to Turkish language, 2 vols.) 68, *İki yılda 600 den fazla yazı* (bibliography) 69. Lycée Teachers' Training College, Ankara, Turkey.

Oufkir, Gen. Mohammed; Moroccan politician; b. 1918. Served in French Army in Italy and Indo-China, then aide-de-camp to French Residents-Gen.; Head of Nat. Police 60-64; Col. 62, Commdt. 63, Gen. 64; Minister of the Interior 64-71; Minister of Defence and Head of Armed Forces Aug. 71-; mem. Regency Council 65; sentenced to life imprisonment *in absentia* over the Ben Barka affair, Paris 67.

Ministry of Defence, Rabat, Morocco.

Oussedik, Omar; Algerian diplomatist; b. 2 Jan. 1922. Member Algerian People's Party 45-; Major, Armée de Libération Nationale 54-58; Sec. of State 58-60; FLN Rep. in Guinea 60-61; Ambassador to Bulgaria 63-65, to U.S.S.R. 65-.

Algerian Embassy, Krapivinsky per. 1-A, Moscow, U.S.S.R.

Ouzegane, Amar; Algerian politician and journalist; b. 1910.

Former mem. of Central Cttee. of FLN; Editor of *Ouvrier Algérien* 56-57; Minister of Agriculture and Agrarian Reform 62-63; Minister of State 63-64; Editor *Révolution Africaine* 64-65; Minister of Tourism Dec. 64-July 65; mem. opposition party O.C.R.A. 66-69.

Publs. *Le Meilleur Combat* 62, *Al Djihad al Afdhal* 63.

Parc Paradou, Hydra, Algiers, Algeria.

Öz, Tahsin Şükrü; Turkish antiquarian; b. 1888; ed. Istanbul Univ.

Dir. Nat. Museum 07-28; Dir. Topkapı Palace Museum 28-52; mem. High Cttee. of Turkish Monuments.

Publs. *Guide Book to the Palace of Topkapı* 33, *Zwei Stiftungsurkunden des Sultan Mehmet II Fatih* 35, *Arşiv Kılavuzu*, Vol. I 38, II 40, *Risalei Mimariye* 44, *Türk kumasve kadifeleri Fash* (Turkish Woven Fabrics and Velvets), Vol. I 46, Vol. II 51, *Topkapı Sarayında Fatih Sultan Mehmet II* 53, *Emaneti Mukaddese* (Holy Relics) 54, *Türk Cinileri* 54, *The Topkapı Saray Museum* 50, *Masterpiece* 52, *Turkish Ceramics* 54, *Les Mosquées d'Istanbul* Vols. I and II, etc.

Cağaloğlu Mollafenarî sok. 36, Istanbul, Turkey.

Özdilek, Gen. Fahri; Turkish army officer and politician; ed. War Academy (Staff Coll.).

Fought in War of Independence 19-22; fm. Commdr. Vth Army Corps and 1st Army; Under-Sec. at Ministry of Defence 56-58; Martial law Commdr., Istanbul, April-May 60; Minister of Defence May-Oct. 60; Minister of State and

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Dep Premier Oct. 60 Dec 60, March 61, Dep Head of State Dec 60-61

Kennedy Cad 62/4, Ankara, Turkey

Özel, Ahmet; Turkish engineer, educationist and politician b 1910 ed Technical Univ of Istanbul, and Paris Ecole Nat Supérieure de Télécommunications
Docent Technical Univ of Istanbul and Factory Engineer 59 Prof 49 Dir Civil Aeronautical Inst and Dean Elec Faculty 52, Pres 53 54, Dep from Sivas to Grand Nat Assembly 54-57, Minister of Education 55 57, Pres Atatürk Univ 57-58, Prof of Mathematics and Physics Atatürk Univ 58 67, Pres Black Sea Technical Univ 67 mem Democratic Party
Publ. *Courses on Radio Electricity, The Role of the Atmosphere on the Propagation of Electro Magnetic Waves The Application of Heaviside's Symbolic Computations of Electrotechnics, Electro-Magnetic Theory and Radiation, General Mathematics Courses*
Black Sea University, Trabzon, Turkey

Öztrak, Adnan; Turkish administrator, b 1915, ed Law School
With Ministry of the Interior 38-42, District Gov 42 46 Dir of Office Ministry of Labour 47 48, Office of the Prime Minister 48 64, Dir Turkish Radio and Television 64

Yenişehir Menekşe Sokak 13/7, Ankara Turkey

Öztürk, Seyfi; Turkish lawyer and politician, b 1927, ed Ankara Univ

Former lawyer in private practice, mem Constituent Assembly, Minister of Rural Affairs Feb Oct 65, Minister of Communications Oct 65 67 Minister of State 67 69 Minister of Labour 70, mem Republican Nat Peasants' Party

Kennedy Caddesi 22/7, Ankara Turkey

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Pachachi, Adnan al, PhD, Iraqi diplomatist, b 14 May 1923, ed American Univ of Beirut

Joined Foreign Service 44 served Washington, Alexandria, Dir Gen. of Political Affairs Council of Minister 57 58, Dir-Gen Ministry of Foreign Affairs 58-59, Perm Rep of Iraq to UN 59-65, Minister of State Dec 65 66, Minister of Foreign Affairs 66-67 Perm Rep to UN 67 69
c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs Baghdad Iraq

Pachachi, Nadim, ARSM PhD Iraqi oil expert b 18 March 1914 Baghdad ed Imperial Coll London
Minister of Econs 53 57, Minister of Finance 57 58 mem of Parl 52 58 Oil Adviser to the Libyan Govt 60 64 to the Kuwaiti Govt 66 68 to His Highness The Sheikh of Abu Dhabi and the Govt of Abu Dhabi 66-, Sec Gen Org of Petroleum Exporting Countries 70-, Order of Rafidain Hashimite Order
Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries, Dr Karl Lueger Ring 10 1010 Vienna, Austria
Telephone 63 97 80

Pahlavi, Mohammad-Reza; His Imperial Majesty the Shahanshah Aryamehr, Emperor of Iran, b 26 Oct 1919 Succeeded to throne on the abdication of his father, Reza Shah the Great Sept 16th, 41, married (1) Princess Fawzia sister of King Farouk of Egypt divorced Nov 48 daughter Princess Shahnaz Pahlavi, (2) Soraya Esfandiari Feb 12th, 51, divorced March 58, (3) Farah Diba, Dec 21st 59 sons Prince Reza Pahlavi and Prince Ali Reza Pahlavi, daughter Princess Farahnaz, Dr h c Columbia, Michigan Pennsylvania California (U.C.L.A.), New York, Washington Univs, U.S.A and Univs of Teheran, Punjab, Agra, Istanbul Beirut, Rio de Janeiro, Bucharest, Sofia, Malaya Bangkok, Nat Univ of Iran

Publs *Mission for My Country* 61, *The White Revolution* 61
The Imperial Palace, Teheran, Iran

Pakravan, Gen. Hassan; Iranian army officer and diplomatist, b 1911, ed French Military Acad
Assistant Mil Attaché Paris, Mil Attaché, Pakistan 49-50, Head of Army Intelligence 50-53, Mil Attaché New Delhi 54 56, Deputy Chief State Security and Intelligence Org (Savak) 56 61, Asst to Prime Minister and Head of Savak 61 65, Minister of Information Feb 65-July 66 Amb to Pakistan 66-69 to France 70-
Embassy of Iran Paris France

Palamarchuk, Luka Fomich; Soviet journalist and diplomatist, b 1906, ed Kiev Univ
Member C P S U 28, Dir of a School 28 29, Head of Dept, Editorial Offices *Chervony Krai* (newspaper) Vinnitsa 29 30, Deputy Editor and Editor, regional newspapers 30 37, Deputy Editor *Perets* (Kiev satirical journal) 37 41; Chair Radio Cttee, Ukrainian Council of People's Commissars 41-42, Editor *Radyanska Ukraina* (newspaper) 42 48, 49 52, Diplomatic Service 52, Deputy Foreign Minister of Ukrainian S S R 52-54, Minister of Foreign Affairs of Ukrainian S S R 54 65 Ambassador to Morocco 65, Orders and medals of U S S R
U S S R. Embassy, Rabat, Morocco

Palmer, Joseph, II, a.s., American diplomatist b 16 June 1914, ed Cambridge High School, Mass, Harvard and Georgetown Univs, and Dept of State Foreign Service School

Federal Bureau of Investigation 38 39, Officer Foreign Service 39 Vice Consul Mexico City 40 41, Nairobi 41-45, Asst. Chief Div of African Affairs, Dept. of State 45-49, Acting Chief 48, Second Sec. London 49 50, First Sec 50 53, Deputy Dir Office European Regional Affairs, Dept of State 53 56, Acting Dir 55, Deputy Asst Sec of State for African Affairs 56-58, Consul Gen Salisbury, Rhodesia and Nyasaland 58 60, Ambassador to Nigeria 60 64, responsible for co-ordination of U S organizations involved in Congo crisis 64, Dir Gen of Foreign Service, Dept of State Feb 64 March 66, Asst. Sec of State for African Affairs March 66 July 69, Amb to Libya July 69 Office American Embassy, Tripoli, Libya, Home 5414 Kirkwood Drive, Washington, D C 20016 U S A

Papadopoulos, Tassos; Cypriot lawyer and politician, b 1934 ed Pancyprrian Gymnasium, Nicosia King's Coll, London, and Gray's Inn, London

Law practice, Nicosia 55-59, mem EOKA, mem Constitutional comm drafting Cyprus Constitution 59-60, Minister of Interior 61 59 60, Minister of Labour and Social Insurance 60 70 Acting Minister of Agriculture 64-66 Minister of Health 60-70, M.P., Deputy Pres House of Repts July 70
Ministry of Labour and Social Insurance Nicosia, Cyprus.

Parrot, André; French archaeologist, b 15 Feb 1902; ed Univ de Paris à la Sorbonne, Faculté de théologie protestante, Ecole du Louvre and Ecole archéologique française de Jerusalem

Professor, Faculty of Protestant Theology, Univ of Paris 37 55, Ecole du Louvre 37, Head Keeper of Nat Museums 46 65 Insp Gen 65, Dir of Louvre Museum 68-, Dir of French archaeological expeditions to Mar (Syrian Arab Republic) and Larsa (Iraq), mem Institut français (Académie des inscriptions et belles lettres), mem British Acad, Commandeur Legion d'Honneur, Commandeur des Arts et des Lettres Croix de Guerre 39 45

Publs *Mar, une ville perdue* 36, *Archéologie mésopotamienne* 46-53 *Tello vingt campagnes de fouilles* 48, *Zigurrat et Tour de Babel* 48, *Découverte des Mondes ensevelis* 52, *Mar—le temple d'Ishtar* 56, *Mar—le Palais* (3 vols) 58 59, *Les temples d'Ishtar et de Ninur—zaza* 67, *Le*

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trésor d'Ur 68, *Sumer* 60, *Assur* 61, *Abraham et son temps* 62, *Terre du Christ* 65, *Clés pour l'archéologie* 67.
11 rue du Val Grâce, Paris 5e, France.

Parsay, Farrokhrou, M.D.; Iranian politician; b. March 1922; ed. Homa Primary School, Teheran, High Normal School, Teheran Univ.

Teacher 42-57; Principal of Secondary School, Teheran 57; mem. Parl. 63-; Under-Sec. Ministry of Educ. 65-68; Minister of Educ. 68-; established Soc. of Woman Educators; Pres. Org. of Co-operation between Women's Socs., Soc. of Univ. Women; mem. Women's Sport Council; Chief. Educ. Cttee. of High Council of Iranian Women's Socs.

Publs. *Women in Ancient Iran* (in Persian), books on education, hygiene, nursing and motherhood.

Ministry of Education, Ekbatan Avenue, Teheran, Iran.

Partos, Odeon; Israeli composer; b. 1907, Budapest; ed. in Budapest under Hubay (violin) and Kodaly (composition).

Founding mem. Int. Soc. for Contemporary Music; Leader of viola section, Israel Philharmonic Orchestra 38-56; Dir. Israel Acad. of Music, Tel-Aviv 51-; Prof. Tel-Aviv Univ. 61-; now devotes time to musical educ., composition and solo appearances.

Compositions include *Concerto* (for violin and orchestra), *Sinfonia Concertante* (for viola and orchestra), *Yishor* (for strings), *Visions* (for flute, piano and strings), *Makamat* (for flute and string quartet), *Ein Gev* (symphonic fantasy, UNESCO Prize 52, Israel State Prize 54), *Images* (for orchestra), *Symphonic Movements*, *Five Israeli Songs*, *Tehilim* (for string quartet), *Agada* (for viola, piano and percussion), *Nebulae* (for woodwind quintet), *Illur* (for 12 harps); piano pieces, etc.

The Israel Academy of Music, Tel-Aviv; 25 Tsimchei Hayehudim Street, Ramat Aviv, Tel-Aviv, Israel.

Telephone: 416111 (Office); 418638 (Home).

Patinkin, Don, Ph.D.; Israeli economist; b. 8 Jan. 1922; ed. Univ. of Chicago.

Asst. Prof. of Economics, Univ. of Chicago 47-48; Research Assoc., Cowles Comm. for Economic Research 47-48; Assoc. Prof. of Economics, Univ. of Ill. 48-49; Lecturer, The Eliezer Kaplan School of Economics and Social Sciences, Hebrew Univ. 49, later Prof. of Economics; Dir. of Research, Maurice Falk Inst. for Economic Research in Israel; mem. Israel Acad. of Sciences and Humanities; Foreign Hon. mem. American Acad. of Arts and Sciences. Publs. *Money, Interest and Prices: An Integration of Monetary and Value Theory* 56 (2nd edn. 65), *The Israel Economy: The First Decade* 59, *Studies in Monetary Economics* 71.

Chovevei Zion 5, Talbieh, Jerusalem, Israel.

Patsalides, Andreas, B.Sc.ECONS.; Cypriot politician; b. 1922; ed. Greek Gymnasium, Limassol, School of Econ. and Political Science, London, and Harvard Univ., Mass. Various posts in Public Service; Gen. Dir., Planning Bureau 59-68; Minister of Finance 68-; Ministry of Finance, Nicosia, Cyprus.

Pazhwak, Abdurrahman; Afghan civil servant; b. 7 March 1919.

Has been successively mem. Historical Section of Afghan Acad.; Dir. Foreign Publications Section of Afghan Press Dept.; Editor daily *Islah* and acting Dir.-Gen. of Bakhtar News Agency; Pres. Pashto-Tolana; Dir.-Gen. Publs. Section, Afghan Press Dept.; Press and Cultural Attaché, Afghan Embassy, London; mem. of Section of Information Dept. of ILO; Press and Cultural Attaché, Afghan Embassy, Washington; Dir. Section for East Asia and Dir. a.i., Section for UN, and Int. Confs., Afghan Ministry for Foreign Affairs; Dir.-Gen. Political Affairs in Ministry of Foreign Affairs 56; Perm. Rep. to UN 58-; Pres. UN Human Rights Comm. 63, 21st Session of UN

Gen. Assembly 66, 5th Special Session 66 and of Emergency Session of Gen. Assembly on Middle East 66.

Publs. *Aryana or Ancient Afghanistan, Pakhtunistan* (both in English), *Tales of the People* 58 (in Persian), and many other works.

Afghan Mission to the United Nations, 866 UN Plaza, New York City, N.Y., U.S.A.

Telephone: PL4 1191.

Pedersen, Johannes, DR. PHIL., D.D.; Danish university professor; b. 7 Nov. 1883; ed. Univs. of Copenhagen, Marburg, Leipzig, Leyden, Paris and Budapest.

Collaborated in production of Arabic Dictionary 13-19; Lecturer, Univ. of Copenhagen 16; Prof. of Semitic Philology, Univ. of Copenhagen 22-50; mem. of Danish Royal Acad. 24-, Chair. History and Philosophy Section 42-63, Pres. of the Acad. 63-68; mem. of Board of Dirs. of Carlsberg Foundation 24-55, Chair. 33-55; Co-editor of *Acta Orientalia* 33-62; Ed. of *Illustreret Religionshistorie* 48; Chair. of Danish Oriental Soc. 46-62; mem. of several foreign acad.

Publs. *Der Eid bei den Semiten* 14, *Israel* Vols. I, II, (Danish 20, 34, 58, English 26, 46, 59) Vols. III, IV (Danish 34, 60, English 46, 47, 53, 59); Danish: *al-Azhar* 22, *Muhammedansk Mystik* 23, 52, *Hebrew Grammar* 26, 33, 50, 68, *Islams Kultur* 28, *Den Arabiske Bog* 46, Arabic, with French introduction: *Sulami: Tabaqat Al-Sufiyya* 60.

Bjerregaardsvej 13, Copenhagen-Valby, Denmark.

Perowne, Stewart Henry, O.B.E., K.St.J., M.A., F.S.A.; British orientalist and historian; b. 17 June 1901; ed. Haileybury Coll., Corpus Christi Coll. Cambridge, and Harvard Univ.

English Lecturer, Govt. Arab Coll. Jerusalem 27-30; Asst. Sec. Palestine Govt. 30-32, Asst. District Commr. 32-34; Asst. Sec. Malta 34-37; Political Officer, Aden 37; Arabic Programme Organiser, B.B.C. 38; Information Officer, Aden 39-41; Public Relations Attaché, British Embassy, Baghdad 41-44, Oriental Counsellor 44-47; Colonial Sec. Barbados 47-50; Acting Gov. March-Oct. 49; Adviser, Ministry of Interior, Cyrenaica 50-51; Adviser on Arab Affairs, U.K. Del. U.N. Gen. Assembly 51; discovered ancient Aziris 51; Hon. Asst. Jerusalem Diocesan Refugee Organisation 52; designed and supervised seven Arab refugee villages 52-56; Faculty mem. "College Year in Athens" 65-66.

Publs. *The One Remains* 54, *Herod the Great* 56, *The Later Herods* 58, *Hadrian* 60, *Caesars and Saints* 62, *The Pilgrim's Companion in Jerusalem and Bethlehem* 63, *The Pilgrim's Companion in Roman Rome* 63, *The Pilgrim's Companion in Athens* 65, *Jerusalem* 65, *The End of the Roman World* 66, *Death of the Roman Republic* 68, *Roman Mythology* 69. 44 Arming Road, London, W.12, England.

Perrin, René Jean Louis; French marine engineer and business executive; b. 22 Aug. 1897; ed. Ecole Polytechnique.

Former Marine Engineer and Chief Marine Engineer; Prés. d'Hon. Compagnie Française de Raffinage; Administrateur, Compagnie Française des Pétroles; Admin. Soc. Nat. d'Investissement, Soc. d'Hydrocarbures de Saint-Denis, Lille-Bonnières et Colombes, Compagnie Navale des Pétroles, Compagnie Auxiliaire de Navigation; Commandeur, Légion d'Honneur.

86 avenue Raymond-Poincaré, Paris 16e, France.

Persia, Shah of (see Pahlavi, Mohammad-Reza).

Petrides, Frixos L.; Cypriot teacher and politician; b. 1915, Nicosia; ed. Pancyprian Gymnasium and Univ. of Athens.

In Athens during Second World War; teacher, Pancyprian Gymnasium after Second World War; Chair. Pancyprian Asscn. 47-60; Headmaster, Pancyprian Gymnasium 60;

WHOS WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Chair of Board Cyprus Broadcasting Corp'n 60 70
Minister of Educ 70-
Ministry of Education Nicosia Cyprus

Phanos, Titos, Cypriot politician b 23 Jan. 1929 ed Panagiotis Gymnasium Nicosia Middle Temple London Called to Bar 51 mem EOKA fighters union mem. of Ctee of Human Rights of the Nicosia Bar Assn arrested by British administration and served 16 months as political detainee 56-58 mem Consultative Body to Archbishop Makarios 59 60 mem House of Representatives for Nicosia 60- Parliamentary Spokesman (Floor Leader) of pro-government Patriotic Front 63 66 mem Consultative Assembly of Council of Europe 63 65 Minister of Communications and Works 66 70
Ministry of Communications and Works Nicosia Cyprus

Phillips John Fleetwood Stewart, C.M.G. M.A. British diplomatist b 16 Dec. 1917 ed Worcester Coll Oxford H.M. Forces 39 45 Sudan political service 45 54 First Sec. Foreign Office 55 56 Oriental Sec. Libya 57 60 H.M. Consul Gen. Muscat 60-63 Counsellor Amman 63-66 Imperial Defence Coll 67 Deputy High Commr Cyprus 68 Amb to Peoples Democratic Republic of Yemen Feb 69 Fellow Royal Commonwealth Soc British Museum rep on Board of Trustees Palestine Archaeological Museum Jerusalem 66
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Phillips, Wendell, A.B. FRGS FRAT FAGS FRAS FRAS American explorer and archaeologist b 25 Sept. 1921 Oakland Calif ed Univ of Calif Berkeley

President and Dir Philprry Corp'n 51 58 Pres Middle East American Oil Co 55 56 Chair P.T.P. Corp'n Reno Nev 62 Phillips Pacific Sacramento Calif 60- Pres American Foundation for Study of Man Washington 49 Dir-Gen. Antiquities Oman 53 Econ Adviser and Rep of H.M. Sultan of Oman 56- mem. many scientific expeditions Dir African expedition 47 49 Sinai Expedition 50 Oman Geographical Expedition 61 excavations in Yemen 51 52 Sumhuram Dhofar 53 53 Sohar Oman 58 Prof of Archaeology Univ of Wyoming 68 Trustee Hawaii Loa Coll 68 San Francisco Theological Seminary 6 mem several learned socs Hon Dr Univs of Red lands Colorado Trinity Pacific and Kyungpook Nat Univ Calvin Coolidge Imports Sterling and Whitworth Colls Idaho Coll Grand Canyon Coll Miami Calif Baptist Coll Emmanuel Coll Florida Southern Coll John Brown Univ Eastern Coll Union Coll Hoon Sheik of Bal Harith tribe Brussels Univ Commemorative Medal 69

Publs Qataban and Sheba 55 Unknown Oman 66 Oman a H story 67

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Picard, Leo Yehuda, Ph.D. D.Sc. Israeli geologist b 3 June 1900 ed Freiburg Bonn Berlin Zürich and London Univs

Assistant Univ of Florence 24 emigrated to Palestine 24 Asst. Hebrew Univ of Jerusalem Geology Dept 25 33 Lecturer 34-63 Head of Dept 36-37 Assoc. Prof 37 39 Prof 39- now Emer Research in Paris 26 London 29-30 Consultant to Argentine Govt 45 Dir Geol Survey of Israel 50-54 Adviser to Israel Govt 55 Chair Ctee of Experts on Aid Regions UNESCO 54 Adviser to Greek Govt on groundwater 56-57 Chief Geological Cons TAHAL Water Planning Israel 57 Chair Nat Ctee 6th World Petroleum Congress 62 Special Adviser to UN on groundwater exploration in Cyprus 63 Iran 64 and Bol via 65 Dir Groundwater Research Centre Hebrew Univ Jerusalem Cons in Oil Exploration to Finance

Ministry 68 mem Ctee for Neotechnics and Pleistocene Stratigraphy (INQUA Congress Paris) 69 mem Israel Acad of Sciences and Humanities Foreign Correspond Soc Géol France Israel Prize for Natural Sciences 58
Publs numerous works on geology palaeontology hydrogeology petroleum and pure geological research Groundwater Research Centre the Hebrew University Jerusalem Israel

Pincus, Arye Louis, B.A. LL.B. Israeli lawyer b 21 May 1912 ed Witwatersrand Univ Johannesburg Practising lawyer in S Africa 34 48 founder Habonim Labour Zionist Movement Chair S African Labour Zionist Movement 39 48 Vice Chair S African Zionist Fed 40 48 settled in Israel 48 Managing Dir El Al Israel Airlines 49 57 practising lawyer 57 mem Exec and Treas Jewish Agency 61 65 Chair 65 Chair Board of Govts Tel Aviv Univ 62 mem. Central Ctee Mapai Histadrut mem Exec Poalei Zion Union Union Derech Ganim Kfar Shmaryahu Israel

Pirasteh, Said Mohdi, Ph.D. Iranian lawyer and politician b 1919 ed Teheran Univ
Successively clerk Ministry of Justice Public Prosecutor Rep of Public Prosecutor at Judicial Court Asst to Public Prosecutor of Supreme Court Parl Deputy Under Sec Ministry of Interior Gov Gen of Fars and Southern Ports Gov Gen of Khuzistan Minister of Interior 63 64 Amb to Iraq 64 67 to Belgium 68
Imperial Iranian Embassy Brussels Belgium.

Pirenne, Jacques, Comte LL.D. Ph.D. Belgian historian b 26 June 1891 ed Ghent Univ
Tutor to Prince Leopold (later King Leopold III) 20 24 Chargé de Cours Univ of Brussels 21 Prof 24 Sec Oriental Inst 30- scientific mem Oriental Inst of Prague 33 Michon Prof Coll. de France 35 awarded Quinquennial Prize for Historical Sciences for work 30 35 Lecturer Univ of Cairo 39 Prof Univ of Grenoble 40 Univ of Geneva 41 44 Head King Leopold's Secretariat with title Secretary to the King Aug 45 Editor *Archives d'Histoire du Droit Oriental* 35 mem Académie Royale de Belgique 45 Acad Septentrional (Paris) 59 Grand Croix Ordre de la Couronne Grand Officier Ordre de Léopold Officier Légion d'Honneur

Publs Histoire des Institutions et du Droit Privé de l'Ancienne Egypte (3 vols) 32 33 La civilisation sumérienne 44 La civilisation babylonienne 45 Les Grands Courants de l'Histoire Universelle (7 vols) 44 56 (German Italian Spanish Portuguese English) La Belgique devant le nouvel équilibre du monde 45 Civilisations Antiques 50 Histoire de la Civilisation de l'Egypte Ancienne (3 vols) 61 63 (Italian Spanish) Histoire de l'Europe de 1500 à 1955 (3 vols) 60 62 La Religion et la Morale dans l'Egypte Antiqu 65 La Société hébraïque d'après la bible 65 40 Rue des Echevins Brussels Belgium and Château de Hierges par Auburves Ardennes France

Pissas, Michael, Greek Cypriot trade union leader b 1921 ed Limassol Greek Gymnasium
Founded Cypriot Workers Confederation 44 Gen Sec until 60 mem Ethnarchy Council 48 del to founding Congress of ICTU London 49 mem Gen. Council ICTU 49-53 mem Exec Board 55 57 Consul-Gen Alexandria 61
Publs Books on political and labour subjects and collections of poetry
Consulate of Cyprus Alexandria U.A.R.

Plumer, Mustafa Fazil, LL.B. Cypriot lawyer b 1914 ed Univ of Ankara and Lincoln's Inn London
In private law practice 48 51 Judge 51 59 Minister of Agriculture and Natural Resources 59 Dec 63 (withdrew) Ministry of Agriculture and Natural Resources Nicosia Cyprus

Popal, Ali Ahmad, PH.D.; Afghan educationist; b. 22 Feb. 1916; ed. Nedjat Secondary School, Kabul, and Univ. of Jena. Teacher and Dir., Nedjat School, Kabul 42-46; Dir. of Teachers Training Coll. 46-47; Head of Primary Educ. Dept., Ministry of Educ. 47-49, also Teacher and Dean in Faculty of Women, Kabul Univ. 47-49; Head of Gen. Educ. Dept., Ministry of Educ. 49-51, Deputy Minister of Educ. 52-56, Minister of Educ. 56-64, Second Vice-Premier 62-64; Amb. to German Fed. Repub., also accredited to Sweden and Switzerland 64-66; Amb. to Turkey 66-67; First Deputy Prime Minister 67-69; Minister of Educ. 67; Amb. to Pakistan also accredited. Ceylon and Thailand 69; Order of Maaref, 3rd Class 46, 1st Class 64, Order of Sardarie-Ahlie 58, and orders from U.A.R., Yugoslavia and German Fed. Repub. Publ. *Education in Afghanistan, A Comparison of Education in Europe (Germany) and America, The Republic of Turkey*. Royal Afghan Embassy, 176 F-7-3, Islamabad, Pakistan. Telephone: 22566.

Pourhomayoun, Ali-Asghar, D. en D.; Iranian economist; b. 1912; ed. legal studies in Europe. Assistant Prosecutor and Counsellor, Court of Appeal 37; Prof. of Econ., Law Faculty, Univ. of Teheran 43; Under-Sec. Ministry of Nat. Economy 50-53, Minister of Nat. Economy 53; Pres. Bd. of Dirs., Iran Insurance Co. 53. Pres. and Man. Dir. 53-55; Dir. Inst. for Public Admin., Faculty of Law 56-60; Minister of Commerce 60; Minister without Portfolio 61; Gov. Central Bank of Iran 61-65; Pres. Currency and Credit Council 61-63; mem. High Econ. Council 61-63; Grand Cross of Merit with Star (Germany); Grand Cross Order of Leopold II (Belgium). Publ. *La Banque Nationale de l'Iran et son rôle dans le développement, Principles of Economics, Planning and Business Cycles*. Shahreza Avenue, 21st Azar Street, Prof. Edward Brown Road, No. 10, Teheran, Iran.

Pritchard, James Bennett, A.B., B.D., PH.D., S.T.D., D.D.; American orientalist; b. 4 Oct. 1909; ed. Asbury Coll., Drew Univ., Univ. of Pa. and Philadelphia Divinity School. Professor of Old Testament Literature, Crozer Theological Seminary 42-54; Annual Prof. American School of Oriental Research, Jerusalem 50-51, Archaeological Dir. 51, Visiting Prof. 56-57, 61-62; Prof. Old Testament Literature Church Divinity School of the Pacific 54-62; Prof. Religious Thought Univ. of Pa. and Curator of Biblical Archaeology Univ. Museum 62-; Dir. 67-; Visiting Prof. of Archaeology, American Univ. of Beirut 67; mem. American Oriental Soc., Archaeological Inst. of America, Soc. for Biblical Literature; editor *Journal of the American Oriental Soc.* 52-54. Publ. *Palestinian Figures* 43, *Ancient Near Eastern Texts* 50, *The Ancient Near East in Pictures* 54, *Archaeology and the Old Testament* 58, *Gibeon, Where the Sun Stood Still* 62, etc. University Museum, 33rd and Spruce Streets, Philadelphia 4, Pa., U.S.A.

Q

Qadi, Salim al-; Libyan politician; b. 1909; ed. Koranic School and Episcopal Inst. Misurata. Member Civil Court, Misurata 37; Pres. Commercial Co. Misurata 44; Chair. Nat. Court of Misurata 47; Mayor of Misurata 48; mem. Admin. Council 50; Minister of Agriculture 51-52, of Agriculture and Health 52; mem. Legislative Council 53; Minister of Nat. Economy 54-56, of Communications 56-57; Chair. Chamber of Deputies April 57-60; Minister of Education 60, of Finance Oct. 60-March 65, Oct. 65-67; Pres. Chamber of Deputies March-Oct. 65. Tripoli, Libya.

Qalhud, Abdul Rahman; Libyan politician and religious leader. Minister of Justice until Oct. 64; Grand Mufti of Libya 64-; Office of the Grand Mufti, Tripoli, Libya.

Qavam, Mohammed; Iranian diplomatist; b. 1922; ed. Univ. of Teheran. Formerly with Ministry of Finance; Chef de Cabinet to Prime Minister 47; Ministry of Foreign Affairs 47-; Amb. to Kuwait 63-64, to Ethiopia 64-67, to Yugoslavia 67-68, to Saudi Arabia 69-. Publ. *Evolution of Government Institutions in Iran*. Embassy of Iran, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia.

Qaysi, Dr. Abdel-Rahman al-; Iraqi educationalist and politician; b. 1926; ed. Teachers' Coll., Baghdad and Columbia Univ. Former Lecturer, Baghdad Univ.; Minister of Culture and Guidance 65; Minister of Educ. 67-68. c/o Ministry of Education, Baghdad, Iraq.

Quddus, Ihsan Abdal (son of the late Rose al-Yussuf, famous actress and writer); United Arab Republic (Egyptian) writer; b. 1 Jan. 1919; ed. Univ. of Cairo. Practised in law 42; joined magazine *Rose al-Yussuf* 42, imprisoned for attack on govt. 45, released and became Chief Editor, again imprisoned 50, 51; first novel publ. 54; Editor *Akhbar al-Yom* 65-66. Publ. include *I am Free* 54, *Do not Turn out the Sun* (two vols.) 60, *Nothing Matters* 63. c/o Dar Rose al-Yussuf, 89A Sharia Kasr el Aini, Cairo, U.A.R.

Qusus, Jiryis; Jordanian educationalist and writer; b. 1913; ed. American Univ. of Beirut. Teacher in various schools 36-51; Headmaster of Es-Salt Govt. Secondary School 51-53; Insp. of English, Ministry of Educ. 53-57; Asst. Under-Sec. and Senior Chief Insp. Ministry of Educ. 57-61; Asst. Under-Sec. Ministry of Communications 61; Ambassador in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Head of the Research and Studies Dept. 62, Consular Dept. 63-65, Under-Sec. 65, Ambassador and Head of Research Dept. 66-; Order of Istiklal. Publ. *Selected Poems* 53, *Selected English Prose* 56, *Applied Translation* (3 vols.) (co-author) 57, *Selected Verses* 58, *Fables from the Middle East* 60, *Education and Art* (co-translator), *The Genius of Shakespeare* (Arabic) 60. Ministry for Foreign Affairs, Amman, Jordan.

R

Rabin, Lt.-Gen. (Res.) Yitzhak; Israeli army officer; b. 1922; ed. Agricultural School, Kfar Tabor, and Staff Coll., England.

Palmach commands 43-48, including War of Independence; represented Israel Defence Forces (I.D.F.) at Rhodes armistice negotiations; Imr. Head of Training Dept. I.D.F.; C.-in-C. Northern Command 56-59; Head, Manpower Branch 59-60; Deputy Chief of Staff and Head, Gen. Staff Branch 60-64, Chief of Staff I.D.F. 64-68; Amb. to U.S.A. 68-; Hon. Doctorates, Univ. Jerusalem 67, Dropsie Coll. 68, Brandeis Univ. 68, Yeshiva Univ. 68, Coll. of Jewish Studies, Chicago 69, Univ. of Miami 70, Hebrew Union Coll., Boston 71. Embassy of Israel, Washington, D.C., U.S.A.

Rachmilewitz, Moshe, M.D.; Israeli physician; b. Russia 2 Sept. 1899; ed. Univs. of Königsberg and Berlin. Post-graduate studies as E. Libman Fellow, New York, Hamburg, Vienna, Amsterdam and Paris 27-31; came to Palestine 31; research in hæmatology and cardiology; Head Dept. Rothschild Hadassah Univ. Hospital "B", Jerusalem; Prof. School of Medicine, Hebrew Univ. 11 Ussishkin Street, Jerusalem, Israel.

WHOS WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Radwan Abbas, United Arab Republic (Egyptian) politician
Minister of the Interior in Exec Council Egyptian Region
59 Minister of State U.A.R. 62 Minister of Local Govt 63
Dep. Prime Minister for Local Admin. Services 64 65
mem. Supreme Exec. Cttee Arab Socialist Union 65-67
sentenced to heavy labour for attempting to overthrow
Pres. Nasser's regime in 1967 68
c/o Arab Socialist Union Cairo United Arab Republic

Rafael, Gideon, Israeli diplomatist b Germany 5
March 1913 ed Univ of Berlin
Immigrated 34 mem Kibbutz 34 43 active in Haganah
and war services 39 42 Jewish Agency, Political Dept 43
in charge of preparation of Jewish case for Jewish Agency
Political Dept Nuremberg War Crimes Trial 45 46 mem
of Jewish Agency Comm. to Anglo-American Comm. of
Enquiry 46 and of Jewish Agency mission to UN Special
Comm. for Palestine 47 mem Israel Permanent Del to
UN 51 52 alternate rep to UN 53 rep at UN Gen
Assemblies 47 66 Counsellor in charge of Middle East and
UN Affairs Ministry for Foreign Affairs 53 57 Ambassador
to Belgium and Luxembourg 57 60 to the European
Econ. Community 59 Dep. Dir. Gen. Ministry of Foreign
Affairs 60 Head of Israel Del. Int. Conf. Law of the Sea
Geneva 60 Deputy Dir. Gen. Ministry for Foreign Affairs
60-65 Perm. Rep. to UN Geneva 65-66 Special Ambassa-
dor and Adviser to Foreign Minister May 66-67 Perm.
Rep. of Israel to UN 67 Dir. Gen. Ministry of Foreign
Affairs 67
Ministry of Foreign Affairs Jerusalem and Kiryath
Yovel Jerusalem Israel

Ragab, Major-Gen Hassan F., b.c.c. United Arab
Republic (Egyptian) army officer and diplomatist b 1911
ed Cairo Univ Ecole Supérieure d'Electricité Paris and
Egyptian Staff Coll Cairo
Electrical Engineer Ramleh Electric Railway Alexandria
35 39 joined Egyptian Army 39 Gen Staff Coll Cairo 43
Dir. Topographic Service G.H.Q. Egyptian Army 44
Military Attaché Washington 45 Del. to U.S. Govt
A Bomb Tests Bikini 46 Deputy Dir. Intelligence Dept
G.H.Q. Egyptian Army 47 Dir. Research and Develop-
ment 47 52 Under Sec. of State for Armament Factories
Ministry of War 52 Head, Military Mission to Turkey 53
Economic Mission to U.S.S.R. 54 Ambassador to China
56-59 to Italy 59-61 to Yugoslavia 61 Mar 62 Ministry of
Foreign Affairs Cairo 62 Chair of Board U.A.R. Tourist
Foundation several decorations
Pubs. *Diesel Engines* 38 *Ragab Sun Compass* 44 *Electri-
fication of Helwan Line* 45 *Establishment of National
Planning Board and Five Year Plan for Egypt* 55
1 Soliman Fasha Street Cairo U.A.R.

Rahal Abdul Latif, Algerian diplomatist b 1923
Ambassador to France 63 then posts in Ministry of
Foreign Affairs Sec. Gen. Ministry of Foreign Affairs
until 70 Perm. Rep. to UN 70
Permanent Mission of Algeria at United Nations 750
Thud Avenue 14th Floor New York NY 10017 USA

Rahi, Michel, L.D. United Arab Republic international
civil servant b 22 Nov 1912 ed Jesuit Coll Cairo Cairo
Univ Univ de Paris la Sorbonne and Inst. des Hautes
Etudes Internationales Paris
On admin. staff Egyptian Postal Admin. 34 50 First Sec.
Int. Bureau Universal Postal Union (UPU) 50-56 Counsel-
or Int. Bureau UPU 56 64 Asst. Dir. Gen. Int. Bureau
UPU 64 66 Dir.-Gen. 66
Gantschstrasse 43 3000 Berne Switzerland

Rais, Mohsen, Iranian diplomatist b 1896 ed Iran and
Univ of Geneva
Chargé d'Affaires Paris 31 Dir. Dept. of L.N. and
Treaties Teheran, Minister to Germany and Netherlands 35 38
Political Dir.-Gen., Ministry for Foreign Affairs and

Acting Minister of Foreign Affairs 38 Minister to Balkan
countries 39 to French Govt. Vichy 41 Minister of Posts
Telegraphs and Telephones 42 Minister to Iraq 43 47
Ambassador to Great Britain 47 50 Minister of Foreign
Affairs 50 Ambassador to France 58 Gov. Gen. of
Azerbaijan 58-60 Ambassador to Netherlands 60-61 to
Great Britain 61 to France 62 63 Gov. of Teheran 64
Senator 64
The Senate Teheran Iran

Rajeb, Mousa Hussein Abu Al, b.A. Jordanian politician
b 1931 ed Lincoln Univ. USA
Member House of Reps 61 62 63 64 66 67 Minister for
Municipal and Rural Affairs 68 69
Ministry for Municipal and Rural Affairs Amman Jordan.

Ramzi, Ahmed, United Arab Republic (Egyptian) diplo-
matist b 1900 ed School of Law Cairo Univ of
Lausanne and Swiss Fed. Inst. of Technology (Mil. Section)
Zurich
Consul Jerusalem 35 Trieste 37 Consul Gen. Paris and
Beirut 39 Chargé d'Affaires Syria and Lebanon 39 44
Dir. Tourist Dept 46 Dir. Commercial Legislation and
Industrial Property Ministry of Commerce and Industry
47 later Dir. Gen. Int. Economic Affairs, Ministry of
Finance Del. to Islamic Conf. of World Economy Teheran
51 Del. to UN Gen. Assembly 51 52 Ambassador to
Italy 52 53 Ambassador to Turkey 53 Ambassador to
Belgium and Minister to Luxembourg 55 57 Rep. of
Egyptian Foreign Ministry to the Arab League 57
Pubs. *Northern Africa* 48 *Fezan* 49 *Palestine* 50
Echoes of the Past 52 *Wars in History* 53 (all in Arabic)
c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs Cairo U.A.R.

Rannat, Mohamed Ahmed Abu, Sudanese judge b 1905
ed Gordon Coll., Khartoum and School of Law Khartoum
Translator 25 33 Clerk 33 36 went to School of Law 36 38
District Judge (2nd Grade) 38 44 District Judge (1st
Grade) and Dep. Asst. Legal Sec. and Inspector of Native
Courts 44 49 Studied in England 49 50 Judge of High
Court attached to Court of Appeal 50-55 Chief Justice of
Sudan 55 64 mem UN Sub-Comm. on Prevention of
Discrimination and Protection of Minorities 64 mem
Constitutional Comm. for South Arabia May 1965
United Nations Sub-Commission on Prevention of Dis-
crimination Geneva Switzerland

Raphael, Yitzhak, M.A. PhD Israeli politician b
5 July 1914 ed Hebrew Univ
Settled in Palestine 35 mem Exec Jewish Agency and
Head Emigration Dept 48 54 mem of 2nd 3rd 4th
5th 6th and 7th Knesset Chair Exec Hapoel Hamizrachi
(Nat. Religious Party) mem World Exec Nat. Religious
Party Mizrahi Chair Legislative Cttee Knesset Chair
Mossad Harav Kook (Publishers) Deputy Minister of
Health 62 Chair Yad Harav Maamon Judaic Studies
Centre
Pubs. *Sefer Hachasidim* *Hachasidim v. achronim* *Hachasidim
v. Eretz Israel* Ed *Encyclopaedia of Religious Zionism* 59
60
P.O.B. 672 Jerusalem Israel

Rashid, Rashid A. Al, M.A. Kuwaiti civil servant and
diplomatist b 23 Dec 1934 ed Claremont Men's Coll.,
California USA and Claremont Graduate School
Assistant Technical Dir. Public Works Dept. Kuwait
59 61 Asst. Sec. for Kuwait Govt Secretariat 61 Dir.
of Political Dept. Ministry of Foreign Affairs Kuwait until
63 Perm. Rep. of Kuwait to UN Sept 63 67 Under Sec.
Ministry of Foreign Affairs Kuwait March 67
Ministry of Foreign Affairs Kuwait

Ratner, Yochanan, Israeli architect b 14 July 1891 ed
Institute of Technology Karlsruhe
Lived in Palestine 23 mem. of the teaching staff Israel

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Inst. of Technology, Haifa 26-61, Prof. and Dean of the Faculty of Architecture 39-61; during Second World War attached to G.H.Q. Middle East; Brig.-Gen. in Israeli Army; Military Attaché, U.S.S.R. 48-49. Works include Jewish Nat. Insts. Jerusalem 28-34, Eden Hotel, Jerusalem 39, Faculty of Aeronautical Engineering, Haifa 54, Insts. of Social Studies at Zofit and Sde-Boker, Great Synagogue, Beer-Shebah 59, Assembly Hall, Haifa 62, etc.
123 Yefenof Street, Haifa, Israel.

Raya, His Grace Archbishop Joseph Marie; Israeli archbishop; b. 15 Aug. 1917; ed. Lebanon and St. Anne Seminary, Jerusalem. Parish Priest, Zahle, Lebanon 41-45, Paterson, New Jersey 49-51, Birmingham, Alabama 51-68; Archbishop of St. Jean d'Acre, Haifa, Nazareth and all Galilee 68-. Greek Catholic Archbishopric, P.O. Box 279, Haifa, Israel.

Razzaz, Ahmed Munif, M.B., B.Ch.; Jordanian physician and politician; b. 1919; ed. Amman Secondary School, American Univ. of Beirut and Cairo.

Teacher 39-41; mem. Baath Party 49-, Jordan Regional Leadership 56-66, Sec. 60-66, Sec.-Gen. Baath Party 65-66; exiled to Syria 52-53; imprisoned 57-59, 61, 63-64; arrested Feb. 66; Arab League Prize 63.

Publs. *Features of New Arab Life* (in Arabic) 53, *Evolution of the Meaning of Nationalism* (in Arabic) 60, (English trans.) 63, *Freedom and its Problems in Underdeveloped Countries* 65.

Baath Party, rue Abdul Aziz 66, Damascus, Syria.

Razzok, Brig. Aref Abdel; Iraqi politician; b. 1914; ed. Military Acad.

Entered Air Force 36; became Commdr. Habbaniya base; Minister of Agriculture Nov. 63-Dec. 63; Commdr. of Air Forces Dec. 63-July 65; Prime Minister and Acting Minister of Defence Sept. 65; Abortive *coup d'états* Sept. 65, June 66; imprisoned June 66.

c/o Ministry of Justice, Baghdad, Iraq.

Reiner, Markus, D.TECH.; Israeli university professor; b. 5 Jan. 1886; ed. Technische Hochschule, Vienna.

Engineer, Austrian State Railways 11-18, Romanian State Railways 18-22; Civil and Structural Engineer, Govt. of Palestine 22-45; Research Prof., Lafayette Coll., Easton, Pa., U.S.A. 31-33; Scientific Adviser, Standards Inst. of Palestine 45-47; Head of Rheological Laboratory, Technion, Haifa 48-60; Prof. of Mechanics, Technion, Haifa 48-60; Research Prof., Israel Inst. of Technology 60-; mem. Israel Acad. of Sciences and Humanities; Hon. mem. Groupe Français de Rhéologie; Weizmann Prize for Township of Tel-Aviv 56; Israel Prize, Govt. of Israel 58; Rothschild Prize 63; Gold Medal, British Soc. of Rheology 66.

Publs. *Lectures on Theoretical Rheology* 60, *Deformation Strain and Flow* 60, *Advanced Rheology* 71.

Technion City, Haifa, Israel.

Remez, Brig.-Gen. Aharon; Israeli air force officer and diplomatist; b. 8 May 1919; ed. Herzliyah Grammar School, Tel-Aviv, Harvard School of Business Administration, U.S.A., and Woodrow Wilson School of Public and International Affairs, Princeton, U.S.A.

Agricultural training in Kibbutz, Givat Haim 37-39; Emissary to Zionist Youth Movement, U.S.A. 39-41; Royal Air Force 42-47; mem. Kibbutz Kfar Blum 47-; Dir. of Planning and Operations, later Chief of Staff, Israel Air Force 48; Commdr.-in-Chief Israel Air Force 48-51; Head, Ministry of Defence Purchasing Mission, U.S.A. 51-53; Aviation Adviser to Minister of Defence 53-54; mem. Board of Dirs. Solel Boneh Ltd., Exec. Dir. Koor Industries Ltd. 54-59; mem. Knesset 56-57; Admin. Dir. Weizmann Inst. of Science, Rehovot 59-60; Dir. Int. Co-operation Dept., Ministry for Foreign Affairs 60-64, Adviser on Int. Co-operation to Minister for Foreign

Affairs 64-65; Consultant to OECD 64-65; Chair. Nat. Aviation Council 63-65; Amb. to U.K. 65-70.

Embassy of Israel, 2 Palace Green, London, W.8, England.

Rennie, Sir John Shaw, G.C.M.G., O.B.E.; British UN official; b. 12 Jan. 1917; ed. Glasgow Univ., Balliol Coll., Oxford.

Assistant District Officer, Tanganyika 40-49; District Officer 49-51; Deputy Colonial Sec., Mauritius 51-55; British Resident Commr., New Hebrides 55-62; Gov. and C.-in-C. of Mauritius 62-68, Gov.-Gen. and C.-in-C. 68; Deputy Commr.-Gen. UNRWA 68-71; Commr.-Gen. UNRWA 71-.

UNRWA Headquarters, Museitbeh Quarter, Beirut, Lebanon.

Riad, Mahmoud; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) diplomatist; b. 8 Jan. 1917; ed. Military Acad. and General Staff Coll.

Egyptian Rep. to Mixed Armistice Comm. 49-52; Dir. Dept. of Arab Affairs, Ministry of Foreign Affairs 54-55; Ambassador to Syria 55-58; President's Counsellor on Foreign Affairs 58-62; Chair. Del. to UN Econ. Comm. of Africa 61; Ambassador and Perm. Rep. to UN 62-64; Minister of Foreign Affairs 64-; Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Foreign Affairs Nov. 70-.

Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Cairo, United Arab Republic.

Riahi, Lt.-Gen. Esmail; Iranian army officer and politician; ed. Imperial Iranian Staff Coll.

Instructor, Imperial Army Staff Coll., fmr. Corps Commdr. Fars Province, mem. Supreme Commdr.'s Staff, fmr. Deputy Chief of Staff for Operations Supreme Commdr.'s Staff; Minister of Agriculture March 63-67; Amb. to Netherlands 67-; several decorations.

Publ. several papers on military subjects.

Imperial Iranian Embassy, Rust en Vreugdlaan, 5 Wassenaar, Netherlands; and 103 Rudzor Street, Takht-i-Jamshid Avenue, Teheran, Iran.

Riazi, Eng. Abdollah; Iranian politician; b. 1906; ed. Univ. de Paris à la Sorbonne.

Assistant Dean, Technical Coll. 36-45, Dean 56-; Pres. of Majlis 64-.

The Majlis, Teheran, Iran.

Richmond, Sir John Christopher Blake, K.C.M.G.; British diplomatist; b. 7 Sept. 1909; ed. Lancing Coll., Hertford Coll., Oxford, and Univ. Coll., London.

On archaeological expeditions, Beisan, Jericho, Tel El Duweir, Ithaca 31-36; H.M. Office of Works 37-39; served in Middle East in Second World War 39-46; Dept. of Antiquities, Palestine Govt. 46-47; British Foreign Service, Oriental Sec., Baghdad 47-51; Foreign Office 51-53; Counsellor, Amman 53-55; Consul-Gen. Houston, Texas 55-58; British Property Comm. Cairo 59; Political Agent, Kuwait Oct. 59-61, British Ambassador 61-63; Supernumerary Fellow, St. Antony's Coll., Oxford 63-64; Ambassador to Sudan 65-66; Lecturer in Modern Near East History, Durham Univ. 66-.

20 The Avenue, Durham City, Durham, England.

Rifaat, Kameleddin; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) politician.

Minister of Labour, U.A.R. 61-62; mem. Presidency Council 62-64; Deputy Prime Minister for Scientific Affairs 64-65; mem. Supreme Exec. Arab Socialist Union 65-; Minister of Labour 67-.

Ministry of Labour, Cairo, U.A.R.

Rifa'i, Abdul Munem; Jordanian diplomatist; b. 1917; ed. American Univ. of Beirut.

In Service of King Abdullah 38; Chief Sec. of Govt. 40; Asst. Chief of Royal Court 41-42; Consul-Gen. in Cairo, Lebanon and Syria 43-44; Del. to Treaty Conf. with Great Britain 46; Under-Sec. of Foreign Affairs 47; Minister to

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Iran and Pakistan 49 Amb to United States and Peru
Rep to UN 53 57 to Lebanon 57 to Great Britain 58
Chief of Nat Guidance 59 Perm Rep to UN 59-66 Amb
to U.A.R. 66 67 68 Minister of Foreign Affairs 68 Prime
Minister March 69 Aug 69 Vice-Prime Minister Minister
of Foreign Affairs and Senator 69-70 Prime Minister June
70 numerous decorations
Office of the Prime Minister Amman Jordan

Rifa'i, Abdul Wahab, B.A. Lebanese businessman b
1909 ed American Univ of Beirut
Teacher Tripoli Tarbia Coll 32 33 American Univ of
Beirut 34 42 Chief of O.C.P Centre Tyre Lebanon 42 43
Sales Man 43 50 Man Middle East Airlines Beirut 50 51
Dir Gen. Chamber of Commerce and Industry Beirut 51
Chamber of Commerce and Industry of Beirut P.O. 3
1301 Allenby Street Beirut Lebanon

Rifa'i, Youssef Hashim Ahmed Al-, Kuwaiti politician
b. 1932 ed Shawwaik Secondary School Kuwait
Director Travel and Residence Dept 61 63 mem Nat
Assembly 63 Sec 63 Minister of Posts Telegraphs and
Telephones 64 Minister of State for Cabinet Affairs Nov
64 also Chair of Municipal Council 66-
POB 420 Kuwait.

Risi Zaid al, M.A. Jordan diplomatist b 27 Nov
1936 Amman ed Victoria Coll Cairo and Harvard and
Columbia Univs
Joined diplomatic service 57 served at embassies in Cairo
Beirut and London and at the Perm. Mission of Jordan at
U.N. Ch. of Royal Protocol 65 Sec Gen of Royal Court
and Private Sec to H.M. King Hussein 67 Chief of Royal
Court 69 Amb to U.K 70-
Leisure interests music reading bridge water skiing
sailing tennis
Embassy of Jordan 6 Upper Phillimore Gardens London
W 8 England
Telephone 01 937 3683

Rmali Elmelech, H.N.D. Israeli politician b 1 Nov
1907 Poland ed Hebrew High School Cracow Poland
Univ of Vienna and Rabbinical Seminary Vienna
Austria
Emigrated to Palestine from Austria 39 and served as
Head of Schools in Ramat Gan Israel and Dir of Educ
Dept. of Ramat Gan Municipality Mayor of Ramat Gan
33 39 Minister of Posts Israel Govt 69 Founder Union
of Gen. Zionist (now Liberal) Workers mem Knesset
Chair Liberal Party in fifth Knesset Co-Chair Herut
Liberal bloc (Gahal) Knesset 65 68 Past Chair of mem
of numerous Parl. Cttees
Publ. Scientific work in the field of Semitic languages
Ministry of Posts Jerusalem Israel

Rushya Kassim, Afghan writer and diplomatist b
1913 ed Ist qial H gh School Kabul
Clerk in Press Section Ministry of Foreign Affairs 32
Chief Clerk Fore gn Relations Section Ministry of Com
municat ions 32 trans at Afghan Acad of Literature 33
mem 34 Dir Publs Div 36 Vice Pres 38 Editor Kabul
Almanach and Kabul Magazine 36-38 Dir Gen of Publs
Press Dept 40-44 Pres 48 Pres Govt Econ Plann'g
Board 49 Govt Co-operative Org 52 Bakhtar News
Agency 54 Minister of Information 56-60 Afghan Del to
U.N. 60 Amb to Czechoslovakia Poland and Hungary 60 62
to U.A.R. 62 67 Minister of Information 63 Vice Chair
Cttee for Revision of Constitution 63 Minister of Finance
64-65 Rep for Afghanistan at Second Conf for the
Support of the Arab People 68 Del to UN Gen Assembly
69
Publs *Afghanistan in the 19th Century* *Jawami Afghanistan*
short stories translations and several novels
c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs Kabul Afghanistan

Robert, Louis, French archaeologist b 15 Feb 1904 ed
Paris Univ Ecole Normale Supérieure
Member French School Athens 27 32 Dir of Studies
Ecole des Hautes Etudes 32 Prof of Greek Epigraphy
and Antiquities Coll de France 39 dir excavations at
Amyzon 49 and Claros (Temple of Apollo) 50-61 Officier
Légion d'Honneur
Publs *Villes d'Asie Mineure Etudes Anatoliennes Les*
Gladiateurs dans l'Orient Grec Etudes de Numismatique
Grecque Hellénique (13 vols) *Noms Indigènes dans l'Asie*
Mineure La Carie (with his wife Jeanne Robert) *Monnaies*
antiques en Troade Documents d'Asie Mineure méridionale
La déesse de Héraklès Castabala Monnaies
Grecques
31 avenue du Parc Montsouris Paris 14e France

Rosen, Pinhas Felix, Israeli lawyer and politician
b 1 May 1887 ed Univs of Freiburg and Berlin
Called to Bar Germany 14 served in German Army First
World War 14 18 Chair Zionist Fed in Germany 20 23
mem Zionist Exec London 20-31 went to Palestine 31
called to Palestine Bar 32 Municipal Councillor Tel Aviv
35 40 Minister of Justice Govt. of Israel 48 51 and Dec
52 61 mem Knesset (Israeli Parl) 48 68
10 Ramban Street Jerusalem Israel

Rosenne, Shabtai, LL.B. PH.D. Israeli lawyer and diplo
matist b 24 Nov 1917 ed London Univ and Hebrew
Univ of Jerusalem
Advocate (Israel) Political Dept Jewish Agency for
Palestine 46 48 Legal Adviser Ministry of Foreign
Affairs 48-66 Deputy Perm Rep to UN 67 71 Perm.
Rep to UN (Geneva) 71 mem Israeli Del to UN
Gen Assemblies 48 57 62 64 69 Vice Chair Legal
Cttee Gen Assembly 60 mem Israeli Del to Armistice
Negotiations with Egypt Jordan Lebanon and Syria 49
Vice Chair Israel Del to UN Conf on Law of the Sea 58
60 Chair Israel Del to UN Conf on Law of Treaties 68
69 mem other UN confs Govt Rep in Advisory Pro
ceedings before Int Court of Justice in Reservations to
Convention on Genocide case 51 mem Int Law Comm 62
UN Comm on Human Rights 68 70 Assoc. Inst. of Int
Law 63 Rapporteur Termination and Modification of
Treaties 65 Israel Prize 60 Certificate of Merit American
Soc of Int Law 68
Publs *International Court of Justice 57 The Time Factor*
in Jurisdiction of the International Court of Justice 60 The
World Court What it is and how it Works 61 The Law and
Practice of the International Court (2 vols) 65 The Law and
Treaties Guide to the Vienna Convention 70 and numerous
articles mainly on law
Israel Miss on to the United Nations Palais de Nations
CH 1211 Geneva Switzerland

Rossides, Zenon, Cypriot diplomatist b 8 Feb 1895
ed Limassol Coll and Middle Temple London
Called to Bar 23 law practice in Cyprus 25 54 mem. Nat
Del to London 29 31 mem Ethnarchy Council 46 48 and
58 59 mem Exec 50 59 Greek Cypriot Rep on Joint
Cttee in London leading to Independence of Cyprus
59 60 Ambassador to U.S.A. and Perm Rep of Cyprus
to UN 60- Vice Pres UN Gen Assembly 61 62 63 64
Chair UN Cttee on Portuguese Colonies 62
Publs *The Island of Cyprus and Union with Greece 51 The*
Problem of Cyprus 58
Embassy of Cyprus 2211 R Street NW Washington
D.C. and 165 East 72nd New York City 21 NY U.S.A.

Rouhani, Foad, LL.M. Iranian lawyer and executive
b 23 Oct 1907 ed Teheran and London Univ
Anglo Iranian Oil Co Legal and Administrative Branches
26 51 Chief Legal Adviser Nat Iranian Oil Co 51 54
Dir 54 Deputy Chair 56 Sec Gen and Chair Board of
Govs Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries

(OPEC) 61-64; Adviser to the Prime Minister 64-; Sec.-Gen. Regional Co-operation for Devt. 64-68. National Iranian Oil Co., Teheran, Iran.

Roussos, Nicolaos S.; Cypriot civil engineer and politician; b. 1906, Lania Village, Limassol District, ed. Greek Gymnasium, Limassol, and Athens Technical Univ. Practised civil engineering in Greece, mainly road construction work 29-33; Municipal Engineer, Limassol 33-47; Senior Partner, N. J. Roussos & J. Pericleous (civil engineers and architects) 38-70; Minister of Communications and Works 70-; Pres. Cyprus Civil Engineers and Architects Asscn. 46-62; Pres. UN Asscn. of Cyprus 70, Limassol Rotary 61-62, Limassol Wine Festival 64, 65. Ministry of Communications and Works, Nicosia, Cyprus.

Royère, Jean André; French diplomatist; b. 2 Jan. 1909; ed. Lycée Janson de Sailly and Univ. of Paris. Vice-Consul, Consul and Consul-Gen. in China and Japan 32-52; Consul-Gen. in Singapore 55, Tunis 58-63; Ambassador to Sudan 63-68; Minister Plen. Consulate-Gen., Casablanca, Morocco 69-; Officier, Légion d'Honneur. c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Quai d'Orsay, Paris, France.

Rubayyi, Salem; Yemeni politician. President of the Repub., Supreme Commr. of the Armed Forces, and Chair. of the Presidential Council Oct. 69-. Presidential Council, Aden, People's Democratic Republic of Yemen.

Rubin, Reubon; Israeli artist; b. 13 Nov. 1893; ed. Ecole des Beaux Arts, Paris, and Acad. Collarossi. Israeli Minister to Rumania 48-50; first one-man exhibition, Anderson Galleries, N.Y. 20; since 20 numerous one-man exhbns. in Jerusalem, Tel-Aviv, Paris, London, New York, Los Angeles, San Francisco, Geneva; exhibited Venice Biennale 48, 50, 52; exhibition at Metropolitan Museum, N.Y. (with six other Israel artists) 53, etc.; works in Museum of Modern Art, N.Y., San Antonio Museum, Texas, Norton Gallery, Palm Beach, Brooklyn Museum, Princeton Univ. Museum, and other U.S. museums, Musée d'Art Moderne, Paris, Manchester (England), Melbourne, Tel-Aviv and Jerusalem Museums and in private collections in Europe and America; décor for Habimah and Ohel Theatres, Israel; murals for Jerusalem Religious Centre 59, Knesset 66; stained glass windows, President's Residence, Jerusalem; mem. The Hebrew Inst. of Religion, N.Y. 45-; mem. Provisional Council for UNESCO in Israel, Fellow of Int. Inst. of Arts and Letters 58-; Prize of Honour, City of Tel-Aviv 64; commissioned for mural in Jerusalem Parl. 66. Pubs. *Rubin* 58, *Visages d'Israel* 61, *Godseekers* 67, *My Life, My Art* 69, *The Story of King David* 71. 14 Bialik Street, Tel-Aviv; and Caesarea-by-the-Sea, Israel.

Runciman, The Hon. Sir Steven (James Cochran Stevenson), Kt., M.A., F.B.A.; British historian; b. 7 July 1903; ed. Eton Coll. and Trinity Coll., Cambridge. Fellow Trinity Coll., Cambridge 27-38; Lecturer Cambridge Univ. 31-38; Pres. Attache, British Legation, Sofia 40-41; Prof. of Byzantine Studies, Istanbul Univ. 42-45; Rep. of British Council, Greece 45-47; Chair. Anglo-Hellenic League 51-67; Trustee, British Museum 60-67; Pres. British Inst. of Archaeology at Ankara 62-; Fellow British Acad. 57; Hon. Fellow Trinity Coll., Cambridge 65; Hon. Litt.D. (Cambridge, London, Chicago, Durham, St. Andrews, Oxford), Hon. LL.D. (Glasgow), Hon. D.Phil. (Thessalonika), Hon. D.D. (Wabash, U.S.A.). Pubs. *The Emperor Romanus Lecapenus* 29, *The First Bulgarian Empire* 30, *Byzantine Civilisation* 33, *The Medieval Manichee* 47, *History of the Crusades* (3 vols.) 51-54, *The Eastern Schism* 55, *The Sicilian Vespers* 58, *The White Rajahs* 60, *The Fall of Constantinople 1453* 65, *The Great Church in Captivity* 68, *The Last Byzantine Renaissance* 70. Elshieshields, Lockerbie, Dumfriesshire, Scotland.

S

Saad, Ahmed Zaki; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) government official and banker; b. 21 Feb. 1900; ed. Univs. of Cairo and Paris.

Assistant Attorney-Gen. of Egypt 22-29; Egyptian Consul, Genoa 29-31, Hamburg 31-33, Liverpool 33-37, Dublin 33-37; Chargé d'Affaires, Baghdad 37-38; First Sec., London 38; Dir. Dept. for Alien Affairs, Cairo 39-44; Postmaster-Gen. 44; Under-Sec. of State, Ministry of Finance 45-51; Gov. Nat. Bank of Egypt 51-52, 55-57; Exec. Dir. Int. Monetary Fund 46-; Gov. Int. Monetary Fund 46-52, 58-; Gov. Int. Bank for Reconstruction and Devt. 46-52, 55-, Chair. of Board of Govs. 55, 62. Office: 19th and H Streets, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20431; Home: 4201 Cathedral Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20016, U.S.A.; 8 Chemin de Bonnevaux, Geneva, Switzerland.

Saadi, Ali Saleh; Iraqi politician; b. c. 1930. Former Gen. Sec. Baath Party, Iraq; Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Interior Feb.-May 63, Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Guidance May 63-Nov. 63; imprisoned 64; released July 68. Baath Party, Baghdad, Iran.

Saba, Elias, B.Litt.; Lebanese diplomatist; b. 1932, Lebanon; ed. American Univ. of Beirut and Univ. of Oxford. Economic Adviser to Ministry of Finance and Petroleum, Kuwait and Kuwait Fund for Arab Econ. Devt. 61-62; Chair. Dept. of Econs. American Univ. of Beirut 63-67; Assoc. Prof. of Econs., American Univ. of Beirut 67-69. Deputy Prime Minister of the Lebanon, Minister of Finance and Minister of Defence Oct. 70-. Pubs. *Postwar Developments in the Foreign Exchange Systems of Lebanon and Syria* 62. Biarritz Building, Beirut, Lebanon. Telephone: 302885; 312999.

Saba, Hanna, D. en D.; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) jurist and diplomatist; b. 23 July 1909; ed. Coll. of Jesuit Fathers, Cairo, Faculté de Droit, Paris, and Ecole libre des Sciences politiques, Paris. Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Cairo 42, Counsellor 46, Minister 52; Dir. of Treaties Div., UN Sec. 46-50; Juridical Adviser, UNESCO 50-67; Asst. Dir.-Gen. of UNESCO 67-; Grand Officier du Mérite d'Egypte; Officier du Nil. Pubs. *L'Islam et la nationalité* 32, *L'évolution dans la technique des traités, Les droits économiques et sociaux dans le projet de pacte des droits de l'homme, Les ententes et accords régionaux dans la Charte des Nations Unies* (Course at Acad. of Int. Law, The Hague 52), *L'Activité législative des Institutions spécialisées des Nations Unies* (Course at Acad. of Int. Law, The Hague 64). UNESCO, Place de Fontenoy, Paris 7e; Home: 3 boulevard de la Sassaye, Neuilly (Hauts de Seine), France.

Sabah, His Highness Sheikh Jabir al-Ahmed al-Jabir Al-; Kuwaiti politician; b. 1928; ed. Al-mubarakhiyyah School and privately. Governor, Ahmedi and Oil Areas 49-59; Pres. Dept. of Finance and Economy 59; Minister of Finance, Industry and Commerce 63; Prime Minister 65-; appointed Crown Prince 66.

Office of the Prime Minister, Council of Ministers, Kuwait. **Sabah, Sheikh Saad al-Abdullah al-Salem al-;** Kuwaiti politician. Deputy Pres., Police and Public Security Dept. until 61; Minister of the Interior 61-65; Minister of the Interior and Defence Nov. 65-. Ministry of the Interior, Kuwait.

Sabah, Sheikh Sabah al-Ahmed al-Jabir al-; Kuwaiti politician; b. 1929; ed. Mubarakhiyyah National School, Kuwait and privately.

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Member Supreme Cttee 56 61 Head of Dept of Social Affairs and Dept of Printing Press and Publications 61 Minister of Guidance of News 63 Minister of Foreign Affairs 63 acting Minister of Oil 65 67 Minister of Oil Affairs 67
Ministry of Foreign Affairs Kuwait.

Sabah, Sheikh Sabah al-Salim al-, Amir of Kuwait twelfth ruler of the Sabah dynasty b 1913 ed privately Head of Police Dept 38 59 mem Supreme Exec Cttee 55-61 Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Foreign Affairs 61 63 Prime Minister 63-65 succeeded his brother Sheikh Abdullah al Salem al Sabah as Amir of Kuwait Nov 65
56 Palace Amiry Diwan Kuwait

Sabah Sheikh Salem al-Sabah al- (son of Sheikh Sabah al Salem al-Sabah Amir of Kuwait) Kuwaiti diplomatist b 18 June 1937 ed Secondary School Kuwait Gray's Inn, London and Christ Church Oxford
Joined Foreign Service 62 Head of Legal (later Political) Dept Ministry of Foreign Affairs Amb to the U.K. 65 70 to U.S.A. 70- rep of Kuwait to confs in Middle East and Africa including Arab Summit Conf Casablanca Oct 65 Embassy of Kuwait 2940 Tilden Street NW Washington D.C. U.S.A.

Sabbagh Basheer, B.A. Jordanian politician b 1918 ed American Univ at Beirut
Teacher Irbid 43 Headmaster Irbid 44 Salt 46 Acting Islamic Chief Justice and Minister of Social Affairs 61 Minister of Educ and Social Affairs 61 of Educ July 64 65 68-Aug 69 Acting Islamic Chief Justice and Minister of Educ 62-64 Vice-Chair Royal Cttee for Educ Affairs 62 Board of Dirs of Shereah Coll 64 Dir Moslem Educational Coll 47 Al Hawkab Medal (1st and 3rd Grades) Egyptian Repub Medal (4th Grade) Syrian Istiqlal Medal (2nd Grade)
c/o Ministry of Education Amman Jordan

Sabri, Aly, United Arab Republic (Egyptian) politician b 30 Aug 1920, ed Military Acad and Air Force Acad Fought in Palestine War 48, Minister for Presidential Affairs Egypt 57 58 U.A.R. 58 62 Pres Exec Council 64-66 Prime Minister 64-65 Vice Pres of Repub Oct 65 67 Sec Gen Arab Socialist Union Oct 65 67 68 Sept 69 Deputy Prime Minister 67 and Minister of Local Govt 67 Oct 67 Resident Minister for Suez Canal Zone Oct 67-68 Vice-Pres of Repub Oct 70-May 71 on trial for treason Aug 71
Cairo United Arab Republic.

Sadeghi, Reza, Iranian agriculturalist ed Karaj Agricultural Faculty near Teheran and Syracuse Univ U.S.A.

Iranian Ministry of Agriculture 39 served as Technical Under Sec. to Dept. of Forestry Head of harkheh Devt Org of the Plan Org Head of Agriculture Div of Plan Org Dir of Rural Devt Under Sec for Research and Planning to Ministry of Agriculture Deputy Chief of Central Bureau of Planning Under Sec for Technical Affairs to Minister of Agriculture now Pres Agricultural Bank of Iran.
Bank Keshavarzi Iran (Agricultural Bank of Iran) Teheran, Iran

Sadaka, Nagib, B.A. L. Es L. D. en D. Lebanese diplomatist b 1915 ed American Univ of Beirut French Faculty of Law Beirut and the Sorbonne
Lecturer Inst. of Political Science French Faculty of Law Beirut 46 Head of Western Political Section, Ministry of Foreign Affairs 47 Head of U.N. Service 49 Counsellor Paris 52 Dir-Gen Ministry of Educ 52 55 Amb to Switzerland and U.A.R. 58-60 Amb to Belgium and Perm. Rep. to EEC 60-66 Sec Gen Ministry of Foreign Affairs 66-

Publs *Paternal power in Moslem law* (in Arabic) 39 *La question syrienne pendant la guerre de 1914 1918* 40 *The Palestinian Question* (in Arabic) 46
c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs Beirut Lebanon

Sadat, Col Anwar es-, United Arab Republic (Egyptian) officer and politician b 1918 ed Military Coll Commissioned 33 fmr Gen Sec Islamic Congress one of Free Officers who overthrew monarchy 52 Editor *Al Jumhuriya* and *Al Tahrir* 55 56 Pres Egyptian Nat Union 57 61 Pres Afro Asian Conf Cairo 58 Speaker U.A.R. Nat Assembly 61 Jan 69 mem Presidency Council 62 64 Vice Pres of U.A.R. 64 67 69 70 interim Pres Sept Oct 70 Pres Oct 70
The Presidency Cairo U.A.R.

Sadighi, Ghulam Hussain, PH.D. Iranian philosopher and sociologist b 1905 ed French schools and the Sorbonne Lecturer in Sociology and Philosophy Univ of Teheran 38 43 Prof 43 Sec Gen Univ of Teheran 44 Minister of Posts and Telegraphs Dec 51 June 52 Minister of the Interior July 52
Publ *Les Mouvements religieux iraniens au IIe et au IIIe siècles de l'Hégire* 38
c/o University of Teheran Teheran Iran

Sadiq, Issa, PH.D. Iranian educationist b 1894 ed Univs. of Paris Cambridge (England) and Columbia (N.Y.)

Directed various depts Ministry of Education 19 30 mem Nat Constituent Assembly 25 49 67 Pres and Prof Nat Teachers Coll Dean of Faculties of Arts and Science Teheran Univ 32 41 Chancellor of Univ 41 Minister of Education 41 43 45 47 and 60 61 Senator for Teheran 49 52 54 60 63 67 Vice Pres Iranian Acad 37 mem Board of Govts Nat Bank of Iran 37 52 Prof of History of Educ Univ of Teheran 32 Pres Persia America Relations Soc 49 53 mem Royal Cultural Council 62 Founder mem Nat Soc. for Physical Educ 33 54 Founder mem Soc. for Preservation of Nat Monuments 44 Founder mem of Nat Soc for Protection of Children 53 mem High Educational Council 34 41 51 58
Publs *Principles of Education New Methods in Education History of Education Modern Persia and her Educational System* (in English) *A Year in America The March of Education in Iran and the West A Brief Course in the History of Education in Iran History of Education in Persia from the Earliest Times to the Present Day History of Education in Europe Memoirs* etc.
316 Avenue Hedayat Valiabad Teheran and The University Avenue Shah Reza Teheran Iran

Sadr Javad, PH.D. Iranian diplomatist and politician b 1917 ed Univ of Paris à la Sorbonne
Ministry of Interior 39 Ministry of Foreign Affairs 41, fmr mem. Information and Legal Affairs Div Ministry of Foreign Affairs later First Sec and Consul Palestine fmr Chief of Secr to Prime Minister fmr Minister in Yugoslavia fmr Deputy Minister of Interior and of Foreign Affairs fmr Ambassador to Japan Minister of Interior 64 66 Minister of Justice 66-68 Foreign Office Adviser 68 Grand Officer Homayoun Officer Tadj Order Order of Merit for Justice 8 foreign decorations
Ministry of Foreign Affairs Teheran Zafarani K. Sadr 10 Tadjirsh Iran

Safieddine, Mohammed Hussein, Lebanese politician b 1911 Tyre ed Arab Univ of Law Damascus
Barrister 42 Judge 42 47 Deputy for Tyre 47 53 60 64 Min ster of Information 51 52 Min ster of Educ Sept Oct 58 Minister of Agriculture 60-61 Minister of Educ Work and Social Affairs May Oct 61 mem of Parl Comm on the Admin of Justice Minister of Planning 68 69
Ras El Nab'e Imm Chaar Beirut Lebanon

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Sagar, Abdul Aziz Al-Hamad Al; Kuwaiti businessman and politician; b. 1913; ed. Secondary School, Bombay. Member Municipality Board 52-55, Devel. Board 52-55; Chair. Kuwait Chamber of Commerce 59-, Nat. Bank of Kuwait 59-65; Joint Council 61-62; Chair. Kuwait Oil Tanker Co. 61-64, 65-; mem. Constituent Assembly 63-, Speaker 63-65; Minister of Health 63; Chair. Red Crescent Soc. 66-.
P.O. Box 244, Kuwait City, Kuwait.

Sahnoun, Hadj Mohamed, M.A.; Algerian diplomatist; b. 8 April 1931; ed. Lycée of Constantine, Univ. de Paris à la Sorbonne and New York Univ. Director of African, Asian and Latin American Affairs Ministry of Foreign Affairs 62-63, of Political Affairs 64; Del. to UN Gen. Assembly 62-63, 64-65; Asst. Sec.-Gen. Org. of African Unity (OAU) 64-.
Publ. *Economic and Social Aspects of the Algerian Revolution* 62.
OAU, P.O. Box 3243, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

Said, Mostafa Tewfik El-, LL.B., LL.D., United Arab Republic (Egyptian) lawyer and professor; b. 1908; ed. Mansourah Secondary School and Cairo Univ. Public Prosecutor 29-38; Lecturer and Asst. Prof. of Criminal Law, Cairo Univ. 38-42; Prof. of Criminal Law, Alexandria Univ. 42; Dean of Faculty of Law, Alexandria Univ. 46; Attorney-Gen., Alexandria Court of Appeal 49, Prof. of Criminal Law, Cairo Univ. 50; Dean of Faculty of Law, Cairo Univ. 52; Rector of Alexandria Univ. 54-58; Rector of Cairo Univ. 58-61; Chair. of Supreme Council of the Univs.; Ambassador to Portugal 62-64, to Somalia 64-68. Publs. *On the Scope and Exercise of Marital Rights* 36, *The Egyptian Penal Code Annotated*, 3rd edition 37, *Crimes of Forgery Under the Egyptian Law*, 4th edition 53, *Principles of Criminal Law*, 3rd edition 47, *The Expansion of Higher Education in the United Arab Republic* 60.
c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Cairo, United Arab Republic.

Said, Qabas bin; Sultan of Oman; b. 1942; ed. by British tutors and at Royal Military Coll., Sandhurst. In Britain 58-66; served in British Army and studied local government; returned to Salalah 66; deposed his father Said bin Taimur (q.v.) 70; Sultan July 70-.
Salalah Palace, Dhofar, Oman.

Saif al-Islam, Abdullah ben Hassan; Yemeni politician. Minister of the Interior April 67-69; mem. Mil. Council 67; Prime Minister *ad interim* June 68; in exile 68-.

Saif al-Islam, al-Hassan ben Yahya, H.H.; Yemeni politician. Crown Prince of the Yemen 62-; Prime Minister 62-67; Head of Mil. Council 67; in exile 68-.

Saif al-Islam, Mohamed al-Badr, H.R.H.; Prince of the Yemen; b. 1927; ed. Coll. for Higher Education, Sana'a. Son of King of the Yemen; Minister for Foreign Affairs 55-61, and Minister of Defence and C.-in-C. 55-62; succeeded to Imamate on the death of his father, Imam Ahmed Sept. 62; left Taiz following Republican *coup d'état* Sept. 62, leading Royalist resistance 62-68; replaced by Imamate Council May 68; in exile 68-.

Saif al-Islam, Mohammed ben Hussein; Yemeni politician; b. 1938. Former diplomatic rep. to Fed. Germany; Vice-Pres. Imamate Council 67-May 68, Pres. of Council May 68; Commdr. of Royalist Armed Forces 67-68; in exile 68-.

Salah, Abdullah A.; Jordanian diplomatist; b. 31 Dec. 1922; ed. Bishop Gobat's School, Jerusalem, and American Univ. of Beirut. Field Educ. Officer, United Nations Relief and Works Agency (UNRWA), Jordan 52-62; Ambassador to Kuwait

62-63, to India 63-64, to France 64-66, 67-; Minister of Foreign Affairs 66-67; Amb. to France 68-; several decorations. Royal Jordan Embassy, boulevard Maillot 24, Neuilly sur Seine, France.

Salam, Saeb; Lebanese air line executive and politician; b. 1905; ed. American Univ. of Beirut. Elected Provisional Head Lebanese Govt. 43; deputy 43-47, 51; Minister of Interior 46, 60-61; Minister Foreign Affairs 46; Prime Minister 52, 53, 60-61; concurrently Minister of Defence 61; pioneer Lebanese civil aviation 45; Pres. Middle East Airlines Co., Beirut 45-56; Pres. Nat. Fats & Oil Co. Ltd., Beirut. National Fats & Oil Co. Ltd., Beirut, Lebanon.

Salih, Jehanshah, M.D., F.I.C.S., F.R.C.O.G.; Iranian surgeon, gynaecologist and politician; b. 1905; ed. Syracuse Univ., N.Y.

Intern, St. Joseph's Hospital, Syracuse, N.Y. 33, Orange Memorial Hospital, N.J. 34, Resident Surgeon 35; Prof. of Anatomy, Teheran Univ. Faculty of Medicine 36-41, Prof. of Gynaecology 40-, Dean 47-54; Dir. and Chief of Gynaecological and Obstetrical Service, Vaziri Hospital, Teheran 36-37; Dir. and Chief Surgeon, Women's Hospital, Teheran 37; Minister of Public Health 50, 53, 54, 55, 60-61; Minister of Educ. 61-63; mem. Board of Dirs. and Chief of Public Health Section, Red Lion and Sun (analogous to the Red Cross) 38-; Fellow, Int. Coll. of Surgeons; Pres. Iranian Asscn. of Obstetricians and Gynaecologists, and of Iran-America Medical Society; mem. American Medical Asscn., Iranian Central Council of Sanitation, Central Council for Education; Chancellor Teheran Univ.; WHO adviser in medical education and auxiliary branches 52-; Senator 69-; Hon. LL.D. (Syracuse Univ.), Hon. Sc.D. (Univ. of Bordeaux), Hon. F.R.C.O.G. (England).

Publs. *The Relation of Diet to the Preservation of Teeth* 31, *Morphine Addiction and its Treatment* 32, *Diseases of Women* 41, *Normal and Abnormal Obstetrics* 42, *Recent Advances in Gynaecology* 60, *Text Book of Gynaecology* 64.

Home: 10 Takht-i-Jamshid Avenue, Teheran; Office: University of Teheran, Avenue Shahreza, Teheran, Iran.

Salem, Yussef Ibrahim; Lebanese politician and administrator; b. 1900, Tyre; ed. Beirut and Ecole d'Ingénieurs, Paris.

Ambassador to Egypt 44; del. to UN 45; Minister of the Interior 46; founder and mem. of Board of Dirs. of Union Nationale d'Assurances 47, Al-Ahli Bank 52, Coca-Cola (Lebanon) 52; Administrator of Bank of Syria, Radio Orient, State Tobacco Monopoly, Compagnie Générale du Levant, Société Générale Financière, and Hotel St. Georges, Beirut; Pres. Asscn. des Commerçants de Beyrouth; Minister of Foreign Affairs 68-69; Grand Officer of the Order of the Cedar; Officer of the Legion of Honour; Commdr. of the Order of St. Gregory; Grand Cordon of the Order of the Nile.

Rue Justinien, Imm. Salem, Beirut, Lebanon.
Telephone: 233-338.

Salih, Salih Mohammed; Sudanese cotton executive. Municipal Engineer, Govt. Service 42, Agricultural Engineer 43-45, Chief Surveyor 45-51; Field Insp. Sudan Gezira Board 51-55, Group Insp. 55-56, Asst. Gen. Man. 56-62, Gen. Man. 62-64, Man. Dir. 65-66; Man. Dir. Sudan Agricultural Bank 67-. Sudan Agricultural Bank, P.O. Box 1363, Khartoum, Sudan.

Salim, Khalil, B.A., DIP.ED., ED.D.; Jordanian educator, politician and banker; b. 1921; ed. American Univ. of Beirut, Inst. of Education, London and Columbia Univ. Teacher in Secondary Schools 41-49; Lecturer Teachers Coll. 50; Dir. Cultural Affairs 52; Sec. Jordan Nat. Comm. for UNESCO 50-58; Asst. Under-Sec. of Educ. 55-62;

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Minister of Social Affairs 67 Minister of State Prime Minister's Office 62-63 Chair Authority for Tourism and Antiquities 62-63 Minister of Nat. Economy 62-63 Gov. General Bank of Jordan 63 Chair Board of Jordan Co-operation Union 65-68 mem Jordan Devt Board lecturer and mem Board of Trustees Univ of Jordan mem Jordan Scientific Board Sec Gen Royal Scientific Soc. Deputy Chair Alta Airline 70
 Pubs: *Re-organization of Educational Administration in Jordan* 60 15 textbooks on Mathematics and numerous articles on Mathematics Popular Science Education, Economics and Banking
 Central Bank of Jordan POB 37 Amman Jordan.

Salal Marshall Abdullah, Yemeni army officer and politician b 1917 ed in Iraq
 Returned to Yemen from Iraq 39 imprisoned 39 army service 40-48 55 imprisoned 48 55 Gov of Hodeida 59-61 Chief of Staff to Imam Mohammed 62 Pres of the Revolutionary Council and C. in C. 67 Prime Minister Sept. 62 Feb. 64 Sept. 66-67 concurrently Minister of Foreign Affairs Feb 63 Feb 64
 Cairo United Arab Republic

Salman Fadhl, Iraqi diplomatist b 12 March 1923 ed Law Coll. Baghdad Faculty of Law Univ of Paris
 Lecturer Law Coll. Baghdad Univ 55 56 at Coll of Commerce and Econ 56-59 Dir Arab League Section Foreign Ministry Baghdad 59-60 Dir Gen. United Nations Dept. 60-6 Counsellor Iraqi Embassy Iran 62 Chargé d'Affaires Iraqi Embassy Iran April 62 Feb 64 Minister Penn. Rep to UN Geneva 64 66 Dir Gen. Political Dept 6- Amb to Indonesia 68
 Pubs: *L'Action publique (Arabic)* 56
 Embassy of Iraq Djakarta Indonesia Adamaya Harbat Khosro Baghdad Iraq

Salman, Mohamed, Iraqi politician b. 1908 ed Baghdad Military Acad
 Commissioned 28 sent to England on military course 31 38 in Iraq 38-46 imprisoned by British 45 in Egypt 46-49 Military Advisor to Arab League 49-51 Organizer of Arab League anti Israel Boycott Bureau Damascus 53 Head of Dept of Oil Affairs Arab League 54-60 Minister of Oil, Iraqi Government December 60-63
 Baghdad Iraq

Salman, Pina, Israeli pianist b 1923 ed Ecole Normale de Musique et Conservatoire National de Musique Paris
 Gave first concert in Paris at age of twelve since then has given concerts in five continents travels all over the world every year playing with most of the major orchestras over 300 concerts with Israeli orchestras
 10 Dubrov St. Tel Aviv Israel

Sambensky, Shmuel F.R.D. Israeli physicist b 28 Oct 1900 ed Univ. of Königsberg Berlin and Utrecht.
 S.A.S. Dept. of Physics Hebrew Univ Jerusalem
 Lecturer 31 Assoc. Prof. of Experimental Phys 49-60 Pres and Head of Dept of History and Philosophy of Science 60- Exec. Sec. Palestine Board for Scientific and Industrial Research 45 48 Dir Research Council of Israel 49-55 Vice-Chair 56-59 mem Exec Cttee of Nat Comm for UNESCO Israeli ed UNESCO Gen. Confs 49 50 51 52 54 56 58 62 mem Int. Advisory Cttee on Scientific Research of UNESCO 54 57 Dean Faculty of Science Hebrew Univ 57 59 Visiting Fellow St Catherine's Coll Oxford 64-65 mem Israel Acad of Sciences and Humanities
 Pubs: *The Physical World of the Greeks* 56 *Physics of the Sun* 59 *The Physical World of Late Antiquity* 67
 c/o Hebrew University Jerusalem Israel

Sami Mohammed Mehdi, Iranian banker b 1918 ed Inst. of Chartered Accountants in England and Wales Bank Melb Iran 45 51 National Iranian Oil Co 51 53

Bank Melb Iran 53 59 Industrial and Mining Development Bank of Iran 59-63 Gov Bank Markazi Iran (Central Bank of Iran) 63-68
 c/o Bank Markazi Iran Teheran Iran

Samir, Faisal Al, B.A. M.A. PhD Iraqi teacher and politician b 1922 ed King Faisal II High School Baghdad and Cairo Univ
 Teacher 47 later Lecturer Baghdad Univ Dir Gen of Educ 58 Min of Guidance 59-61 Min. to Indonesia 61-63 Pubs: *Sa'at Al Tarikh* (Voice of History) 47 *Thawra Al-Zinj* (Peasants Revolt in S Iraq) 54 various translations c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs Baghdad Iraq

Samuel 2nd Viscount cr 37 of Mount Carmel and of Toxteth Liverpool **Edwin Herbert Samuel**, C.M.G. British lecturer and author b 1898 ed Westminster School Balliol Coll. Oxford and Columbia Univ Served First World War Palestine Civil Service 20-48 Visiting Prof Dropsie Coll Philadelphia 48 49 Graduate School of Public Affairs Albany New York 63 Univ of Pittsburgh 70 Visiting Lecturer Witwatersrand Univ Johannesburg 53 European Dir *The Conquest of the Desert* Exhibition Jerusalem 51 53 Principal of the Inst of Public Admin in Israel Dir *Jewish Chronicle* London and its subsidiary Vallentine Mitchell (Publishers) Ltd Elern Investment Corp Moller Textile Co Israel Senior Lecturer in British Institutions The Hebrew Univ Jerusalem 54 69 Perm. Adviser to the Israel Red Cross equivalent on public relations and publicity Dir Elern Investment Corp Tel Aviv 64 Moller Textile Corp Nahariya 65
 Pubs: *A Primer on Palestine* 32 *The Jewish Communal Villages of Palestine* 38 *The Theory of Administration* 46 *Problems of Government in the State of Israel* 56 *British Traditions in the Administration of Israel* 57 *The Structure of Society in Israel* 69 *Short Stories A Cottage in Galilee* 57 *A Coat of Many Colours* 60 *My Friend Musa* 63 *The Cucumber King* 65 *His Celestial Highness* 68 *Roots* (with Mordechai Kamrat) 69
 House of Lords London SW 1 England and 15 Rashba Road Jerusalem Israel

Sani, Gen Asadollah, Iranian army officer b 1904 ed Officers Training Coll
 Special Adjutant to Shahanshah Deputy Minister of War 61 62 Minister of War 63 70 Minister of Agricultural Products and Consumer Goods 70- Third Second and First Order of Merit Third Second and First Order of Honour Second and First Order of Homayoon First Order of Service and several other decorations
 Ministry of Agricultural Products and Consumer Goods Teheran Iran

Sanusi, K.P.H. Prince Hassan Rida, Former Crown Prince of Libya b 1934
 Son of H.M. King Idris I became Crown Prince on death of his Great Uncle Ahmed Sherif as Sanusi Dec 30 in exile 69

Sapir, Joseph, Israeli farmer and politician b 27 Jan. 1907 ed Teachers seminary
 Member Exec. Farmers Fed. in Israel 33 Pres Petah Tikva Rural Council 37 40 Mayor of Petah Tikva 40-51 mem Knesset 49 Minister of Transport Govt of Israel 52 55 Chair Exec of Liberal Party 58 Chair of Liberal Party June 68 Minister without Portfolio June 69 69 Minister of Commerce and Industry 69- Hagana Medal Hon M.B.E.
 Pubs: Articles on agricultural municipal economic and political topics
 Liberal Party of Israel 68 Ibn Gvirol Street Tel Aviv Home 23 Pica Street Petah Tikva Israel.
 Telephone 246121 (Office) 911340 (Home)

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Sapir, Pinhas; Israeli politician; b. Lithuania 1909. Emigrated to Palestine 29; employed as agricultural labourer; Asst. Dir. Mekorot (Israel's major water development Co.) 37-47; after establishment of State of Israel, became Dir.-Gen. Ministry of Defence and subsequently Dir.-Gen. of Treasury; Minister of Commerce and Industry 55-63, of Finance, Commerce and Industry 63-65, of Finance 65-68; Sec.-Gen. Israel Labour Party 68-69; Minister of Finance, Commerce and Industry 69-. Ministry of Finance, Commerce and Industry, Hakirxah, Jerusalem, Israel.

Saqqaf, Sheikh Umar; Saudi Arabian politician; b. 1923. Former Amb. to Ethiopia; Perm. Under-Sec. Ministry of Foreign Affairs -67, Deputy Minister 67-April 68; Minister of State for Foreign Affairs April 68-, and Personal Rep. of H.M. King Faisal on diplomatic missions. Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.

Sarc, Omer Celâl, DR.RER.POL.; Turkish professor and administrator; b. 1901; ed. Robert Coll., Istanbul, Handels-hochschule, Berlin, and Univ. of Berlin. Asst. Prof. of Econs., Univ. of Istanbul 26, Assoc. Prof. of Applied Econs. and Statistics 33, Prof. of Applied Econs. and Statistics 38-55, 57-, Dean of Faculty of Econs. 36-48, Rector of the Univ. 49-51, Pro-Rector 51-53; Visiting Prof. Columbia Univ., School of Int. Affairs 54-55, 67-68; Chief, Middle East Unit, Dept. of Econ. Affairs, UN, New York 55-56; Dir. Econ. and Social Affairs, Council of Europe 59-61; Rector, Istanbul Univ. 63-65; Hon. Dr. Jur (Fouad I Univ., Cairo). Pubs. *Agricultural and Industrial Policy* 34, *Theory of Statistics* 35, *The Foundations of Turkish Economy* 50. c/o University of Istanbul, Beyazit, Istanbul, Turkey.

Sarell, Sir Roderick Francis Gisbert, K.C.M.G.; British diplomatist; b. 23 Jan. 1913; ed. Radley and Magdalen Coll., Oxford. Consular Service 36-46; Foreign Service 46-, Rome, Bucharest, Foreign Office; Rangoon 53-56; Consul-Gen. Algiers 56-59; Counsellor, Foreign Office 59-64; Amb. to Libya 64-69. c/o British Embassy, Ankara, Turkey.

Sarrûf, Foad, B.A., LL.D.; Lebanese author and university official; b. 1900; ed. Shwaifat Nat. Coll., and American Univ. of Beirut. Teacher and Headmaster, Lebanon 19-22; Asst. Editor *Al-Muqtataf* (monthly), Cairo 22-27, Editor 27-44; Editor *Al-Mukhtat* (Arabic edition of *Reader's Digest*), Cairo 43-47; Columnist, *Al-Ahram* (daily), Cairo 48-51; Vice-Pres. in charge of Univ. Relations, American Univ., Beirut 52-; started Dept. of Journalism, American Univ., Cairo 35-43; Vice-Pres. Lebanese Nat. Comm. for UNESCO; mem. Exec. Board of UNESCO 66-; mem. Lebanese Nat. Research Council, Baalbek Int. Festival Cttee.; several decorations. Pubs. *Pillars of Modern Science* 35, *Horizons of Modern Science* 39, *The Conquest Goes On* 44, *Horizons Without End* 58, *Man and the Universe* 61, *Modern Science in Modern Society* 66, numerous other books. American University of Beirut, Beirut, Lebanon.

Sasson, Eliahu (Elias); Israeli diplomatist; b. 2 Feb. 1902; ed. St. Joseph Coll., Beirut. Owner and Editor of Arab newspaper *Al Hayyat*, Damascus 19-21; corresp. and editor of various Hebrew and Arab newspapers, Jerusalem, Damascus, Beirut, Baghdad, Cairo and Tel-Aviv 24-31; Head of Div. for Arab Affairs, Political Dept., Jewish Agency 32-47; Head of Middle Eastern Dept. Israeli Ministry of Foreign Affairs 47-50; Minister to Turkey 50-53, to Italy 53, Ambassador 56-60, to Switzerland 60-61; Minister of Posts 61-67, of Police 67-; mem. Israeli del. at Israeli-Egyptian Armistice negotiations, Rhodes, and signatory of the Armistice Treaty 48-49; joint head of Israeli del. at Lausanne Conf.

of Palestine Conciliation Comm. 49; mem. Israeli del. at UN 47-48.

Ministry of Police, Hakirya, Israel.

Satir, Kemal; Turkish politician. Secretary-Gen. Republican People's Party 64-68; Deputy Prime Minister 64-Feb. 65. Grand National Assembly, Ankara, Turkey.

Saudi Arabia, Royal Family of (see under first names, as Faisal (King)).

Sayah, Mohamed; Tunisian politician; b. 31 Dec. 1933; ed. Sadikia, Sfax, and Training School for Higher Education, Tunis. Joined Néo-Destour Party 49; mem. Gen. Union of Tunisian Students 52-62, mem. Exec. Bureau 57-62, Sec.-Gen. 60-62; Asst. Dir. Néo-Destour Party and Chief Editor *L'Action* 62-64, Gen. Sec. of Destourian Youth, Gen. Sec. of Tunisian Youth 63-64; mem. Central Cttee., then mem. Political Bureau and Dir. of the Party, Socialist Destour Party 64-. Socialist Destour Party, 10 rue de Rome, Tunis, Tunisia.

Sayigh, Yusif A., M.A., PH.D.; Syrian economist; b. 26 March 1916; ed. American Univ. of Beirut and Johns Hopkins Univ. At American Univ. of Beirut, Asst. Prof. of Econ. 53-54, 56-57, Assoc. Prof. 57-58, 62-63, Prof. 63-; Dir. Econ. Research Inst. 57-59, 62-64; Econ. Adviser, Planning Board of Kuwait 64-65; Econ. Consultant, Jordan East Ghor Study 66-67; Dir. Palestine Planning Centre; Grand Prix twice from Lebanese "Friends of the Book" Soc. Pubs. *Bread with Dignity: Socio-economic Content of Arab Nationalism* (Arabic) 61, *Entrepreneurs of Lebanon* 62, *Economics and Economists in the Arab World* 64, *Second Look at Lebanese Economy* (Co-Author) (Arabic) 66, *The Israeli Economy* (Arabic) 66, *The Strategy of Action for the Liberation of Palestine* (Arabic) 68, *Jordan: Country Study* (Mediterranean Development Project) (Co-Author). Economics Department, American University of Beirut, Beirut, Lebanon.

Sbihi, Abdelhadi; Moroccan diplomatist; b. 18 Nov. 1925; ed. Lycée Meknes, Rabat, and Ecole Supérieur Agronomique, Grignon, France. Graduated as engineer-agronomist; later Insp.-Del., Ministry of Agriculture; Gov. of Casablanca Province 61; Perm. Rep. of Morocco at UN Food and Agricultural Org. (FAO) 61-65; Pres. Intergovernmental Cttee. of World Food Programme 63; Ambassador to West African countries, Abidjan, Ivory Coast 65-67; Ambassador to U.S.S.R. June 67-; Officier Mérite du Trône Marocaine, du Méritede la République Italienne. Embassy of Morocco, ul. Gorkogo 60, Moscow, U.S.S.R.

Schaeffer, Claude Frédéric Armand, M.A.; French archaeologist; b. 6 March 1898; ed. Strasbourg and Paris Univs. Curator Prehistoric, Roman and Early Medieval Museum, Palais Rohan, Strasbourg 21-32; Curator Coins and Medals Dept. Strasbourg Univ. 26-32; Curator French Nat. Museums 33-54; Dir. of Research at Nat. Centre of Scientific Research, Paris 46-54; Vice-Pres. Comm. des Fouilles, Direction Générale des Relations Culturelles, Ministry of Foreign Affairs; mem. French Inst. 53; Hon. Prof. Collège de France 54; Dir. expedition Ras Shamra, Syria 29- (discovered Canaanite alphabetic cuneiform records); Cyprus 32, 34, 35, 46, 47, 49, Malatya, Turkey 46, 47, 48, 50; mem. Archaeological Cttee. Ministry of Education; Hon. Fellow St. John's Coll. Oxford; mem. Nat. Society of Antiquaries, France; corresp. mem. Belgian Royal Acad., Danish Royal Acad.; corresp. Fellow of British Acad.; Hon. Fellow Royal Anthropological Inst. of Great Britain and Ireland, etc.; hon. mem. Deutsche Morgenlandische Gesellschaft; served as Capt. Corvette with Fighting French Naval Forces 40-45; D.Litt. h.c. (Oxon.), D.C.L. h.c.

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

(Glasgow) Hon F.S.A. Gold Medal Soc of Antiquaries
58 Gold Medal Scientific and Philological Soc, Famagusta
Cyprus 65
Publs *Haches néolithiques* 24 *Tertres funéraires pré-*
historiques dans la forêt de Haguenau (2 vols) 26 30
Missions en Chypre 36 *Ugaritica I* 39 *Cuneiform Texts of*
Ras Shamra Ugarit 39 *Sirahographie comparée et Chron-*
ologie de l'Asie occidentale 48 *Ugaritica II* 49 *Enkomi*
Alasia 52 *Ugaritica III* 56 *Ugaritica IV* 62 *Ugaritica V* 65
Ugaritica VI 69

Le Castel Blanc 14 16 rue Turgot St German en Laye
and l'Escault BF 16 La Croix Calmer (83) France
Schéhadi, Georges, Lebanese writer
Publs include *Poésie I Poésie II* Plays *Monsieur*
Bohème *La Soirée de Proverbes* *Histoire de Vasco* *Le*
Voyage
c/o Habila Schéhadi BP 3600 Beirut Lebanon

Schimmel, Annemarie, Dr PHIL. DR SC REL German
university professor b 7 April 1922 ed Univ of Berlin
Assistant Prof Marburg Univ 46 54 Prof of History of
Religions Ankara Univ 54 59 Prof of Islamic Languages
Univ of Bonn 61 Lecturer in Indo Muslim Culture
Marburg Univ 66 Prof 69, Sitare-i Quaid-i Asam
(Pakistan) 65 Friedrich Rückert Preis 65
Publs *Kalif und Kadi im spätmittelalterlichen Ägypten* 43
Leid der Rohstoffe 48 *Ausgewählte Abhandlungen aus der*
Muqaddima Ibn Chaldun 51 Co-editor *Lyrik des Ostens* 52
Editor *Sirat-i Ibn-i Khashi* *Sirazi* 55 *Dinler tashihine*
giris 55 trans Sir Muhammad Iqbal's *Javanname* into
German (*Buch der ewigen*) 57 and Turkish (*Cavidname*)
58 edited M Henning's trans of the *Qur'an* 60 trans Sir
Muhammad Iqbal's *Peyam-i Mashriq* (*Botschaft des*
Ostens) 63 *Gabriel's Wing: a Study of the Religious Ideas*
of Sir Muhammad Iqbal 63 edited a selection of Oriental
Poetry trans by F Ruckert 63 trans Jellaluddin's works
(*Aus dem Diwan*) 64 *Pakistan ein Schloss mit Tausend*
Toren 65 M Iqbal *Persischer Palast* (anthology of
poetry and prose in German trans.) 68 *Halladsch Martyrer*
der Gottesliebe 68 new edn of Harder Parat 68 Co editor
Fikr u'a Fann 63 also numerous articles in journals and
encyclopedias.

Lennéstrasse 42 53 Bonn German Federal Republic
Schlumberger, Daniel Théodore, D ès L. French archae-
ologist b 19 Dec 1904 ed Lycée de Mulhouse Univs of
Strasbourg and Paris
Dep Insp later Insp Antiquities Services French High
Comm in the Levant 29 40 explorations and excavations
in NW Palmyra 33 35 excavations at Qasr el Heir el
Gharbi 36-39 Dir Délégation Archéologique Française
Afghanistan 45-46 excavations in Bactria 47 Kama Dacca
and Mir Zakah 48 Lashkari Bazar 49 51 Surkh Kotal
52 64 Al Khanum 64 Prof Strasbourg Univ 55 mem.
Inst de France 58
Publs Numerous papers and reports in learned journals
notably *Les Formes anciennes du chapiteau corinthien en*
Syrie en Palestine et en Arabie (Syria XIV) *Recherches sur*
la Loi fiscale de Palmyre (Syria XVIII) *Les Fouilles de*
Qasr el-Heir el-Gharbi (Syria XX) *L'Inscription d'Héradien*
et Les Gentilices romaines des Palmyréniens (Bulletin
d'Etudes Orientales de l'Inst Français de Damas IX)
Deux Fresques onyevades (Syria XXV) *La Palmyrène du*
Dord Oussif (Bibl Arch Hist XLIX) *Le Palais grec dans*
l'Empire achéménide (*Mémoires de la Délégation Arché-*
ologique Française en Afghanistan XIV) *Le temple de Surkh*
en Bactriane I IV (*Journal Asiatique*) 52 54 55 64
Descendants non méditerranéens de l'art grec (Syria
XXXVII) *Observations sur les remparts de Bactres* (with
M Leberre *Mémoires de la Délégation Archéologique*
Française en Afghanistan XV) *Le Prétendu camp de*
Dioclétien à Palmyre Une nouvelle inscription grecque

d'Acoka Al Khanum 65 *La représentation frontale dans*
l'art des Sassanides (*La Perse et le monde greco-romain*) 66
10 rue Richard Bruck Strasbourg France

Schocken, Gershom, Israeli editor and publisher b Sept
1912 ed Univ of Heidelberg and London School of
Economics
Joined staff of *Haaretz* (daily newspaper) 37 publisher
and editor 39 Dir Schocken Publishing House Ltd mem
Aneset (Paris) 55 59
Haaretz Building 56 Mazeh Street Tel Aviv Israel

Scholem, Gershom, PH D Israeli professor b 5 Dec
1897 Berlin Germany ed Berlin Jena Berne and Munich
Univs
Lecturer Hebrew Univ Jerusalem 25 Prof of Jewish
Mysticism 33 65 Dean Hebrew Univ 41 43 now Prof
Emer Inst of Jewish Studies Visiting Prof Jewish Inst
of Religion New York 38 49 Brown Univ Providence
R.I. 56-57 Hebrew Univ Coll Cincinnati 66 Pres Israel
Acad of Sciences and Humanities 68 Israel State Prize
55 Rothschild Prize 62 Reuchlin Prize 69
Publs several books on Judaism and Jewish Mysticism (in
Hebrew German and English)
The Israel Academy of Sciences and Humanities P O Box
4040 Jerusalem Home -8 Abarbanel Street Jerusalem
Israel
Telephone 36211 (Office) 32693 (Home)

Scholz, Ernst, DR ECON POL German architect and
diplomatist b 19 July 1913 ed Technische Hochschule
Berlin Bauhaus Berlin and Universität Rostock
Former architect Berlin für mem Kommunistische
Partei Deutschlands fought in Spanish Civil War 37 39
mem. French Resistance 40-45 posts in economy and
building industry German Democratic Republic (DDR)
46 56 Ambassador of DDR to Arab States 56 58
Minister of Building DDR 58 63 Minister to United
Arab Repub (U.A.R.) 63 67 mem. Sozialistische Einheits
Partei Deutschlands (S.E.D.)
Legation of the German Democratic Republic Cairo
U.A.R.

Serraj, Lieut-Col Abdel Hamid, Syrian army officer
ed Mil Acad Homs
Further military training in France 52 Asst Mil Attaché
Paris 54 Mil Intelligence Comdr 55 58 leader Arab
Socialist Resurrectionist Party April 55 58 Minister of the
Interior Syrian Region U.A.R. 58 Chair of Exec Council
of Syrian Region and Minister of State for United Arab
Republic 60-61 Sec Gen of Nat Union in Syrian Region
60 61 arrested after coup d'état Oct. 61 escaped and fled
to U.A.R. May 62
c/o Council of Ministers Cairo U.A.R.

Seter, Mordecai, Israeli composer b 1916 Russia
Studied Paris with Paul Dukas and Nadia Boulanger
32 37 teacher Israel Acad. of Music Tel Aviv Prix Italia
6- Israel State Prize 65
Works include *Sabbath Cantata* 40 *Three Motets* 51
Dihyramb 65 etc (choral music) *Ricercar* 56 *Variations*
59-67 *Jephthah's Daughter* 65 etc (chamber music) *The*
Legend of Judith 62 (ballet) *Partita* for violin and piano
51 violin sonatas etc
The Israel Academy of Music Tel Aviv Home 1 Karn
Street Ramat Aviv Tel Aviv Israel
Telephone 416111 (Office) 418-84 (Home)

Sergin, Refet, Turkish lawyer and politician b 1925
Deputy for Çanakkale 61 Minister of State Nov 65 67
Minister of Power and Natural Resources 67 69 Justice
Party
Ministry of Power Ankara Turkey

Shaabi, Qahhan Muhammad as-, Yemeni politician b
1920 ed school in Aden and studied agricultural engineer-
ing Khartoum Univ

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Director of Agriculture, Lahej State 55-58; joined South Arabian League 58, Public Relations Officer 59-60; Adviser to Ministry of South Yemen Affairs, Govt. of Yemen People's Repub. 63; founder-mem. Nat. Liberation Front (N.L.F.) 63, later Sec.-Gen.; mem. N.L.F. Del. to Geneva talks on independence of S. Arabia Nov. 67; Pres. of People's Repub. of Southern Yemen, also Prime Minister and Supreme Commdr. of Armed Forces Nov. 67, resigned June 69.

c/o National Liberation Front, Aden, People's Democratic Republic of Yemen.

Shabib, Talib al-; Iraqi diplomatist; b. 22 March 1934, Hilla; ed. in Baghdad and Univ. of London.

Former journalist; Minister of Foreign Affairs 63; Rep. of League of Arab States 66-68; Amb. in Foreign Ministry 68-69; Amb. to Turkey 69-70; Perm. Rep. to UN May 70-. Permanent Mission of Iraq at UN, 14 East 79th Street, New York, N.Y. 10021, U.S.A.

Shaddad, Mubarak el Fadil, M.D.; Sudanese medical practitioner and politician.

Director, Omdurman Civil Hospital; mem. Presidency Council Dec. 64-June 65; Pres. Parl. June 65-69.

Khartoum, Sudan.

Shafei, Col. Hussein; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) army officer and politician; b. 1918; ed. Mil. Coll., Cairo. Commissioned as 2nd Lieut. 38; took part in Palestine hostilities 48; graduated from Staff Officers' Coll. 53 and apptd. Officer-in-Charge Cavalry Corps; Minister of War and Marine April-Sept. 54, of Social Affairs Sept. 54-58; Minister of Labour and Social Affairs, U.A.R. 58-61; Vice-Pres. and Minister of Social Affairs and Wakfs 61-62; mem. Presidency Council 62-64; Vice-Pres. of U.A.R. 64-67; Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Waqfs 67-. Office of the Deputy Prime Minister, Cairo, U.A.R.

Shafik, Doria (Ahmad); United Arab Republic (Egyptian) journalist and feminist; b. 1919; ed. Univ. of Paris. Studied abroad; on return became Editor *La Femme Nouvelle* 45, *Bent el Nil* (in Arabic) 46-, *Kathout and Doria Shafik Magazine*; organised Bent el Nil Union (feminist movement) 48.

Publs. *La Bonne Aventure, l'Esclave Sultane, L'Amour Perdu, L'Art pour l'Art dans L'Egypte Antique, La Femme et l'Islam, La Femme Egyptienne, Voyage autour du Monde.* 6 Salah el Din, Zamalek, Cairo, U.A.R.

Shah, Idries; British author; b. 16 June 1924; ed. private and traditional Middle Eastern schools.

Studied in Middle East, Europe and S. America; Dir. of Studies, Inst. for Cultural Research 66-; author of numerous works on philosophy.

Publs. *Oriental Magic* 56, *Secret Lore of Magic* 57, *Destination Mecca* 57, *The Sufis* 64, *Special Problems* 66, *Exploits of Nasruddin* 66, *Tales of the Dervishes* 67, *The Pleasantries* 68, *The Way of the Sufi* 68, *Reflections* 68, *Caravan of Dreams* 68, *Wisdom of the Idiots* 69, *The Dermis Probe* 69, *The Book of the Book* 69, *Thinkers of the East* 70.

c/o Jonathan Cape Ltd., 30 Bedford Square, London, W.1, England.

Shakhbut bin Sultan bin Zaid, H.H. Sheikh; former Ruler of Abu Dhabi; b. 1905.

Succeeded to Sheikdom 28, deposed Aug. 66; sons Zaid b. 30, Sultan b. 36.

Manama, Bahrain.

Shakir, Bahjat; Iraqi politician; b. 1928; ed. Coll. of Arts.

Former teacher; detained several times for political activities; Editing Sec. *Al-Jamahir* newspaper (organ of Nat. Council) 63; political arrest 64; Dir.-Gen. of Information, Ministry of Culture and Information 68; Dir.-Gen. of Iraqi News Agency 69-.

Iraqi News Agency, Baghdad, Iraq.

Shalchian, Hassan; Iranian civil engineer and politician; b. 1913; ed. State Univ. of Belgium.

Ministry of Roads 39-, successively Dir. of Technical Dept., Dir. Chalus Road Dept., Dir. Dept. of Technical Inspectorate Dir.-Gen. of Roads, mem. Supervisory Board of Ministry of Roads; fmr. Head of Construction Dept. Ministry of Roads; fmr. Exec. for Implementation of Third Plan Projects, Ministry of Roads; fmr. Technical Deputy Minister of Roads 63; Minister of Roads and Communications Oct. 63, Dec. 64-; mem. Div. Water and Power Authority, Azarbaijan Province, April 64.

Ministry of Roads and Communications, Teheran, Iran.

Shami, Ahmed ben Mohammed al-; Yemeni politician. Foreign Minister of Royalist Govt. 64-68; mem. Mil. Council 67-, Imamate Council 67-68; in exile 68-.

Shamir, Moshe; Israeli writer; b. 15 Sept. 1921; ed. Tel-Aviv Herzliya Gymnasium.

Former mem. Kibbutz Mishmar Haemek; in Hagana underground units 47-48; Capt. in Israel Army 48; mem. Hebrew Acad.; Ussiskin Prize 48, Brenner Prize 53, Bialik Prize 55.

Publs. (novels) *He Walked in the Fields under the Sun, With his own Hands, King of Flesh and Blood, David's Stranger, Naked You Are, The Border*; (plays) *He Walked in the Fields, The War of the Sons of Light, The Heir*, and ten others.

3 Rosanis Street, Tel Baruch, Tel-Aviv, Israel.

Shammas, Saeed Yacoob; Kuwaiti administrator and diplomatist; b. 1927; ed. Mobaraliyya School, Kuwait, Bristol Coll. of Commerce, U.K., London School of Economics and Oxford Univ.

Manager, Municipality Dept., Kuwait 54-55; Admin. Asst., Civil Service Comm., Kuwait 55-57, Dep. Dir.-Gen. 58-60; Consul-Gen. and Chargé d'Affaires; Kuwait Mission to UN 62-63; Ambassador of Kuwait to U.S.S.R. 64-67, concurrently to Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary and Romania 65-67, Ambassador to France 67-.

Embassy of the State of Kuwait, 25 ave. Paul Doumer, Paris 16e, France; and P.O. Box 547, Kuwait.

Shankiti, Sheikh Mohammed Amin; Jordanian politician and diplomatist.

Chief Justice, Muslim Religious Courts -59; Minister of Education 59-61; Ambassador to Saudi Arabia, also accred. to the Sudan July 63; mem. Joint Comm. for Border Disputes 66-.

Embassy of the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia.

Shapiro, Jacob Shimshon, LL.B.; Israeli lawyer and politician; b. 1902; ed. Kharkov Univ. and Law School, Jerusalem.

Settled in Palestine (now Israel) 24; co-founder Kibbutz Givat Hashlosha; Attorney-Gen., Govt. of Israel 48-49; Minister of Justice 66-; mem. Labour Party.

Ministry of Justice, Jerusalem, Israel.

Sharaf, Abdul Hamid; Jordanian diplomatist.

Former Head, Arab and Palestine Affairs, Ministry of Foreign Affairs; Dir. Broadcasting Service 63-64; Dir. Political Dept., Ministry of Foreign Affairs; Asst. Chief of Royal Cabinet 64-65; Minister of Information 65-67; Amb. to U.S.A. Aug. 67-.

Embassy of Jordan, 2319 Wyoming Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C., U.S.A.

Sharabi, Nizam B. Al-, B.A., M.A.; Jordanian politician; b. 1 March 1916; ed. Birmingham Univ.

Lecturer, American Univ. at Beirut 38-41; Dir. of Social Affairs Dept., Gaza and Jaffa 42-47; Asst. Dir. Jordan Red Cross 48-49; Controller of Trade 49-51; Under-Sec. Ministry of Social Affairs 51-54; Snr. Man. Arab Bank 54-63; Asst. Dir.-Gen. 65-68, March 69-; Minister of Finance Dec. 63, of Nat. Econ. and Finance 64, of Com-

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

munications and Defence July 64 Feb 65 of Nat Economy Dec 68 March 69 El Kawkab El Urdoun First Class
c/o Head Office Arab Bank Amman Jordan

Sharif, Omar (Michel Shalhoub), United Arab Republic (Egyptian) actor ed. Victoria Coll Cairo
Salesman lumber import firm made first film *The Blazing Sun* 53 starred in 24 Egyptian films and two French co-production films during following five years commenced int film career with *Lawrence of Arabia*
Films include *Lawrence of Arabia* *The Fall of the Roman Empire* *Behold a Pale Horse* *Ghengis Khan* *The Yellow Rolls Royce* *Doctor Zhivago* *Night of the Generals* *Mac Kenna's Gold* *Funny Girl* *Cinderella—Italian Style* *Mayerling* *The Appointment* *Che* *The Last Valley*
c/o Carolyn Pfeiffer Ltd Flat 2 10 Connaught Place London W2 England

Shari' Emami, Jaffar, Iranian engineer and politician b 8 Sept 1910 Teheran ed primary and secondary studies in Teheran Railway Central Coll Brandenburg Germany and Government Technical Hgh School Borås Sweden

Joined Iranian State Railways 31 Technical Deputy Dir Gen of Iranian Govt Railways 42 Chair and Man Dir of Irrigation Corps 46 50 Under Sec to Minister of Roads and Communications Dir Gen Iranian Govt Railways and then Minister of Roads and Communications 50 51 mem Hgh Council of the Plan Org 51 52 Man Dir of Plan Org and Chair High Council of Plan Org 53 54 Senator from Teheran 55 57 Pres of Senate 63 Minister of Industries and Mines 57 60 Prime Minister 60 61 Deputy Custodian of Pahlavi Foundation 62 Pres Chamber of Industries and Mines 62 67 mem Board of Dirs Royal Org of Social Services 6 Chair Board of Dirs Industrial and Mining Devt Bank 63 Senator from Teheran and Pres of Senate 63 Pres Iranian Assn of World Federalists 63 mem Board of Red Lions and Sun of Iran 63 Deputy Chair 66 Pres Iranian Engineers Assn 66 Pres Third Constituent Assembly 67 Hon Pres Chamber of Industries and Mines 67 Man American Soc of Civil Engineers 46- Board of Trustees Pahlavi Univ Shiraz Nat Univ Teheran 62 and Aria Mehr Tech Univ 65 decorations from Iran Italy German Fed Repub France Sweden Belgium Austria U.K. Japan Romania Thailand Tunisia Norway Denmark Morocco Yugoslavia Poland Hungary Pakistan Ethiopia Darroos Ehteshameh 48 Teheran Iran

Sharqawi, Abdel Rahman, L.L.B. United Arab Republic (Egyptian) writer b 1920 ed Cairo Univ
In legal practice 43 45 solicitor with Ministry of Education 45 56 Literary Editor *Ash-Sha'b* and *Al Goumhouriya* then Editor *At Tak'a* and *Tomorrow* magazines Counselor Ministry of Culture and Guidance 64
Pubs *An Open Letter from an Egyptian Father to President Truman* (long poem) 52 *The Earth* (novel) 54 *Empty Hearts* (novel) 55 *Little Dreams* (short stories) 56 *Back Streets* (novel) 58 *Muhammad a Prophet of Freedom* 62 *An Algerian Tragedy* (poetic drama) 62 *Mahran the Cavalier* (poetic drama) 65
17 Sharia Al Mathaf Alzina 1: Doqqi Cairo U A R.

Shaw, Thomas Richard, C.M.G. British diplomatist b 5 Sept 1912 ed Repton and Clare Coll Cambridge
Probationary Vice Consul Istanbul 34 37 Bushire 37 Act Consul Tientsin 38 39 Trieste 40 Léopoldville 40 Elisabethville 42 Vice-Consul Rabat 43 Vice-Consul at the Foreign Office 44 45 Consul 45 49 Consul Bremen 49-53 Act Consul Gen N.Y. 53 Consul Gen Izmir 55 57 Foreign Service Insp 57 61 Senior Insp 61 63 Ambassador to Upper Volta Niger and Ivory Coast 64 67

also to Dahomey 64 65 Minister Tokyo 67-69 Ambassador to Morocco 69-
British Embassy Rabat Morocco

Shawi, Dr Khalid Al-, Iraqi politician b 1930 ed Michigan Univ
Former commercial attaché London Dir Gen Iraq Nat Bank 62 Deputy Chair Board of Nat Oil Co Chair Trade Org Under Sec of Economy Acting Minister of Finance Minister of Industry 66-67 Dean of Faculty of Law and Political Science Univ of Mustansera Baghdad 67

Pubs *The Role of the Corporate Entity in International Law* and numerous articles in Arabic
17/18/4 Mansour Baghdad Iraq

Shawi, Muzhir Ismail Al-, Iraqi soldier and administrator b 1908 ed Iraqi Military Coll Royal Military Coll Sandhurst England

Staff Captain Iraqi Staff Coll 39 40 Commr military units 42 53 Head Iraqi Staff Coll 53 56 Commr 1st Division 56-57 Dep Chief of Gen Staff (Admin) 57 58 Dir Gen Iraqi Ports Administration Basra 58 63
Pubs *Along the Days* (poems) articles on military subjects
19 Tanoomah Avenue Margul Basra Iraq

Shazar, Zalman (Scheiner Zalman Puhashov), Israeli (b Russian) Jewish historian and head of state b 6 Oct 1889 ed St Petersburg Acad of Jewish Studies and Univ of Freiburg Strasbourg and Berlin.

Delegate to Labor Zionist Conf Minsk Russia 06 settled in Palestine 24 Editorial staff *Davar* (Histadrut daily) later Ed 25 49 Minister of Education Israel 49 50 mem Exec Jewish Agency (in charge of Information Dept) 52 Acting Chair 56 Head Zionist Organisation Dept for Education and Culture in the Diaspora 54-63 President of Israel 63 Mapai

Pubs *Kochel Boher* (autobiographical sketches) 50 *Or Ishim* (biographical and historical studies) 55 English trans of *Korher Boher* *Morning Stars* 67
The President's House Jerusalem Israel

Shelbani, Tala'at A. Al, M.D. Iraqi lawyer and politician b 1917 ed Coll of Law Baghdad Cairo Univ Indiana Univ USA

Lawyer 41 43 Teacher Coll of Commerce and Economics Baghdad 51 53 Dir Economic Bureau Ministry of Development 54 Dir Gen Fed of Industries 57 58 Minister of Planning 59 63 Acting Minister of Oil 59 60
Pubs *Influencing Powers on Constitutions* 54 *The Reality of Agricultural Property in Iraq* 58
34A/127 Al Khansa Street Adampya Baghdad Iraq

Sheikh, Abid Mohammed Saleh, Saudi Arabian politician b 1 Jan 1919 ed Al Falah School Jeddah and Benett Coll London

Teacher and Sec Al-Falah School 35 39 consecutively Translator Sec Treasurer and Accountant ARAMCO 39 48 Treas and Asst Man Banque de l'Indochine 48-57 Controller Gen Foreign Exchange (Deputy Minister) 57 Vice Gov Saudi Arabian Monetary Agency 58 62 Minister of Commerce and Industry 62
Ministry of Commerce Riyadh Saudi Arabia

Shekhly Abdul Kareem Abdul Sattar Al, Iraqi politician b 1937 Baghdad
Political emigre in Cairo 60 63 Asst Attaché Iraqi Embassy Beirut 63-68 Minister of Foreign Affairs 68
Ministry of Foreign Affairs Baghdad Iraq

Sheriff Noam, Israeli composer b 1935 Tel Aviv ed Hebrew Univ Jerusalem
Arranger of folk and light music for Israeli Broadcasting Authority Prof of Orchestration Israel Acad of Music Tel Aviv First Prize of Israel Philharmonic Orchestra 57 60

Works include *Ashrei* 61 *Destination* 5 61 *Sonata for*

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Piano 62, Heptaprisms 65, Confession 66, Piece for Ray 66, Arabesque 66, Invention for Flute 67, Invention for Harp 68, Invention for Horn 68, Metamorphosis on a Galliard 67, Chaconne 68, Two Epigrams 68, etc.
22 Maoz Aviv, Tel-Aviv, Israel.

Telephone: 416111 (Office); 773227 (Home).

Sherzoy, Sultan Ahmad; Afghan politician; b. 1891; ed. Habibia, Kabul Coll. of Law and Istanbul Univ. Speaker Sixth Afghan Parliament; Minister of Foreign Affairs 27; mem. Loya Jirga 64-; Stor and Sardar-e-Ala Medals.

Loya Jirga, Kabul, Afghanistan.

Shinnar, Felix Elieser, DR. JUR.; Israeli diplomatist; b. 17 April 1905; ed. Univs. of Tübingen, Heidelberg and Frankfurt.

Economic Adviser to Chamber of Industry and Commerce, Berlin 28-34; emigrated to Palestine 34; Man. Dir. *Haaretz* (daily newspaper), Tel-Aviv, and Adviser to Israel Discount Bank, Tel-Aviv 37-49; Controller of Fuel 48-49; Economic and Financial Counsellor, Israel Embassy, London 47-51; Adviser to Israel Foreign Office on claims against Germany July 51; Head (with Dr. Josephthal) of del. for negotiations for reparations agreement with Germany March-Sept. 52; Head (with rank of Ambassador) of Israel Mission to implement Reparations Agreement 52-; Chair. "Delek" Israel Fuel Corp.; Deputy Chair Industrial Devel. Bank of Israel; Dir. of other companies. Israeli Mission, 15 Subbelratherstrasse, Cologne, German Federal Republic; and 22 Kish Street, Tel-Ganim, near Ramat Gan, Israel.

Shlonsky, Avraham; Israel poet; b. March 1900; ed. High School and Sorbonne.

Went to Palestine 21; mem. Editorial Board *Davar*: founder and Editor *Groovim*, *Toopim*, *Itim*, *Orlogin*; Literary Editor *Sifriat Hapoalim*; mem. Board, Mosad Bialik; mem. Hebrew Acad.

Publs. *Davai* (poems) 24, *Le-Aba Ima* 25, *Bagalgal* 26, *Be-Ele Hayamim* 29, *Avne Bohu* 34, *Yalkut Shirat Haamim*, *Al Milet*, *Shirei Hamapolet Vehapius*, *Avnei Gvil*, *Mishvei Haphkosdok Haaroch*; trans. several foreign works into Hebrew, including Shakespeare, Pushkin, Gogol, Brecht, Chekhov and Gorki.

50 Gordon Street, Tel-Aviv, Israel.

Shoman, Abdul Hameed; Palestinian-Arab banker; b. 88; ed. privately.

Migrated to the U.S.A. 11; commenced business as a manufacturer 17; estab. Arab Bank Ltd. Jerusalem 30; Gen. Man. Arab Bank Ltd. 30-43, Chair. Board and Gen. Man. 43-.

c/o Arab Bank Ltd., P.O. Box 68, Amman, Jordan.

Shoukry, Muhammad; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) diplomatist.

Ambassador to Yemen 63-68, to Canada 69-.

Embassy of the United Arab Republic, Ottawa, Canada.

Shoukry, Mohammed Anwar; United Arab Republic Egyptologist; b. 05; ed. Cairo Univ. Inst. of Egyptology and Univ. of Göttingen.

Asst. Prof. of Egyptology Cairo Univ. 48-52, fmr. Prof.; Chief Archæologist Cen. of Documentation of Egyptian Art and Civilisation 56-59; Dir.-Gen. Dept. of Egyptian Antiquities 59-; Asst. Under-Sec. of State, Ministry of Culture and National Guidance 61-64; Resident Archaeologist in Nubia 64-.

Publs. *Die Grabstatue im Alten Reich, Egyptian Art from the Beginning till the End of the Ancient Kingdom* (in Arabic). Resident Archaeologist, Abu Simbel, U.A.R.

Shragai, Shlomo Zalman; Israeli journalist; b. 31 Dec. 1899; ed. Jeshivoh-Talmudical Colls. in Poland. Founder of Young Mizrahi Movement in Poland 17; founder of organisation for training religious youth for

Eretz Israel 19; elected mem. Jewish Nat. Council of Poland 20; Editor religious Zionist-Hebrew newspaper, *Hatechia* 20; migrated to Palestine and employed as builder in Jerusalem 24; elected exec. mem. Hapoel Hamizrachi Party 24-; exec. mem. Va'ad Leumi (Jewish Nat. Council) of Eretz Israel 29; Zionist Actions Cttee. 23; Chair. Broadcasting Services of Palestine 38; elected exec. mem. Jewish Agency, London 46; first Mayor of Jerusalem 50-52; Head of Immigration Dept. of Jewish Agency 53-; Contrib. to Israeli daily *Hatzofe* and *Sinai-Monthly for Thora and Jewish History Research*.

Publs. *Vision and Fulfilment* (Hebrew) 25, *Tehumin*, *Beit Ushbitza*, *Tahalichey Hageula Vhatmura*, *Shaa Vanezech*, *Peame Geula*.

Rosh Rechavia, Jerusalem, Israel.

Shubeilat, Farhan; Jordanian diplomatist.

Former Minister to Iraq; Ambassador to Libya 59; Ambassador to Tunisia 59-66; Ambassador to U.S.A. 66-67; Ambassador to German Federal Republic 67-.

Embassy of Jordan, Bonn, German Federal Republic.

Shukair, Dr. Muhammad Habib; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) politician.

Minister of State for Planning March-Aug. 64; Minister of Economy and Foreign Trade Aug. 64-66, of Planning 66-67, of Higher Educ. 67-68; Pres. Econ. Comm. Org. for African Unity, Cairo 65.

c/o Ministry of Higher Education, Cairo, U.A.R.

Shukairy, Ahmed, M.A., LL.D.; Jordanian politician and diplomatist; b. 1908; ed. American Univ., Beirut.

Former Minister of State for UN Affairs; Perm. Rep. to the UN until 63; Chair. Palestine Liberation Org. 63-67.

19 Gabalaya Street, Zamalek, Cairo, U.A.R.

Shukri, Maj.-Gen. Shakir Mahmud; Iraqi diplomatist and politician; b. 1917.

Commissioned in Army 35, passed Staff Coll. 44, promoted to Maj.-Gen. 65, Asst. Chief of Gen. Staff 58; Amb. to Spain 63-66, to U.K. 66; Minister of Defence April 66-July 68; Order of Rafidain, Class I with Sash (Iraq), Grand Cross of Isabella the Catholic (Spain) 66.

Publs. *Night Training*, *Air Force Co-operation*, *Night Operations*, *Operation Order*, *Hittin Campaign*.

Ministry of Defence, Baghdad, Iraq.

Shurbassi, Ahmed al; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) politician; b. 99; ed. Higher School of Engineering.

With Ministry of Public Works 24-53, Inspector of Irrigation 48-53, Asst. Inspector-Gen. of Egyptian Irrigation in Sudan 53; Minister of Public Works 53-58; Min. of Public Works, U.A.R. 58-62; mem. Presidency Council 62-64; Minister for Endowments and Al Azhar Affairs 64-65; Deputy Prime Minister for Endowments, Al Azhar and Social Affairs 65-67.

c/o Ministry of Waqfs, Cairo, U.A.R.

Siassi, Ali-Akbar, PH.D.; Iranian psychologist and politician; b. 96; ed. Persia and France.

Professor Univ. of Teheran 27-; Head Dept. of Advanced Studies of the Ministry of Educ. 32; Chancellor of the Univ. of Teheran 42; Minister of Educ. 43; drafted bill and law for national compulsory free education, and took necessary measures for its enforcement 43; Minister of State without portfolio 45, of Education 48-50, of Foreign Affairs 50; del. III Int. Congress of Persian Art and Archæology 35, UN Conf. San Francisco 45; Pres. Iranian del. UNESCO Conf. Paris 49, Int. Conf. of Univs. 50, UNESCO Conf. Paris 51, Int. Conf. of Univs., Mexico City 60, Royal Soc. Tricentenary Celebrations, London 60; Perm. mem. Iranian Acad.; Hon. Pres. Univ. of Teheran; Dr. h.c. Univ. of Charles 1st, Prague 47, Univ. of Strasbourg 65, etc.; mem. Int. Cttee. Scientific and Cultural History of Humanity; Pres. Iranian Council of Philosophy and Human Sciences, Iranian Psychological Asscn. of Iran; mem. Royal Cultural

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Council etc Commr Légion d'Honneur Commr
 Palmes Académiques etc
 Publics In French L Education en Perse 21 La Perse au
 Contact de l'Occident 31 La Méthode des Tests 31 Le Génie
 et l'Art traversés aux prises avec l'Islam 35 De l'Unesco à la
 Sorbonne 53 L'Iran au XIXe siècle 55 In Persian
 Psychology 38 Educational Psychology for Teachers
 Colleges 41 Introduction to Philosophy 47 Mind and Body
 53 The Psychology of Avicenna and its similarities with the
 Modern Psychology 54 Logic 56 Ethics 57 Logic and
 Philosophy 58 Intelligence and Reason 62 Criminal
 Psychology 64 Psychology of Personality 70
 President Roosevelt Avenue Namdjou Street Teheran
 Iran

Sibai, Youssef Mohammed, United Arab Republic
 (Egyptian) writer b 1917 ed Military Acad and Cairo
 Univ
 Began writing while at school teacher of military history
 43 52 Dir Military Museum 52 53 Editor in Chief
Arissala al Gadda 53 56 Sec-Gen High Council of Arts
 Letters and Social Sciences 56 Afro Asian People's
 Solidarity Org 57 Italian and Egyptian decorations
 Ministry of Culture Prize for best film story (for *Rodda
 Qalbi* and *Gamila*) (*Rodda Qalbi* also won a prize for the
 best dialogue)
 Publs Novels *Nash Arrai Ard el Nisaf* (Land of
 Hypocrisy) *Inny Rahila* (I am Going Away) *Bein el Allal*
 (Among the Ruins) *El Sakha Mai* (Death of a Water
 Carrier) *Rodda Qalbi Tarik el Auda* (The Return) *Nadia*,
 Short Stories *Ya Ommalun Dahkat* (A Nation that
 Laughed) *A Night of Wine Shrikh Zoarob* Plays *Om
 Rahiba Behind the Curtain Stronger than Time*
 68 Kasr el Anni Sport Club Cairo U.A.R.

Sibsi, Bajji Qaid, Tunisian lawyer politician and diploma-
 tist b 1926 ed in Paris
 Chef de cabinet to Pres Bourguiba 56 Dir of Tourist
 Office and Chief of Security until July 65 Minister of
 Interior 65 69 of Defence 69-70 Amb to France 70
 Ambassade de Tunisie rue Barbet-de Jouy 25 Paris 7e
 France

Sidarouss, H E Cardinal Stephanos I, United Arab
 Republic (Egyptian) ecclesiastic b 1904 ed Jesuits Coll
 Cairo Univ de Paris faculté de droit and Ecole libre des
 sciences politiques
 Barrister Egypt 26 32 Vincentian Priest 39 Prof
 Seminars at Evreux Dax and Beauvais (France) Rector
 Coptic Catholic Seminary Tahta 46 Tanta 47 53 Maadi
 53 58 Auxiliary Bishop to the Patriarch of Alexandria
 47 58 Patriarch 58 created Cardinal 65
 34 Ibn Sandar Street Koubbeh Bridge Cairo U.A.R.
 Telephone 822-740 and 827 816

Sidi Baba, Dey Ould, Moroccan diplomatist b 1921 (in
 Mauritania)
 Counsellor Ministry of Foreign Affairs Morocco 58 Head
 of African Dir 59 mem. Moroccan Depts to UN Gen.
 Assembly 59-64 Acting Perm Rep of Morocco to UN
 63-65 Perm. Rep 65-67 Minister of Royal Cabinet 67
 Commandeur du Trône Alaouite Niger Grand Order of
 Merit Officer of Libyan Order of Independence Commr
 of Syrian Order of Merit.
 c/o The Royal Cabinet, Rabat, Morocco

Sidky, Aziz, BENG M A PH D United Arab Republic
 (Egyptian) politician b 1 July 1920 ed Cairo Univ
 Univ of Oregon and Harvard Univ
 Minister of Industry 56-63 Deputy Prime Minister for
 Industry and Mineral Wealth 64-65 Adviser for Produc-
 tion Affairs to Pres of U.A.R. 66-67 Minister of Industry
 Petroleum and Mineral Wealth 68
 Ministry of Industry Petroleum and Mineral Wealth
 Cairo United Arab Republic.

Sieminski, Zbigniew, Polish banker b 1 June 1909 ed
 Univ of Warsaw
 With Bank of Poland 34 39 42 45 Lecturer in Polish
 Univ Coll London 46 51 Econ. Adviser Debut Bank of
 Ethiopia 52 53 Deputy Managing Dir 54 Currency and
 Banking Adviser to Govt of Yemen on behalf of UN
 T.A.B. 55 Currency Controller Sudan Currency Board
 56-59 Gen. Man. Bank of Sudan 60-66 Adviser Central
 Bank of Cyprus 66 67 of Kenya 67 70 Banque du Maroc
 71 Technical Dir Qatar and Dubai Currency Board 66-
 Publs *Fixed Interest Bond* (in Polish) 33 and articles in
 Polish *Economist* 44-46 Middle East Journal *Impact of
 Coffee Boom on Ethiopia* 55
 c/o Banque du Maroc Rabat Morocco and 12 Mount
 Park Crescent London W.5 England

Silvasuo Maj Gen Enso, Finnish army officer b 1 Jan
 1922 Helsinki ed Lycee of Oulu Finnish Mil Acad
 Finnish Command and Staff Coll
 Platoon Commr Infantry Co Commr and Chief of
 Staff Infantry Regiment 11 41 44 Company Commr
 Infantry Regiment 1 45 50 attended Command and
 Staff Coll. 51 52 various staff appointments in mil
 districts of N Finland 53 57 Commr Finnish Con-
 tinent UN Emergency Force 57 Mil Observer UN
 Observation Group in Lebanon 58 Finnish Defence
 Attaché in Warsaw 59 61 Staff Officer Third Div 62 64
 Commr Finnish Contingent UN Force in Cyprus 64 65
 Instructor Nat Defence Coll 65 67 Chief Foreign Dept.
 GHQ 67 Senior Staff Officer UN Truce Supervision Org
 in Palestine 67 70 Chief of Staff UN Truce Supervision
 Org in Palestine 70 Finnish Cross of Freedom 3rd and
 4th Class Knight of the Order of the White Rose of Finland
 1st Class
 UNTSO P.O. Box 490 Jerusalem Israel
 Telephone 36225

Sikta, Abdalla, Libyan civil servant and diplomatist b
 19 April 1919 ed Secondary School
 Secretary of Arab Affairs 39-43 Public Information
 Officer 43 46 Asst Custodian of Property 46-52 Asst
 Dir of Public Works 52 54 Dir-Gen. Civil Service Admin.
 54 58 Under Sec Ministry of Justice 58 60 Chair Libyan
 Electricity Corp 60-62 Under Sec. Ministry of Planning
 62-64 Minister of State for Civil Service 64-67 Ambassa-
 dor to Italy 67
 Publs many articles on political social economic and
 administrative topics
 Embassy of Libya Via Nomentana 365 Rome Italy

Silberg, Moshe, DR JUD Israeli judge b Lithuania Sept.
 1900 ed. religious schools secondary school Univs. of
 Marburg and Frankfurt am Main
 Came to Palestine 29 private legal practice Tel Aviv 34 48
 District Court Judge and Acting Supreme Court Justice
 48 50 Justice Supreme Court 50-65 Deputy Pres 65
 Visiting Prof of Law of Personal Status Hebrew Univ
 45A King George Avenue Jerusalem and The Supreme
 Court Jerusalem Israel

Simavi, Halldén, Turkish journalist b 1925 ed Kabataş
 Lisesi Istanbul
 Publisher and Gen Man of Istanbul daily newspaper
Hürriyet 53
Hürriyet Istanbul-Cagaloglu Turkey

Simon, Ernst PH D DR THEOL (h.c.) Israeli education
 1st b 15 March 1899 ed Univs of Berlin and Heidelberg
 Editor (with Martin Buber) *Der Jude* 23 24 Lecturer
 in Jewish subjects Frankfurt am Main 22 28 taught
 at various schools in Germany and Palestine 28 Assoc
 Dir of Jewish Adult Education Centre of Germany 33 34
 Lecturer Hebrew Univ of Jerusalem 38 50 Assoc Prof
 of Educ 50-55 Chair School of Educ 52 54 65 67 Prof
 of Educ 55-67 Prof Emer 68 Visiting Prof of Educ
 Jewish Theological Seminary of America N.Y. 47 48 62

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Visiting Prof. of Educ. at Univ. of Judaism, L.A., Calif. 56-57; mem. Research Board Leo Baeck Inst. of Jews from Germany; mem. Board Ihud Organisation for Jewish-Arab co-operation; mem. Board Religious Youth Village; co-Editor Pedagogical Encyclopaedia (Hebrew), Israeli State Prize for Educ. 67; Buber-Rosenzweig Medal 69. *Publs. Ranke und Hegel* 29, *Das Werturteil im Geschichtsunterricht* 31, *Bialik* 35, *Educational Meaning of Socratic Irony* (Hebrew) 49, *Pioneers of Social Education—Pestalozzi and Korczak* (Hebrew), *The Teaching of Pestalozzi* 53 (Hebrew), *Jewish Adult Education in Nazi Germany as Spiritual Resistance, Franz Rosenzweig's Position in the History of Jewish Education* (Hebrew), *Freud the Jew* (Hebrew, German and English), *Martin Buber and the Faith of Judaism* (Hebrew), *Martin Buber and German Jewry* (English) 58, *Aims of Secondary Education in Israel* (Hebrew) 61, *Brücken* (Collected Essays—German) 65, *M. Buber's Correspondence* (German, with G. Schaefer) 71. 35 Ben Maimon Avenue, Jerusalem, Israel.

Slaoui, Driss; Moroccan politician and banker. Minister of Commerce and Industry 59-61; Dir. of Royal Cabinet March 62; Minister of Public Works July 62-Jan. 63; Minister of Finance Jan. 63-Aug. 64, of Nat. Economy and Agriculture Nov. 63-Aug. 64; Gov. Banque du Maroc (Central Bank) 64-68; Minister of Justice 68-69; Dir.-Gen. Cabinet Royal Feb. 69. The Royal Cabinet, Rabat, Morocco.

Slim, Taieb; Tunisian politician and diplomatist; b. 1914; ed. Tunis Lycée and Univ. of Paris. Member Néo-Destour Party, detained 41-43; Arab Maghreb Bureau, Cairo 46-49; Head, Tunisian Office, Cairo 49, established Tunisian offices, New Delhi, Djakarta, Karachi; Head, Foreign Affairs, Presidency of Council of Ministers 55-56; Ambassador to U.K. 56-62, also accredited to Denmark, Norway and Sweden 60-62; Perm. Rep. to UN 62-67, concurrently Amb. to Canada; Minister, Personal Rep. of the Pres. 67-70; Amb. to Morocco Oct. 70. Tunisian Embassy, Rabat, Morocco.

Slimane, Commandant (see Knid, Ahmed).

Smaïn, Mohammed El Hadj; Algerian politician. Former Personal Sec. to Ben Bella; Dir. of the Cabinet 62-63; Minister of Justice 63-64; Minister of Reconstruction and Habitat Dec. 64-April 66. Algiers, Algeria.

Smilanski, Izhar; Israeli writer; b. 1916; ed. Teachers' Seminary and Hebrew Univ. Former teacher; mem. Knesset 48; Brenner Prize for *Midnight Caravan*. *Publs. include: Midnight Caravan, Hirbith Hiz'a'a, The House on the Hill, Days of Zikhlag* (2 vols.). 14 Moskowitz Street, Rehovot, Israel.

Smith, Wilfred Cantwell, M.A., Ph.D., D.D.; Canadian university professor; b. 21 July 1916; ed. Upper Canada Coll., Univ. of Grenoble, Univ. of Madrid, American Univ. Cairo, Univ. of Toronto, Cambridge and Princeton Univs. Served as rep. among Muslims of the Canadian Overseas Missions Council, chiefly in Lahore 40-49; Lecturer in Indian and Islamic History, Univ. of the Punjab, Lahore 41-45; Prof. of Comparative Religion 49-63, and Dir. Inst. of Islamic Studies, McGill Univ. 51-63; Pres. American Soc. for the Study of Religion 66-69; now Prof. of World Religions and Dir. Center for the Study of World Religions, Harvard Univ.; Fellow, Royal Soc. of Canada, American Acad. of Arts and Sciences. *Publs. Modern Islam in India* 43 (revised edns. 47, 65), *Islam in Modern History* 57, *Meaning and End of Religion* 63, *Faith of Other Men* 63, *Modernisation of a Traditional Society* 66, *Questions of Religious Truth* 67. 42 Francis Avenue, Cambridge, Mass. 02138, U.S.A.

Sneh, Moshe, M.D.; Israeli physician, editor and politician; b. 6 Jan. 1909; ed. Free Polish Univ. and Univ. of Warsaw.

Fmr. leader of Jewish Radical Party (Leftist Zionists) in Poland (opposed to Pilsudski régime); Editor *Haint* (daily), *Opinia* and *Sfer* (weeklies) 31-39; took part in Polish War against Nazi Germany Sept. 39; later escaped to Palestine; mem. Haganah and Chief Haganah High Command 40-46; headed Jewish Resistance Movement against the British after Second World War; escaped to Paris and headed Jewish illegal immigration to Palestine 47; mem. Exec. Cttee. of Jewish Agency for Palestine 45-47; resgnd. Dec. 47 and joined United Workers' Party (Mapam) which was established in Feb. 48; mem. Central Political Cttee. of Mapam 48-52; mem. Editorial Board of daily *Al-Hamishmar* 48-52; after Mapam split headed Left Socialist Group which joined Communist Party 54; mem. Central Cttee. Political Bureau, Israeli Communist Party and Chief Editor daily *Kol-Haam*; mem. Israeli Parl. (Knesset) 49. *Kol-Haam*, Eilath Street, P.O. Box 2675, Tel-Aviv, Israel.

Snoussi, Ahmed, L.L.D.; Moroccan diplomatist; b. 22 April 1929; ed. Lycées at Meknes and Casablanca, Schools of Law and Political Sciences, Paris. In Nationalist Movement; cabinet attaché to Minister of State in negotiations with France 56; Head, Press Div. Ministry of External Affairs 56; Sec.-Gen. Conf. on status of Tangiers; Moroccan Del. to UNESCO Conf. and UN; Dir.-Gen. Information; mem. Tech. Co-op. Mission to Congo and King's special envoy to Congo 58-59; UN Conciliation Mission to Congo 61; Sec.-Gen. Ministry of Information, Tourism, Handicrafts and Fine Arts 61-65; Ambassador to Nigeria and Cameroon 65-67; Minister of Information 67; Editor numerous magazines, including *Maroc* (Ministry of External Affairs) and *Maroc Documents* (Ministry of Information); Officer Order of the Throne of Morocco, Cross of Courage and Endurance (Mission to Congo), decorations from Jordan and Yugoslavia. Ministry of Information, Rabat, Morocco.

Solh, Takieddine; Lebanese politician and diplomatist; b. 1909; ed. American Univ. of Beirut, and Univ. Saint Joseph, Beirut. Former Civil Servant; fmr. Counsellor, Embassy to United Arab Republic, and to the Arab League; mem. of Parl. 57, and April 64; Pres. Foreign Affairs Comm. 64; Pres. L'Appel Nat. Party (*Al Nida'a El Qasawi*). Chamber of Deputies, Place Riadh El Solh, Beirut; and rue de Damas, Beirut, Lebanon.

Soliman, Mohammed Sidki; United Arab Republic army officer and politician; b. 1919; ed. Faud I Univ., Cairo. Colonel in U.A.R. Army 62; Minister for the High Dam Sept. 62-Sept. 66; Prime Minister Sept. 66-June 67; Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Industry and Power June 67; Pres. Soviet-Egyptian Friendship Soc.; Order of Lenin. Ministry of Industry, Cairo, United Arab Republic.

Solomides, Renos; Cypriot business executive and politician; b. 1928; ed. Univ. of Paris. Former Asst. Gen. Sec. Hellenic Mining Co., Commercial Man. Cyprus Textiles Ltd., Gen. Man. KEO Ltd. (wine firm and brewery); Minister of Finance 62-68; Financial Advisor, Research and Investments Bureau. Research and Investments Bureau, P.O.B. 2444, Nicosia, Cyprus.

Sönmez, Nejat, C.V.O., B.A., M.A.; Turkish journalist and diplomatist; b. 1915; ed. Robert Coll. and Columbia Univ., New York. Standardisation Dept. 38-39, Ministry of Commerce 38-39; Rep. of Information, Broadcasting and Tourism, Ankara and Istanbul 45-49; Press Attaché, London 40-55; Dep. Dir.-Gen. of Information, Broadcasting and Tourism 55-56.

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

60 62 Dir Turkish Information Office San Francisco
56-60 Dir Gen of Information Broadcasting and Tourism
62 63 Under Sec for Ministry of Information Broad-
casting and Tourism 62 63 Press Counsellor London
64 69 Press Adviser to the Minister of Information 69
c/o Ministry of Information Ankara Turkey

Sorouri, Mohammad, Iranian judge b 1897 ed Teheran
Law School and Political Sciences School Teheran
Entered Ministry of Justice 19 Pres Supreme Court of
Appeal 51 66 now retired. Chair of Board Agricultural
Bank of Iran 1st mem. First Senate 1st Minister of
Justice and Minister of the Interior Chair of Board
Bank Mellat Iran Govt. Commr Central Bank of Iran Pres
Nat Insurance Co Man. Dir Iranian Govt Carpet Com-
pany
Supreme Court of Appeal Teheran Iran

Soteriades, Antis, Cypriot lawyer and diplomatist
b 19 Sept 1924 ed London Univ and Gray's Inn
London.

In legal practice Nicosia 51 56 detained on suspicion of
assisting EOKA 56 escaped and became EOKA leader for
Kyrenia district mem Exec Edma Party May 59
High Commr to U.K Oct 60 66 Ambassador to United
Arab Republic 66- concurrently to Lebanon, Syria 67
Knight of Order of St Gregory the Great (Vatican) 63
Embassy of Cyprus Cairo U.A.R.

Sotodeh, Fatholah, BS MA Iranian engineer and
politician b 1924 ed Polytechnical Inst of Teheran and
New York Univ

Engineer with Vanak Metalworks 45 46 studies in U.S.A
then Senior Engineer and Asst to Prof of Industrial
Engineering New York Univ and consulting engineer
46-58 Consulting Engineer Plan Org of Iran 58 Man
Dir Vanak Metalworks and Rubber Factory 59-64 Iran
Fisheries 64-65 Minister of P.T.T 65 Prof of Industrial
Management Teheran Polytechnical Inst Iran Novin
Party

Publs research into the use of sunlight in water heaters
water distillers and sun stoves
Ministry of Posts Telegraphs and Telephones Old
Shumran Road Teheran Iran

Soulioti, Mrs Stella, Cypriot lawyer and politician b
1920 ed Limassol Victoria Girls Coll Alexandria St
James Secretarial Coll London and Gray's Inn, London
Worked in Cyprus Govt Public Information Office in
W.A.A.F Middle East in Second World War qualified as
barrister after war joined family practice Minister of
Justice Aug 60-70 concurrently Minister of Health 64 66
Pres Cyprus Red Cross Chair Scholarships Selection
Board
Ministry of Justice Nicosia Cyprus

Sowayel, Ibrahim 'Abd Allah Al-, Saudi Arabian diplo-
matist b 31 Aug 1916 ed Saudi Inst Mecca and Cairo
Univ

Taught Arabic literature for a year in school for Prepara-
tion of (Student) Missions Abroad Mecca First Sec Saudi
Legation Cairo 45 later Chargé d'Affaires Beirut
Counsellor Ministry of Foreign Affairs Jeddah 54 56
Minister and Deputy Foreign Minister 56 Amb to Iraq
57 60 Minister of Foreign Affairs 60-62 Head of Political
Branch of Royal Diwan and Special Adviser to King with
rank of Minister April Sept 62 Minister of Agriculture
Oct 62 Aug 64 Amb to U.S.A 64 concurrently to
Mexico 65

Royal Embassy of Saudi Arabia 2800 Woodland Avenue
N.W. Washington D.C. U.S.A

Spinelli, Pier Pasquale, LL.D. Ital an diplomatist b 1902
ed Univ of Naples
Vice-Consul N.Y.C. 28 and Buffalo 30 Consul N.Y.C. 33
First Sec Italian Legation Havana Cuba 38 40 and China

40-47 Chief of Economic Div Italian Ministry of Foreign
Affairs 47 50 Dir Diplomatic Cabinet of the Admin of
Italian Somaliland 50 53 Sec Gen Italian Somaliland
53 55 Alternate Dir Gen of Emigration Italian Ministry
of Foreign Affairs Rome 55 Under Sec Dir of the
European Office of the UN 58 66 Dir Gen UN Office
Geneva Jan 66 Special Rep of Sec-Gen of UN in Jordan
58 in Yemen 63 64 in Cyprus 64 67 Under Sec Gen of
UN 68-
United Nations Secretariat Palais des Nations Geneva
Switzerland

Spuler, Bertold, DR. PHIL. German university professor
b 5 Dec 1911 ed. Univs of Heidelberg Munich Hamburg
and Breslau
Collaborator Soc for Silesian History 34 35 Asst. Dept.
of East European History Univ of Berlin and Co editor
Jahrbucher für Geschichte Osteuropas 35 37 Asst. Dept.
of Near Eastern Studies Univ of Göttingen 37 38 Dozent
Univ of Göttingen 38 42 Full Prof Univ of Munich 42
Göttingen 45 Hamburg 48 Hon Dr Theol (Berne)
Hon Dr ès Lettres (Bordeaux)

Publs include *Die europäische Diplomatie in Konstantinopel
bis 1739* 35 *Die Minderheitenschulen der Osmanischen
Türkei von der Reformzeit bis zum Weltkrieg* 36 *Die Mon-
golen in Iran Politik Verwaltung und Kultur der Ilkhanzeit
1220 1350* 39 3rd edn 68 *Die Goldene Horde Die Mongolen
in Russland 1223 1302* 43 2nd edn 65 *Die Gegenwarts-
lage der Osttürken in ihrer staatlichen und volklichen Umwelt* 48
2nd edn 69 *Geschichte der islamischen Länder im Überblick
I Chalifenzeit II Mongolenzeit* 52 53 *Iran in frühislam-
ischer Zeit Politik Kultur Verwaltung und öffentliches
Leben* 633 1055 52 *Regenten und Regierungen der Welt* 53
2nd edn 62 64 (with additions) 66 71 *Wissenschaft
Forschungsbericht Der Vordere Orient in islamischer Zeit*
54 *The Age of the Caliphs* 60 2nd edn 68 *The Age of
the Mongols* 60 2nd edn 68 *Geschichte der Morgenländischen
Kirchen* 61 *Les Mongols et l'Europe* 61 *Wustenföld
Mahlische Vergleichstabellen zur muslimischen iran-
ischen und orient christlichen Zeitrechnung* 3rd edn 61
Innerasien seit dem Aufkommen der Türken 65 *Geschichte
des Mongolen nach Zeugnissen des 13 u 14 Jahrhunderts* 68
Die historische und geographische Literatur Irans 68 *Der
Islam Saeculärweltgeschichte III VI* 66-71 *Kultur
geschichte des Islams* 71
Mittelweg 90 Hamburg 13 German Federal Republic

Spyridakis, Constantinos, PH.D. Cypriot educationist
and politician b 1903 ed Pancyprrian Gymnasium Nicosia
and Univs of Athens and Berlin

Teacher Pancyprrian Gymnasium Nicosia 23 31 34 35
Asst Headmaster 35 36 Principal 36-60 Chair Greek
Board of Education 59 60 Pres Greek Communal Chamber
60-65 Minister of Educ 65 70 Pres mem and official
of numerous Academic and Scientific orgs Grand Cross of
Royal Order of Phoenix (Greece) Gold Medal of Goethe
Inst Munich etc

Publs *Evagoras the First King of Salamis* (German 35
Greek 45) *An Outline of the History of Cyprus* 58 *The
Kings of Cyprus* (Greek) 63 *A Brief History of Cyprus* 63
(Greek 64) etc
Ministry of Education St Helen Street 10 Nicosia Cyprus

Stark, Freya Madeline, C.B.E. British explorer and
writer b 31 Jan 1893 ed School of Oriental Studies and
privately

Travelled in Middle East and Iran 27 39 and in South
Arabia 34 35 37 38 joined Ministry of Information Sept
39 sent to Aden 39 Cairo 40 Baghdad as attaché to
Embassy 42 U.S.A and Canada 44 Hon LL.D. (Glasgow
Univ) 52 Hon D Litt (Durban) 70 C.B.E 53 recipient
of the Founders Medal (Royal Geographical Soc.) of
Mungo Park Medal (Royal Scottish Geographical Soc.)
Richard Burton Memorial Medal (Royal Asiatic Soc.) and

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

of Sir Percy Sykes Medal (Royal Central Asian Soc.).
 Publs. *The Valley of the Assassins* 34, *The Southern Gates of Arabia* 36, *Baghdad Sketches* 37, *Seen in the Hadhrumaut* 38, *A Winter in Arabia* 40, *Letters from Syria*, 42, *East is West* 45, *Perseus in the Wind* 48, *Traveller's Prelude* 50, *Beyond Euphrates* 51, *Winter in Arabia* 52, *Ionia* 54, *The Lycian Shore* 56, *Alexander's Path* 58, *Riding to the Tigris* 59, *Dust in the Lion's Paw* 61, *The Journeys Echo* (an anthology) 63, *Rome on the Euphrates* 66, *The Zodiac Arch, Time, Movement and Space in Landscape* 69, *The Minaret of Djaw* 70.

Montoria, S. Zenone degli Ezzelini, Treviso, Italy; and c/o John Murray, 50 Albermarle Street, London, W.1, England.

Steel, David Edward Charles, B.A.; British company director; b. 29 Nov. 1916; ed. Rugby School and Univ. Coll., Oxford.

Officer, Q.R. Lancers, in France, the Middle East, N. Africa and Italy 40-45; Admitted as solicitor 48, worked for Linklaters and Paines 48-50; Legal Dept., British Petroleum Co. Ltd. 50-56, N.Y. 58, Pres. B.P. (N. America) Ltd. 59-61, Regional Co-ordinator, Western Hemisphere, B.P. Co. Ltd. 61-62, Managing Dir. B.P. Co. Ltd. 65; Man. Dir. Kuwait Oil Co. Ltd. 62-65, Dir. 65; D.S.O. 40, M.C. 45.

37 Ormonde Gate, London, S.W.3, England.

Stino, Kamal Ramzy; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) politician.

Minister of Supplies 59, 62-63; Dep. Prime Minister for Supply and Home Trade 64-66; mem. Gen. Secretariat Arab Socialist Union 66-.

Arab Socialist Union, Cairo, United Arab Republic.

Stylianou, Petros Savva; Cypriot politician; b. 8 June 1933; ed. Pancyprrian Gymnasium and Univ. of Athens.

Served with Panhellenic Cttee. of the Cyprus Struggle (PEKA) and Nat. Union of Cypriot Univ. Students (EFEK), Pres. EFEK 53-54; Co-founder Dauntless Leaders of the Cypriot Fighters Org. (IKARI); joined liberation movement of Cyprus May 55, arrested and imprisoned in Kyrenia Castle Sept. 55, but escaped; leader Nat. Striking Group; arrested Jan. 56 and sentenced to 15 years imprisonment; transferred to English prison, repatriated March 59; mem. Central Cttee. United Democratic Re-creation Front (EDMA) April 59; Deputy Sec.-Gen. Cyprus Labour Confederation (SEK) June 59, Sec.-Gen. Nov. 60-Jan. 62) founded Cyprus Democratic Labour Federation (DEOK); Jan. 62, Sec.-Gen. 62-; mem. House of Rep. July 60, Sec. of the House Aug. 60-Feb. 62; Man. Editor *Ergatiki Foni* (Voice of the Working Class) newspaper Nov. 60-Jan. 62; Man. Ed. DEOK newspaper *Ergatikos* (The Workers' Struggle) Feb. 62-Feb. 63; Man. Editor political newspaper *Allagi* (Change) March-June 63; mem. Co-ordination Cttee. of 28 associated vocational and scientific orgs. 64-66; Pres. Pancyprrian Org. for the Disabled; founder Pancyprrian Olive Produce Org. 67; Man. Dir. *Kyprianos Logos* (Scientific Cypriot) 69-; mem. numerous cttees. Publs. *The Kyrenia Castle* 66, *The Epic of Central Prisons* 67, *Hours of Resurrection* 67, *Problems on Education* 68. 10 Kimon Street, Engomi, Nicosia, Cyprus.

Sükan, Faruk; Turkish physician and politician; b. 1921.

Mayor of Eregli, Konya 58-60; Deputy for Konya 61-; fmr. Minister of Health; Minister of Interior Nov. 65-68; Deputy Chair. Justice Party. Ministry of the Interior, Ankara, Turkey.

Sulaiman, Ali Haider; Iraqi diplomatist; b. 1905; ed. American Univ. of Beirut.

Govt. official at Ministries of Education, Interior and Foreign Affairs 30-41; private business 41-47; mem. Parl. 47-54; Minister of Social Affairs 47-48, of Public Works and Communications 49-50, of Development 53-54, of Economics 54; Ambassador to W. Germany 56-59, to

United States 59-64; also Minister to Cuba June 60-64; also Ambassador to Canada 61-64; Under-Sec. of State for Foreign Affairs 59, 64; del. to UN 56, 59, 60, 61, 62, 63; Amb. to Switzerland 64-66, to Italy 66-68; private business, Baghdad 68-.

Publ. *History of Modern European Civilisation* (Arabic) 31. Baghdad, Iraq.

Suleyman, Hikmet Sami; Iraqi diplomatist; b. 1912; ed. Baghdad Coll., American Univ. of Beirut and Georgetown Univ., Washington, D.C.

With Ministry for Foreign Affairs 33-; Attaché Ankara 36-39; Acting Consul Istanbul 39; Sec. in charge of Foreign Exchange Control, Nat. Bank of Iraq 46-49; Attaché Beirut 49-50, Washington 50-54, Karachi 54-55; Consul-Gen. Jerusalem 55-58, Damascus 58-60; Asst. Under-Sec. Ministry for Foreign Affairs 60-61; Minister Bonn 61-63; Amb. to France 63-66, to Morocco 66-69; awarded Grosses Bundesverdienstkreuz.

Publs. *Oil in Iraq, Rules of Diplomacy and Protocol* 61. c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Baghdad, Iraq.

Sultan, Jamil, Litt.D. (Arabic Literature, Sorbonne, Paris); Syrian educationist; b. 1909; ed. Damascus and Paris.

Teacher of Arabic Literature in Secondary School of Damascus from 28-45; Dir. Board of Education, Dept. of Hauran 45; Prof. of Literature, Syrian Univ. 47-.

Publs. *Nahj el-Balagh* 40, *Jarir* 37, *Metre and Rhyme in Arabic Poetry* 37, *Abou-Tammam* 45, *The Art of the Novel and El Makamat in Arabic Literature*, *Al-Hoolayah and El Nabighah* 45, *Ibn Rawaha—Poet of the Prophet Mahomet* 48.

Hamidieh, Damascus, Syrian Arab Republic.

Sultan ibn Abdulaziz, H.R.H. Prince; Saudi Arabian politician; b. 1924.

Brother of H.M. King Faisal; fmr. Minister of Communications; Minister of Defence and Aviation 62-; Ministry of Defence, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia.

Sunay, Cevdet; Turkish army officer and politician; b. 10 Feb. 1900; ed. Kuleli Military Lyceum, Istanbul and Military Acad.

With Turkish Army 16-66; served in Palestine 17, later under Atatürk; Capt. 30; Officer Operations Dept. Gen. Staff 33; Teacher Mil. Acad. 42-47; Comdr. Artillery Regt. 47; Chief Operations Dept. Gen. Staff; Gen. 59; Deputy Chief Gen. Staff Aug. 58-May 60; C-in-C. Land Forces 60, Chief of Staff Aug. 60-66; Senator 66; Pres. of Turkey March 66-; Hon. K.C.B. 67. Office of the President, Ankara, Turkey.

Sussmann, Joel, LL.B., DR.JUR.; Israeli judge; b. Poland 24 Oct. 1910; ed. Univs. of Frankfurt, Heidelberg, Berlin, and Cambridge.

In private legal practice 38-49; Mil. Prosecutor, Israel Defence Army 49; Judge, Supreme Court of Israel 53-.

Publs. *Wechsel- und Scheckrecht Palästinas*, *Bills of Exchange*, *Dine'i Staroth*, *Dine'i Borerut*, *Sidrei Hadin Haesrachi* (Law of Civil Procedure).

13 Balfour Street, Jerusalem; and The Supreme Court, Jerusalem, Israel.

T

Taba, Abdol Hossein, M.D.; Iranian physician; b. 1912; ed. Birmingham and London Univs.

Former Dir.-Gen. of Health, Teheran; Vice-Pres. World Health Assembly 51; Deputy Regional Dir. WHO Eastern Mediterranean Regional Office 52-57, Regional Dir. 57-; World Health Organization Eastern Mediterranean Regional Office, P.O.B. 1517, Alexandria, U.A.R.

Tabbah, Bichara D Lebanese lawyer b 1891 ed. Univs of Paris and Lyons
 Advocate Egyptian Mixed Courts 14 30 Judge Lebanon 30 48 Hon Councillor of State Hon. Pres. Court of Appeal Beirut on teaching staff Faculty of Law Univ Saunt Joseph Beirut 38 48 58-61 Hon Prof 61 corresp mem Institut de France awards include Prix Joseph Saillet (Inst de France) Gold Medal of Merit (Lebanon) Officier d'Instruction Publique (France) Officier de la Légion d'Honneur (France) Commr Order of the Cedar of St Gregory the Great
Publs Du Heurt à l'Harmonie des Droits 36 Propriété Privée et Régime Foncier 2 vols 47 50 Droit Politique et Humanisme 55 De la Personne Humaine à la Communauté Humaine 59
 Rue Justinien Beirut Lebanon

Tagmac, Gen Memduh, Turkish army officer b 1904 ed Army War Coll Artillery Coll War Acad
 Commander of Artillery Maintenance battery battalion then Chief Gen Staff Depts Div and Corps instructor in War Acad Commr School for Gendarmery Officers Gendarmery Brigade C in C Army C in C Land Forces now Chief of Turkish Gen Staff
 Genelkurmay Baskani Ankara Turkey

Taher, Abdulhady H, PH D Saudi Arabian government official b 1930 ed. Ain Shams Univ Cairo and California Univ
 Entered Saudi Arabian Govt. service 55 Dir Gen. Ministry of Petroleum and Mineral Resources 60 Gov Gen. Petroleum and Mineral Org (PETROMIN) 62 Man Dir Saudi Arabian Fertilizers Co (SAFICO) Dir Coll of Petroleum and Minerals Saudi Arabian Railroads Arabian Oil Co (ARAMCO) Hon mem. American Petroleum Engineers Asscn.
Publ Income Determination in the International Petroleum Industry 66
 PETROMIN P O B 737 Riyadh Saudi Arabia

Taher, Ali Nassouh Al-, Jordanian politician b 1906 ed El Hamiya Secondary School Cairo American Univ Cairo Univs of Nancy and Paris
 Under Secretary for Agriculture 46-60 Minister of Agriculture and Construction and Devt 60-62 63 Senator 62 Pres of East Ghor Authority Amman 62 Vice Pres Devt Board 63 Ambassador to Iran and Afghanistan 66 several decorations
Publs The Olive Tree 47 Phylloxera 47 Local and Foreign Variet of Apprets The Alphabetical Openings of Chapters in the Koran 54 The Eternal Soul 60 History of the Arab Tribes in Jordan 67 Genealogy of the Arab Tribes in the Arab World 68
 Embassy of Jordan P O Box 1573 Teheran Iran

Taimur, Sultan Said bin, Former Sultan of Muscat and Oman b 13 Aug 1910 ed India and Iraq
 President Council of Ministers 29 32 succeeded his father Sayyid Sir Taimur Bin Faisal as the 15th ruling member of his dynasty deposed by Qabas bin Said (q v) 70

Tajaddod, Mostafa, Iranian banker and politician b 1918 ed secondary school Teheran and in Europe
 In Europe 33 45 Deputy Gov Industrial Bank of Iran 45 50 Chair Board of Dirrs Bank Bazargani Iran (Commercial Bank of Iran) 50-51 mem mem of Majlis now mem Senate 51r Minister of Commerce
 Bank Bazargani Iran Maiden Sepah Teheran Iran

Takreddine Bahige Mahmoud, Lebanese politician b 1909 Baalbine ed Université St. Joseph Beirut.
 Barnster 31 47 Deputy for Mont Liban 47 Minister of Agriculture 49 Deputy for Chouf 51 53 60 64 Minister of Social Affairs and Health 53 60 51r Pres Parl Comm

on the Admin of Justice Minister of Economy 64 65
 Minister of Information 68-69
 Rue Verdun Beirut Lebanon
 Telephone 2267675

Takla, Philippe, Lebanese politician b 1915 ed Univ Law School Beirut
 Law practice Beirut 35 45 M P 45 47 Minister of Nat Economy and Communication 45 46 48 49 Minister of Foreign Affairs 49 61-64 64-65 Gov Bank of Lebanon 64 66 66-67 Minister of Foreign Affairs and of Justice 66
 Perm Rep to UN 67 68
 c/o Permanent Mission of Lebanon to the United Nations
 866 United Nations Plaza Room 533 535 New York N Y 10017 USA

Tal Joset, Israeli composer b 1910 Poland ed Berlin State Acad of Mus c
 Went to Israel 34 taught piano and composition at Jerusalem Acad of Music 37 Dir 48 52 now Head Dept. of Musicology Hebrew Univ Jerusalem Dir Israel Centre for Electronic Music 61 has appeared with Israel Philharmonic Orchestra and others as pianist and conductor concert tours of Europe USA Far East
 UNESCO Scholarship for research in electronic music
 Works include *Saul at Ein Dor 57 Amnon and Tamar 61 Ashmedai 69 (operas) Symphony No 1 53 No 2 60 Concerto for Harpsichord and Electronics 64 Double Concerto (for violin and violoncello) 70 other cantatas quintets music for ballet and several books on the theory of music*
 Department of Musicology Hebrew University Jerusalem Home 3 Dvora Haneyviah Street Jerusalem Israel
 Telephone 30211 (Office) 28736 (Home)

Tal, Wasfi El, Jordanian politician b 1919 Irbid ed American Univ of Beirut.
 Teacher 41 46 British Army officer 46-49 Dept. of Statistics 49 Asst Dir Income Tax Dept 49 55 Dir of Press Bureau 55 Counsellor Jordan Embassy Bonn 55 57 Chief of Royal Protocol 57 58 Chargé d'Affaires Teheran 58 59 Chief of Nat Guidance 59-61 Ambassador to Iraq 61 62 Prime Minister and Minister of Defence 62-63 65 March 67 Chief of the Royal Cabinet 66-June 67 Prime Minister Oct 70
 c/o The Royal Cabinet Amman Jordan

Talal Ibn Abdulaziz, Emir, Saudi Arabian Prince b 1930 ed secondary school
 Son of the late King Abdul ibn Saud half brother of former King Saud Minister of Communications 53 54 Ambassador to France 55 56 Minister of Finance 61
 Cairo United Arab Republic.

Taleb Ahmed, M D Algerian doctor and politician b 5 Jex 1922 ed Univ of Paris
 Son of Sheikh Bachir Brahimi spiritual leader of Islam in Algeria Dir Jeune Musulman 52 54 Union Général des Etudiants Musulmans Algériens 55 56 French Fed of the F L N 56 57 imprisoned in France 57-62 in Algeria 64-65 Doctor Hospital Mustapha Algiers 62-64 Minister of Nat. Def 65-70 Minister of Information and Culture 70
Publs Contribution à l'histoire de la médecine arabe au Maghreb 63 Lettres de la Prison 66
 Ministry of Information and Culture Algiers Algeria

Taleghani, Khali n sc Iranian civil engineer and politician b 13 Sept 1913 ed American Coll of Teheran and Univ of Birmingham
 Junior engineer England 37 39 Engineer Persian Army 39-41 Chief Engineer Technical Dir of Ebtakar and other construction companies and Golpayegan Water Co 41 51 Minister of Agriculture Dec 51 June 52 July 52 March 53 and 55 56 Minister of State June 56-59 Dir Taleghani Tashakori Co (consulting engineers) Man. Karaj Dam Authority 54 59 Chair Industrial and Mining

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Development Bank of Iran 60-62; Dir. Taleghani-Doftari (Consulting Engineers) 60-; Chair. B. F. Goodrich Tyre Manufacturing Co. 60-; Chair. Pars Paper Co. 67-, Iran-California Co. 70-; Pres. Iranian Asscn. of Consulting Engineers; Fellow A.S.C.E.; Tadj and Homayoon Medals. Baghe-Bank Street Golhak, Tehran, Iran.

Talhouni, Bahjat Al-; Jordanian politician; b. 1913; ed. Damascus Univ.

Former Judge, Kerak; fmr. Minister of Interior; Chief of Royal Court 55-60; Prime Minister Aug. 60-61, 64-65, 67-March 69, Aug. 69-June 70; Minister of Foreign Affairs 61-62; Chief of Royal Cabinet 63-64; mem. House of Notables 65-; Personal Rep. of the King; mem. Consultative Council 67-.

Amman, Jordan.

Talib, Maj.-Gen. Naji; Iraqi soldier and politician; b. 1917; ed. Iraqi Staff Coll. and Sandhurst, England.

Military Attaché, London 54-55; Commr. Basra Garrison 57-58; Minister of Social Affairs 58-59; lived abroad 59-62; Minister of Industry March 63-Nov. 64; mem. U.A.R.-Iraq Joint Presidency Council May 64-65; Minister of Foreign Affairs Nov. 64-Sept. 65; Prime Minister and Minister of Petroleum Affairs 66-May 67.

Baghdad, Iraq.

Talu, Naim; Turkish banker; b. 22 July 1919; ed. Faculty of Economics, Istanbul Univ.

Joined Türkiye Cumhuriyet Merkez Bankasi (Central Bank of Repub. of Turkey) 46, Chief 52, Asst. Dir. of Ankara Branch 55-58, Dir. of Exchange Dept. 58-62, Asst. Gen. Dir. 62-66, Acting Pres. and Gen. Dir. 66-67, Pres. and Gen. Dir. 67-70, Gov. 70-; Chair. Foreign Investment Encouragement Cttee. 67-68; Chair. Banks Asscn. of Turkey 67-; Sec.-Gen. Cttee. for Regulations of Bank Credits 67-70; mem. Ankara Educ. Foundation, Soc. for Protection of Children in Turkey.

Türkiye Cumhuriyet Merkez Bankasi, Bankalar Caddesi 48, Ankara, Turkey.

Telephone: 11-51-62; 10-53-40.

Tannous, Afif I., B.A., M.A., Ph.D.; American government official (ret'd.); b. 25 Sept. 1905; ed. American High School, Tripoli, Lebanon, American Univ. of Beirut, St. Lawrence Univ., Canton N.Y. and Cornell Univ.

Admin. position with British Govt. in Sudan 29-31; with Education Dept., Govt. of Palestine and Rural Improvement Programme 31-33; taught Social Science at American Univ. of Beirut and directed rural improvement work 33-37; taught Social Science at Univ. of Minn., U.S.A. 40-43; joined U.S. Dept. of Agriculture, as Middle East specialist, later Head of Middle East Div.; Deputy Dir. U.S. Operations Mission for Lebanon 51-54; Co-ordinator, Dept. of Agriculture Services to Int. Co-operation Admin. 54-62; mem. U.S. Agricultural Mission to Middle East 46; FAO Agricultural Mission, Greece 46, UN Econ. Survey Mission, Middle East 49; Chief, Africa and Middle East Branch, Foreign Agricultural Service 56-61; Area Officer Near East and Africa 61-71; Deputy Dir. U.S. Exhibit, Cairo Int. Agricultural Exhbn. 61; Fellow, American Asscn. for Advancement of Science, American Geographical Soc., American Sociological Asscn., American Farm Econ. Asscn.; Soc. for Int. Devt.; Advisory Editor *Middle East Journal*; U.S. Citizen 43-.

6912 Oak Court, Annandale, Va., U.S.A.

Tarazi, Salah El Dine, L. en D., D. en D.; Syrian diplomatist; b. 1919; ed. Coll. des Frères, Damascus and Faculté Française de Droit, Beirut.

Lawyer 40-47; Lecturer and Asst. Prof. of Law, Damascus Univ. 46-48; Ministry of Foreign Affairs 49-50; Chargé d'Affaires, Brussels 51-53; Alternate Perm. Rep. to UN 53-56; Sec.-Gen. Ministry of Foreign Affairs 56-57; Ambassador to U.S.S.R. 57-58; Ambassador of United Arab Republic to Czechoslovakia 58-59, to People's

Republic of China 59-61; Syrian Ambassador to People's Republic of China 61-62; Perm. Rep. of Syria to UN 62-64; Ambassador to U.S.S.R., also accredited to Poland 65; Syrian, Belgian and Czech awards.

Publs. *Les Services Publics Libano-Syriens* 46; articles concerning law and political science in Arabic and French.

c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Damascus, Syrian Arab Republic.

Tariki, Abdallah; Saudi Arabian oil executive; b. 1919; ed. Univ. of Cairo and Texas.

Studied at Univ. of Texas and worked as trainee with Texaco Inc. in W. Texas and California 45-49; Dir. Oil Supervision Office, Eastern Province, Saudi Arabia (under Ministry of Finance) 49-55; Dir.-Gen. of Oil and Mineral Affairs (Saudi Arabia) 55-60; Minister of Oil and Mineral Resources 60-62; Dir. Arabian American Oil Co. 59-62; Leader Saudi Arabian Del. at Arab Oil Congresses 59, 60; Independent Consultant 62-; adviser to United Arab Republic, Algerian and Kuwait Govts. on oil matters.

c/o Ministry of Economy, Damascus, Syrian Arab Republic.

Tarraf, Dr. Nureddin; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) physician and politician.

Former Pres. Exec. Council of Egyptian Region of U.A.R.; Minister of Health, U.A.R. 61-62; mem. Presidency Council 62-; Minister of Health, Egypt 52-58; Pres. Exec. Council of Egyptian Region of U.A.R. 58-60; U.A.R. Minister of Health 60-61; Chair. Board National Bank of Egypt 61-62; mem. U.A.R. Presidency Council 62-64; Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Justice, Labour and Youth Affairs 64-66.

c/o Ministry of Justice, Cairo, U.A.R.

Tartakower, Arie, DR. IUR. D.N.R.R.POL.; Israeli (b. Polish) university professor; b. 24 Sept. 1897; ed. Univ. of Vienna. Co-founder Zionist Labour Movement and Chair. Zionist Labour Party, Poland 22-39; Lecturer, Inst. of Jewish Sciences, Warsaw 32-39; Dir. Dept. of Relief and Rehabilitation of World Jewish Congress (U.S.A.) 39-46; fmr. Prof., Lecturer and Head, Dept. of Sociology of the Jews, Hebrew Univ., Jerusalem; Chair. Israel Exec., World Jewish Congress; mem. Gen. Council World Zionist Org.; mem. World Secr. Zionist Labour Movement; Co-founder and fmr. Pres. Israel Asscn. for UN; Chair. World Asscn. for Hebrew Language and Culture. Publs. include: *History of the Jewish Labour Movement*, *Jewish Emigration and Jewish Policy of Migration*, *The Jewish Refugee*, *Jewish Wanderings in the World*, *The Wandering Man*, *The Jewish Society*, *History of Jewish Colonization* (2 vols.), *The Tribes of Israel* (3 vols.).

1 Ben Yehuda Road, Jerusalem, Israel.

Taşkent, Arif Kâzım; Turkish businessman.

Founder and Pres. of Board of Dirs. Yapı ve Kredi Bankası (Construction and Credit Bank); former Dir.-Gen. Sugar Industries Administration.

Yapı ve Kredi Bankası, Genel Müdürlüğü, Istanbul, Turkey.

Tazi, Abderrahman; Moroccan industrial engineer and international banking official; b. 1929; ed. Univ. of Lille. Industrial Engineer 49-53; Dir. of Industrial Production, Ministry of Commerce and Industry 56; Econ. Counsellor, Moroccan Embassy, Bonn 57-58; First Counsellor, Perm. Moroccan Mission to UN 61, Moroccan Rep. to Econ. Comm. to UN 61; Dir.-Gen. of Econ. Affairs, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Rabat 62-; Exec. Dir. for Afghanistan, Algeria, Ghana, Indonesia, Cambodia, Libya, Greece, Tunisia, Morocco, Int. Bank for Reconstruction and Devt. 62-.

International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, 1818 H Street, N.W., Washington, D.C., U.S.A.

Tokoah, Yosef; Israeli diplomatist; b. 4 March 1925; ed. Université L'Aurore, China, and Harvard Univ. Instructor in Int. Relations, Harvard Univ. 47-48; Dep.

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Legal Adviser, Ministry of Foreign Affairs 49-53, Dir Armistice Affairs, and Head Israel Dels to Armistice Comms with Egypt, Jordan, Syria and Lebanon 53-58, Dep Perm. Rep to UN 58, Act Perm Rep 59-60. Ambassador to Brazil 60-62, to USSR 62-65, Asst Dir-Gen. Ministry of Foreign Affairs 66-68, Perm. Rep to UN 68.
Permanent Mission of Israel to the United Nations, 15 East 70th Street, New York, N.Y. 10021, U.S.A.

Telli Boubastar, Diallo; Guinean diplomatist b 1925, ed Ecole William Ponty, Dakar, Ecole Nationales de France Outremer and Univ. de Paris
Former Judge, Senegal, served on staff of French High Commr, Dakar, Sec.-Gen. Grand Council, French West Africa 57-58, Amb to U.S.A. and Perm. Rep to the UN 58-61; Vice-Pres 17th Session of UN Gen. Assembly 61-62, Chair special Cttee on Apartheid of UN Gen. Assembly 63-64, Sec.-Gen. Org. of African Unity Aug 64
Organization of African Unity, P.O.B. 3243, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

Terzioğlu, C. Fethi, M.D., Turkish politician and author, b 31 Jan 1916, ed Faculty of Medicine, Univ. of Istanbul, Texas and Baylor Univs
Served in Turkish army for twenty years, active in politics since 57; Chief Del Asian Peoples Anti Communist Leagues and World Anti-Communist Leagues Corp 63-64, mem. APAC Exec Cttee., Pres Cttee for Foreign Affairs in the Senate; Pres Turkish Parl group in the Common Market 65, mem. Directing Cttee Justice Party 62-63, Editor in Chief Turkish Encyclopedia.
Publs *Rabindranath Tagore* 38, *Muhterem Ahmed Hikmet* 51, *Enis Behic Koryurek* 52, *No Fascist, but Communist* 62, *Our Views on Foreign Policy* (4 languages) 63, *Two Declarations* 63, *The Shamewall* (Berlin) 64, *I am disclosing* 65, *The Holy Lands* 65, *Cyprus and Communism* 66, *The Socialist and Communist Activities in Turkey (1910-1960)* 67, *The Russia I saw of Today* 68
Bakanlikar, P.K. 250, Ankara, Turkey

Tewfik, Hamad; Sudanese politician, b 1904, ed Gordon Coll Khartoum
Joined Finance Dept. 24 and became Inspector of Accounts, Dept. of Agriculture, founder mem Graduates Congress, Sec. Nat. Front Party until formation of Nat. Unionist Party of which he became exec mem 52, mem. House of Reps for Messelmya 54, Minister of Finance and Economics 54-56, of Communications Feb July 56, of Commerce, Industry, and Supply July 56-58, mem. of Senate March July 58 Man Dir Agricultural Bank of Sudan, Aug 58-64, Chair 65-66
Agricultural Bank of Sudan, P.O.B. 1363, Khartoum, Sudan

Tewfik, Mohammed Al-; Saudi Arabian politician, b 1917, ed Sham a Coll of Literature and Islamic, Medina. Former teacher, fmr clerk Post and Telegraph Dept 41-58, rose to Chief Sec Council of Ministers, ret'd 58, business and press activities 58-62, Minister of Communications 62, of Pilgrimage and Religious Endowment Affairs 63 70
Ministry of Communications, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia

Tewfik, Zakaria; Egyptian cotton executive, b 1920, ed Cairo Univ
With Bank Misr, then Commercial Attaché, Belgium, Spain, Dir-Gen Exchange Control Office 61; Under Sec for Cotton Affairs, Ministry of Economy 61-62, Dir-Gen Cotton Org 61-62 U.A.R. Del to many int cotton confs General Organization for Cotton 151 Mohamed Farid Street, Cairo, United Arab Republic

Teymour, Mahmoud; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) writer and playwright, b 1894; ed Egyptian schools Member Acad. for the Arabic Language, Cairo, Decoration

of Merit 63, of Arts and Sciences 64; State Prize for Literature 50, 64
Publs in Arabic Some fifty works, including collections of short stories, novels, plays, memoirs, essays, etc., in French. *La Fille du Diable* 42, *Le Courtier de la Mort* 51, *La Belle aux cheveux charmes* 52, *Fleur de Cabaret* 53, *Bonne Fête* 54, *L'Amour par-delà l'Inconnu* 55, in English *Tales from Egyptian Life* 48, *The Call of the Unknown* 65
6 Yahia Ibrahim Street, Zamalek, Cairo, and c/o Academy for the Arabic Language, Cairo, U.A.R.

Thacher, Nicholas Gilman; American diplomatist, b 20 Aug 1915 Kansas City, Mo, ed Princeton and Fordham Univs and Univ of Pennsylvania
Banker New York City 37-42 entered foreign service 47, Third Sec., Karachi 47-49 Vice-Consul Calcutta 50-51 Consul 52, Indian Affairs Officer, Dept of State 53-54 Officer in charge of Afghanistan Pakistan Affairs 54-56, First Sec., Baghdad 56-58, Nat War Coll 58-59, Deputy Dir Office of Near Eastern Affairs, Dept of State 59-62 Counsellor Jeddah 62-63, Minister Counsellor, Tehran 65-70 Amb to Saudi Arabia 70-
American Embassy, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia, Home 2565 Larkin Street, San Francisco, Calif, U.S.A.

Thacker, Thomas William, M.A.; British university professor, b 6 Nov 1911, ed City of Oxford School, Univs of Oxford and Berlin.
Goldsmiths' Research Scholar, Oxford and Berlin 33-35, Senior Research Student, Oxford 35-37, Lecturer in Semitic Languages, Univ Coll of Bangor, North Wales 37-38, Reader in Hebrew, Univ of Durham 38-40, Foreign Office 40-45 Prof of Hebrew and Oriental Languages, Univ of Durham 45-51, Prof of Semitic Philology and Dir School of Oriental Studies, Univ of Durham 51-52 Foreign mem. Royal Flemish Acad 28 Church Street, Durham, England

Thani, Sheikh Ahmed bin Ali Al-; Ruler of Qatar Succeeded Oct 1960 on the abdication of his father, Sheikh Ali bin Abdullah bin Qasim al Thani.
Palace of the Ruler, Doha, Qatar

Theocharis, Reginos D., D.Phil. (London), Cypriot economist and banker; b 10 Feb 1929, ed Highest School of Economics, Athens, Univ of Aberdeen and London School of Economics
Inspector of Commercial Education, Cyprus 53-56, at London School of Economics 56-58, Chief, Economic Development Unit, Bank of Greece, Athens 58-59, Minister of Finance in Cyprus Provisional Govt March 59-Aug 60, Minister of Finance Aug 60-62, Governor, Bank of Cyprus Ltd 62-63
Publ. *Early Developments in Mathematical Economics* 61 Bank of Cyprus Ltd, Nicosia, Cyprus

Theodosios VI; Greek ecclesiastic, born in Lebanon; ed theological schools of Halki, Istanbul and Univ of Athens
Greek Orthodox Patriarch of Antioch (Antyarka) and of All the East 59-60.
The Patriarchate, P.O. Box 19, Damascus, Syria.

Thesiger, Wilfred, C.B.E., D.S.O., M.A., British traveller; b 3 Jan 1910, ed Eton and Magdalen Coll, Oxford
Explored Danakil country of Abyssinia 33-34, Sudan Political Service, Darfur and Upper Nile Provinces 35-39, served in Ethiopia, Syria and Western Desert with Sudan Defence Force and Special Air Service, Second World War; explored the Empty Quarter of Arabia 45-50, lived with the Madan in the Marshes of Southern Iraq 50-58, awarded Back Grant, Royal Geographical Soc 36, Founders Medal 48, Lawrence of Arabia Medal, Royal Central Asian Soc. 55, David Livingstone Medal, Royal Scottish Geographical Soc. 61, Royal Soc of Literature Award 64,

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Burton Memorial Medal, Royal Asiatic Soc. 66; Hon. D.Litt. (Leicester) 68.
 Publs. *Arabian Sands* 58, *The Marsh Arabs* 64.
 15 Shelley Court, Tite Street, London, S.W.3, England.

Thomas, David Winton, M.A.; British Hebraist; b. 26 Jan. 1902; ed. Merchant Taylors' School and St. John's Coll., Oxford.
 Examiner O.T. and Semitics Oxford, Liverpool, Bristol, Birmingham, Durham, Leeds, London, Manchester; Special Asst. Oriental Dept. Bodleian Library 24; Senior Scholar and Lecturer in Oriental Languages, St. John's Coll., Oxford 24; Lecturer in Arabic, Gordon Coll., Khartoum, Sudan 26; Fellow Oriental Inst. of Univ. of Chicago 29; Prof. of Hebrew and Oriental Languages, Durham Univ. 30-38; Regius Prof. of Hebrew, Cambridge Univ. 38-68; Fellow St. Catharine's Coll., Cambridge 43, Pres. 65-68; Pres. Soc. for Old Testament Study 53; Fellow British Acad. 66; Hon. D.D. (Durham) 65, Wales 68.
 Publs. *The Recovery of the Ancient Hebrew Language* 39, *The Prophet in the Lachish Ostraca*; Editor: *Essays and Studies Presented to Stanley Arthur Cook* 50; Editor (with M. Noth): *Wisdom in Israel and in the Ancient Near East* 55; Editor: *Documents from Old Testament Times* 58, Editor (with W. D. McHardy): *Hebrew and Semitic Studies presented to Godfrey Rolles Driver* 63; Editor: *Archaeology and Old Testament Study* 67.
 4 Grantchester Road, Cambridge, England.

Tixier, Claude, L. ès L., D. ès D.; French economist; b. 22 Nov. 1913; ed. Arts and Law Faculties and Ecole des Sciences Politiques, Univ. of Paris.
 With Inspector-Gen. of Finances 39; Inspector of Finances 42; Deputy Dir. to Ministry of Nat. Economy 45; Chief, Service of Economic Survey 46; Dir. Cabinet of Sec. of State for the Budget 47; Deputy Dir. Cabinet of Minister of Finances 48; Dir. Cabinet of Pres. of Council of Finances 48; Dir. Cabinet of Minister of Finances 49; Dir.-Gen. of Finances to the Algerian Ministry, Algiers 49-58; Vice-Pres. European Investment Bank July 58-62; Pres. Banque Industrielle de Financement et de Crédit 62; admin. Worms et Cie (Maroc), Banque J'Escompte et de Credit à l'Industrie, Tunisia; Président-Dir. Général de la Banque Industrielle de l'Algérie et de la Méditerranée 63-; Vice-Pres. Banque Worms et Cie. 67-; Chevalier de la Légion d'Honneur.
 45 Boulevard Haussmann, Paris 9e; and 23 rue de Civry, Paris 16e, France.

Togan, Zeki Velidi; Turkish university professor; b. 1891; ed. Univ. of Vienna.
 Teacher, Kazan, Russia 10, Ufa, Bashkurdistan 14-15; rep. Moslems of Ufa province for Moslem fraction of Russian Duma 16-17; mem. Russian Constituent Assembly 17; Chief of War Dept. Nat. Republic of Bashkurdistan 17-19; Commissar for War, Soviet Bashkurdistan 19-20; head of Govt. of Bashkurdistan 20; Pres. Nat. Cttee. Turkestan 20-23; left Russia 23; Prof. of Turkish History, Univ. of Istanbul 25-; mem. various orientalist societies and of Finnish Acad.; Pres. 22nd Congress of Orientalists, Istanbul 51; ed. *Review of the Institute of Islamic Studies Istanbul* 54-; *Proceedings of 22nd Int. Congress of Orientalists*, Vol. I 53, Vol. II 57; mem. Ed. Board *Handbook of Turkish Culture* 64, *Central Asiatic Journal*, The Hague 55-; Pres. Turkish Oriental Soc. 63, Editor of its *Review* 64-; Order of the Ferhang (1st Class) (Persia); Gold Medal of Mammer Purgstall-Gesellschaft, Vienna; Hon. Dr. Law, Manchester Univ.
 Publs. *The History of the Turco-Tatars (Tatar)* 11, *Collaboration scientifique entre l'orient islamique et l'Europe* 35, *Die Schwerter der Germanen nach arabischen Quellen des 9-11 Jh.* 36, *Ibn Fadlan's Reisebericht 39*, *Biruni's Picture of the World* (Arabic and English) 40, *Turkestan Today and its Recent History* (Turkish) 42, *Introduction to the General*

History of the Turks (Turkish) 46, *Methodology of History* (Turkish) 50, *Khorezmian Glossary of Muqaddimat al-adab of Zamakhshari* 51, *Rise of the Turkish Empire* (English) 52, *Kritische Geschichtsauffassung in der islamischen Welt des Mittelalters* 52, *Symbolae Togan* (bio-bibliography) 55, *Miniatures of the Istanbul Libraries* 63, *Cultural Relations between the Ilkhanides and the Byzantines* 66, *Memoires* (Vol.I) 69.

Turgutreis sok. 6, Kücükalyi-Bostanci, Istanbul, Turkey.

Tombazos, George; Cypriot politician; b. 2 Feb. 1919; ed. Pancyprian Gymnasium, Cyprus Coll., Dentists' School of Athens.

Worked as dentist at Morphou 50-66; M.P. for Nicosia 60-66; Chair. Board of Greek Education 59-60; Pres. Greek Communal Chamber of Cyprus 60-65; Minister of Education 65-66; Minister of Agricultural and Natural Resources 66-70; Gold Medal of Patriarchate of Jerusalem; Gold Medal of Goethe Inst. Munich; Grand Cross of Royal Order of Phoenix 66.

Ministry of Agriculture, Nicosia, Cyprus.

Tomeh, Georges J., M.A., Ph.D.; Syrian university professor and diplomatist; b. 1922; ed. American Univ. of Beirut and Georgetown Univ.

Attaché, London, and Alt. Del. to UNESCO 45-46; Syrian Embassy, Washington 47-52; Alt. Gov. Int. Monetary Fund 50; Dir. UN and Treaties Dept., Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Damascus 53-54; Asst. Prof. of Philosophy and Asst. to Dean of Arts and Sciences, American Univ. of Beirut 54-56; Dir. Research Dept., Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Damascus 56-57; Consul-Gen., New York 57-58, Minister Consul-Gen. of United Arab Republic in New York 58, Minister, New York 61; Consul-Gen. and Deputy Perm. Rep. of Syria to UN 61-63; Minister of Economy, Syrian Arab Repub. 63-64; Prof. of Philosophy, Syrian Univ. 64-65, Perm. Rep. to UN 65-; Order of Syrian Merit, Commr. Order of St. Paul and St. Peter.
 Publs. (in Arabic) *The Idea of Nationalism* 54, *Philosophy of Leibnitz* 54, 65, *Making of the Modern Mind* (2 vols.) (trans. from English) 55-57, 65, *Arab Emigrants to the United States* 65; (in English) *Islam, Year Book of Education and Philosophy* 57, *Neutrality in Syria* 64, *Challenge and Response: A Judgement of History* 69.
 Permanent Mission of Syrian Arab Republic to the United Nations, 757 Third Avenue, N.Y. 10017, U.S.A.

Topaloglu, Ahmet; Turkish politician; b. 1914; ed. Faculty of Political Science.

Deputy for Adana 54-57, 61-; Gov. of Hatay 57-61; fmr. Minister of Interior, later Minister of Customs and Monopolies; Minister of Nat. Defence Nov. 65-; Justice Party.
 Ministry of National Defence, Ankara, Turkey.

Toukan, Baha'ud-din, B.A.; Jordanian diplomatist; b. 1910; ed. American Univ. of Beirut.

Joined Arab Legion and Sec. to Officer Commdg. 32; transferred to Court of H.R.H. the Amir of Transjordan 37; joined staff of B.B.C., London 42; Income Tax Assessor, Transjordan Govt. April 45-46; Gov. of Belqa District July 46-47; Sec. to Transjordan Del. to negotiate Independence Treaty, London Feb. 46; Transjordan Consul-Gen. in Jerusalem 47-48; Jordan Minister to Egypt 48-51, to Turkey 51-54; Under-Secretary, Ministry of Foreign Affairs 54-56; Ambassador to U.K. 56-58; Permanent Rep. to UN 58; Under-Sec. Ministry of Foreign Affairs 62-; decorations include: First Order of Istiqlal, Grand Officer Lebanese Republic.
 Publs. *Short History of Transjordan* (in English) 45.
 c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Amman, Jordan.

Toukan, Mohammed Ahmed, M.A.; Jordanian politician and banker; b. 15 Aug. 1903; ed. Oxford Univ.

Various teaching posts 30-48; Minister of Public Works, Devt. and Reconstruction 50, of Education 50-53; former Man. Nat. Bank of Jordan; Minister of State for Prime

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Ministry Affairs and Minister of Tourism Feb July 66
Minister of Communications 66 Minister of Foreign Affairs
April 67 July 67 Deputy Prime Minister July 67 Minister
of Defence Dec 68 69 Al Istiqlal Medal Al Kawkab
Medal
Office of the Deputy Prime Minister Amman Jordan.

Toumazis Panayiotis, Cypriot civil engineer and
politician b 1912 Ayios Memnon Famagusta ed Greek
Gymnasium Famagusta and Metsovian Polytechnic
Athens
Municipal engineer Famagusta later served as Pres
Famagusta Devt Corp Famagusta Fed of Trade and
Industry and Architects and Civil Engineers Legislation
Council mem House of Reps 60-70 Minister of Agri-
culture and Natural Resources 70-
Ministry of Agriculture and Natural Resources Nicosia
Cyprus

Tourky, Ahmed Riad, PhD United Arab Republic
(Egyptian) scientist
Former Prof. of Chemistry Cairo Univ Dean of Science
33 59 Pres Nat Research Centre 56 mem Inst
d Egypte Section III 55 Pres 62 64 Vice Pres 64
Minister of Scientific Research 64 66
c/o Ministry of Scientific Research Cairo U A R.

Tovmasyan, Suren Akopovich, Soviet diplomatist b
1909 ed Erevan State Univ
Member of CPSU 30 Army service 41 46 First Sec
Central Cttee CPSU of Armenia 53 60 Ambassador
to Democratic Republic of Viet Nam 61 64 on staff of
USSR Ministry of Foreign Affairs 64 65 Ambassador
to Libya 65 mem. Central Cttee CPSU 56-61 mem
Supreme Soviet of USSR 54 62
USSR Embassy Tripoli Libya

Toynbee, Arnold Joseph, CH British historian b
14 April 1889 ed Winchester Coll and Balliol Coll
Oxford
Fellow and Tutor Balliol Coll 12 15 mem staff Political
Intelligence Dept. of Foreign Office 18 mem Middle
Eastern Section of British Del to Peace Conf Koraeas
Prof. of Byzantine and Modern Greek Language Litera-
ture and History in London Univ 19 24 Dir. of Studies.
Royal Inst. of Int. Affairs 25 56 and Dir. of its Press
Service 39 43 Research Prof. of Int. History London
School of Econs 25 55 Prof. Emer 55 Dir. Research
Dept. Foreign Office 43 46 mem Académie des Sciences
Moraies et Politiques France Hon. D Litt (Oxford Cam-
bridge Birmingham) Hon. D C.L. (Princeton Columbia)
Publs *Nationality and the War* 15 *The Western Question
in Greece and Turkey* 22 *A Survey of International Affairs*
(with V M Boulter) 24 56 *A Journey to China* 31 *A Study
of History* (12 vols) 34 61 *Civilisation on Trial* 48 *The
World and the West* 53 *An Historian's Approach to Religion*
56 *Christianity Among the Religions of the World East to
West* 4 *A Journey Round the World* 58 *Hellenism* 59
Between Oxus and Jumna (travel) 61 *The Present Day
Experiment in Western Civilisation* on 62 *The Economy of the
Western Hemispheres* 62 *Conversation with Philip Toynbee*
62 *Hannibal's Legacy* (2 vols) 65 *Between Niger and Nile*
65 *Annual tances* 67 *Between Maule and Amazon* 67
Experiences 69 Editor *Man's Concern with Death* 68
Office Chatham House 10 St James's Square London
SW 1 Home 95 Oakwood Court London W 14 England

Tritton, Arthur Stanley, MA D Litt British orientalist
b 1887 ed Mansfield Coll and St Catherine's Soc Oxford
and Univ of Göttingen
Assistant Edinburgh Univ 11 Glasgow Univ 19 Prof of
Arabic Univ of Aligarh India 21 School of Oriental
Studies London 31 Prof of Arabic 38 47
Publs *Rise of the Imams of Samaa* 25 *Caliphs and their non-
Must* 1 Subjects 30 (revised edn 66) *Teach Yourself*

Arabic 34 *Muslim Theology* 47 *Isa n Belief and Practices*
50 *Materials on Muslim Education* 57
11 Rusthall Road Tunbridge Wells Kent England

Tsur, Yaakov, Israeli diplomatist b 18 Oct 1906 ed
Hebrew Coll Jerusalem Univ of Florence and Sorbonne
Mem staff daily newspaper *Haaretz* Tel Aviv 29 Dir
French Dept and later Co-Dir Propaganda Dept Jewish
Nat Fund Jerusalem 30 special Zionist missions Belgium
Greece France 34 35 Bulgaria and Greece 40 Dir
Publicity Dept Jewish Agency Recruiting Council 42
Liaison officer with G.H.Q. British Troops in Egypt 43 45
Head del to Greece 45 Pres Israeli Army Recruiting
Cttee Jerusalem 48 Minister to Argentina 49-53 Uruguay
49 53 Chile 50-53 and Paraguay 50-53 Ambassador to
France 53 59 Dir Gen Foreign Office 59 Chair Zionist
Gen Council 61 68 Chair Jewish Nat Fund
Publs *Juifs en Guerre* 47 *The Birth of Israel* 49 *Prelude
a Israel* 56 *Shaharit shel Elmol* (autobiography) 66 French
trans—*Prrière du Matin* 67 (English ed *Sunrise in Zion*)
An Ambassador's Diary in Paris 68 *La Révolte Fure* 70
P O Box 283 Jerusalem Israel

Tuluy, Turan, Turkish diplomatist b 7 June 1918 ed
Galatasaray Lycée Istanbul and Ankara Univ Faculty of
Political Sciences
Entered Diplomatic Service 44 served Ankara 44 47
Second Sec then First Sec Rome 47 51 Chief of Section
NATO Dept Ministry of Foreign Affairs 51 54 First Sec
and Counsellor Athens 54-60 Head of First Political
Dept Ministry of Foreign Affairs 60-64 Ambassador to
Denmark 64 65 to Greece 65 69 to Italy 70 Greek and
Spanish decorations
Turkish Embassy Rome Italy

Tunaligil, Danis, Turkish diplomatist b 15 April 1915
ed Galatasaray Lycée Istanbul and Univ of Istanbul
Ministry of Foreign Affairs 39 Milan Berne Rome
Moscow 41 53 Dir Gen. Ministry of Foreign Affairs
Ankara 57 Dep Sec Gen 58 Ambassador to Jordan 60
64 to Yugoslavia 64 68
c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs Ankara Turkey

Turabi, Hassan A, LL.B LL.M DR. EN DROIT Sudanese
lawyer and politician b 1932 ed Univ of Khartoum
London and Paris
Tutor Khartoum Univ 55 57 Lecturer Faculty of
Law 57 65 Dean 65 Sec Gen Islamic Charter Front
64 69 mem Constituent Assembly 65 69
Omdurman Sudan

Turgay, Seyfi, Turkish air force officer and diplomatist
b 1906 ed Military School Air Force Coll Military Acad
(Staff Coll)
Graduated from Air Force Coll 28 Mil Acad 36 Gen 50
Commndr Gen Air Div 50-52 Chief of Operations and
Logistics Air Force HQ 52 55 Chief of Staff 55 Maj
Gen 55 Commndr Gen Air Force Supply and Maintenance
Command 57 Chief of Logistics Dept Turkish Gen Staff
58 Deputy Chief of Staff to Turkish Gen. Staff 58 60
joined Foreign Service 60 Ambassador to Iraq 60 64 to
Austria 64 67
c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs Ankara Turkey

Tural, Gen Cemal, Turkish soldier
Commander 2nd Army until Aug 64 C in C. Land Forces
64 66 Chief of Staff Feb 66 Mar 69 mem Supreme
Military Council 69
Ministry of Defence Ankara Turkey

Turgut, Mehmet, Turkish politician b 1929 ed
Istanbul Technical Univ
Deputy for Ayfon 61-65 Bursa 65 fmr Minister of Power
Minister of Industry Nov 65 70 Justice Party
Ministry of Industry Ankara Turkey

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Turner, Sir Michael William, Kt., C.B.E., C.St.J., M.A., F.Z.S.; British banker; b. 25 April 1905; ed. Marlborough Coll. and Univ. Coll., Oxford. Joined Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corp'n. 26, Chair. and Chief Man. 53-62; interned in Singapore 42-45; Chair. British Bank of the Middle East 64-67, mem. Board 67-; Dir. Westminster Bank Ltd. and various companies; Colonial Police Medal 56; Commdr. Order of Prince Henry the Navigator (Portugal) 63; Hon. LL.D. (Hong Kong) 59.

6 Hyde Park Gardens, London, W.12, England.

Tutunji, Djamil, M.D.; Jordanian doctor and diplomatist; b. 1896; ed. Syrian Protestant Coll., Homs, American Univ. of Beirut and Medical Univ., Constantinople.

Medical Officer, Ottoman Army 18, Madaba District 19-22, Arab Legion 23; Royal Physician 23-40; Dir. of Health 40-50; Dep. Minister of Health 50-51, Minister 51-62; mem. Senate 62-63; Amb. to U.S.S.R. 64-65; Senator 67-; Star of Jordan, Knight of St. John of Jerusalem, Knight of the Holy Sepulchre, Decoration of Revolution and of Independence.

P.O. Box 643, Amman, Jordan.

Tzur, Michael; Israeli shipping executive; b. 1 May 1923; ed. Tel-Aviv Univ.

Service with Ministry of Commerce and Industry and the Treasury 51-66; Dir.-Gen. Ministry of Commerce and Industry 58-66; Chair. of Board of Dirs. Zim Israel Navigation Co. 66-.

Zim Israel Navigation Co. Ltd., Haifa, Israel.

Tzounis, John Alexander; Greek diplomatist; b. 13 Oct. 1920, Bucharest, Romania; ed. Univ. of Athens and French Inst., Athens.

Joined diplomatic service 47; posts at Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Athens, 47-50, 59-62, 67-69; Vice-Consul, San Francisco 51, Acting Consul-Gen. 54; Chief Information Officer, Greek Embassy, Washington, D.C. 55; Counsellor, Moscow 62, Chargé d'Affaires 63-65; Counsellor, London 65-67; Amb. to Turkey 69-; mem. Greek del. to UN Gen. Assembly 51, 54; Commdr., Royal Order of Phoenix, Royal Order of George I.

Leisure interests: photography sailing.

Royal Greek Embassy, 285 Ataturk Bulvari, Ankara, Turkey.

Telephone: 122433.

U

Ulay, Sitki; Turkish army officer; b. 1907; ed. War Acad. Ankara.

Has served as Military Attaché in Egypt and Afghanistan; Commandant, War School; Minister of Communications 60-Jan. 61; Minister of State 61-62; founder Social Democratic Party later incorporated with Republican People's Party; elected to Supreme Consultative Assembly of R.P.P.; mem. Senate.

Publ. *War School Called to Arms*.

Evkaf Apt. 1/3-3, Ankara, Turkey.

Ulfat, Gul Pacha; Afghan poet and writer; b. 1909; ed. private studies.

Staff writer *Anis* (daily) 35-36; Writers' Soc. 36; later mem. staff *Ishah* (daily); Editor *Kabul Magazine* 46; Editor *Nangrahar* (weekly) 48; Chief of Tribal Affairs in Nangrahar Province; mem. House of Reps. from Jalalabad (Nangrahar), and Second Deputy to Pres. of House 49, mem. from Karghaie 52; Pres. of Afghan Acad. 56; Pres. of Tribal Affairs (mem. Central Cabinet) 63; Rep. in Wolise Jerga (formerly House of Reps.) from Jalalabad 65-; Pres. Afghan-U.S.S.R. Friendship Soc. 59-63.

Publs. Twenty-five books on literary, social and political subjects, and numerous essays.

Wolise Jerga, Kabul; and Sher Shah Maina, Kabul, Afghanistan.

Umari, Nathir Akram; Iraqi diplomatist; b. 1917; ed. Baghdad, Liverpool Univ. and Columbia Univ. Entered Foreign Service 45; with Iraq del. to U.N. 46-54; with U.N. Secretariat 51; Pres. Grain Board of Iraq, also Acting Dir.-Gen. Dates Assen., Oil Affairs, Econ. and Tobacco Monopoly; Counsellor and Chargé of Embassy, Delhi 58-60; Minister to U.K. 60-62; banking appointment 63-64; Ambassador to Lebanon 64-67; Ambassador to France 67-68.

c/o Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Baghdad, Iraq.

Umri, Gen. Hassan (see Amri, Gen. H.).

Unterman, Rabbi Iser Jehudah; Israeli Rabbi; b. 1886; ed. Rabbinical Colls. in Poland and Lithuania.

Rabbinical posts in Poland 13-23; Rabbi of Liverpool and District 23; Pres. Mizrachi Fed. of Great Britain and Ireland 43-46; Chief Rabbi, Tel-Aviv and District 46-; Pres. Rabbinical Courts, Tel-Aviv; Pres. Union of Rabbinical Colls.; mem. Exec. Cttee., Chief Rabbinate of the Holy Land.

Publ. *Shevet Myehuda* 55; contrib. rabbinical publs. in Israel, Great Britain and the U.S.A.

Home: 6 Engel Street, Tel-Aviv; Office: Office of the Chief Rabbinate, 33 King David Blvd., Tel-Aviv, Israel.

Uqaili, Maj.-Gen. Abdul Aziz Al-; Iraqi army officer and politician; b. 1920; ed. Military Coll., Artillery School, Staff Coll., Baghdad, Staff Coll., Camberley, England, and Law Acad., Baghdad.

Army service 38-; Instructor, later Senior Instructor, Staff Coll., Baghdad; Ambassador to Iran Feb. 59; arrested in Mosul Revolt March 59, acquitted Sept. 59; Dir.-Gen. Iraqi Ports Admin. Feb.-April 63; rejected appt. of Ambassador to Japan July 63; Dir.-Gen. Iraqi Ports Admin. Nov. 63-; Minister of Defence Sept. 65-66; under detention 69.

Publs. *History of the First Barzan Insurrection 1931* and articles in various journals.

Directorate-General of Navigation, Basra; and Nassah No. 24/9/1, Adhamiah, Baghdad, Iraq.

Ürgüplü, Suat Hayri; Turkish diplomatist and politician; b. 1903; ed. Lycée and Univ. of Istanbul.

Lawyer; mem. Parl. 39-46; Minister of Customs and Monopolies in Sarajoğlu Govt. 43-46, resigned and left People's Party; re-elected to Grand Nat. Assembly 50 with support of Democratic Party which he subsequently joined; mem. and Vice-Chair. Council of Europe 50-52; Ambassador to Fed. Republic of Germany 52-55, to United Kingdom 55-57, to U.S.A. 57-60, to Spain 60; Independent Senator and Speaker of Senate 60-63; Prime Minister Jan.-Oct. 65.

The Senate, Ankara, Turkey.

Ussoskin, Moshe; Israeli foundation official; b. 8 March 1899; ed. Cernauti Univ.

Zionist work in Bessarabia 17; Rep. of Joint Distribution Cttee. and Jewish Colonization Assen., Balkans, Turkey and Hungary, and Dir. Central Bank for Jewish Co-operative Socs. in Rumania 28-41; in Israel 41-; Dir.-Gen. *Keren Hayesod* (Jewish Agency Foundation Fund) 49-68; Vice-Chair. Tel-Aviv Devt. Co. Ltd.; mem. Board Hevrat Hachsharat Hayishuv, Jerusalem Econ. Corp'n., and of other companies, and of many Jewish committees. 16 Arlosoroff Street, Jerusalem, Israel.

V

Vajda, Georges; French professor; b. 18 Nov. 1908; ed. Séminaire Rabbinique, Budapest, and Paris, and Ecole des Langues Orientales, Sorbonne.

Prof., Séminaire Israélite de France 36-; Lecturer, Ecole

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Pratique des Hautes Etudes Sorbonne 37 Dir 54 Head of Oriental Section Inst de Recherche et d'Histoire des Textes 40 Prof 70
 Publs *Introduction à la Pensée Juive du Moyen Age* 47 *La Théologie ascétique de Bahya ibn Paquda* 47 *Répertoire des Catalogues et Inventaires de Manuscrits Arabes* 49 *Un Recueil de Textes Historiques Juifs Marocains* 51 *Les origines des Manuscrits Arabes Musulmans de la Bibliothèque Nationale* 53 *Juda ben Nissim Ibn Malka philosophe juif marocain* 54 *Les certificats de lecture dans les manuscrits arabes de la Bibliothèque Nationale* 57 *L'amour de Dieu dans la théologie juive du moyen âge* 57 *Isaac Ablaag 60 Recherches sur les relations entre la Philosophie et la Kabbala* 62 *Le Dictionnaire des Autorités de Abd al Mu'min ad Dimiyati* 62 *Le commentaire d'Ezra de Jérôme sur le Cantique* 69
 Institut de Recherche et d'Histoire des Textes 40 avenue d'Iéna Paris 16 France

Vakil Dr Mehdi, Iranian diplomatist b 10 Sept 1907 ed Teheran Law School and Faculté de Droit Paris
 Fmr Prof of Diplomatic History Teheran Univ Dir in Ministry of Educ Cabinet Cultural Counsellor Iranian Embassy Paris Minister Plenipotentiary joined UN Secretariat 51 Sec Econ and Social Council 53 59 Perm Iranian Rep to UN 59 Iranian French Argentine and Paraguayan decorations
 Publs *Les Recours contre l'Administration* 35 *Neutrality in Time of War* 36
 Permanent Mission of Iran to the United Nations 777 Third Avenue New York NY 10017 USA

Vakili Ali, Iranian businessman b 1908 ed French School Teheran
 Pres dent of various private and Govt companies Pres Teheran Chamber of Commerce 55 68 fmr mem Majlis (five sessions) mem Senate
 The Senate Teheran Iran

Vanden Berghe, Louis, FR D Belgian oriental archaeologist b 24 Dec 1923 ed Univs of Ghent Brussels Amsterdam and Leyden

At Univ of Ghent Assoc Prof 53 57 Prof of Western Asiatic Archaeology and Civilizations 57 Prof of History and Archaeology of Ancient Iran Univ of Brussels 58 Curator of the Iran Dept of Musées Royaux d'Art et d'Histoire Brussels 66 Visiting Prof Rome Univ 65 Dir Belg an Archaeological Expedition in Iran 65 excavations and excavations in South Iran 51 64 d discoveries include several new prehistoric cultures unknown in Elamite Parthian and Sassanid Rock Reliefs the great Kunar Siah complex and other Sassanid Fire Temples mem Royal Flemish Acad of Sciences Letters and Arts
 Corresp mem German Archaeological Inst Hon Dir Teheran Univ Iranian Orders of Homayoun and of Sepass Officer of the Order of Leopold

Publs Co Editor of *Iranica Antiqua* Author of *Archéologie de l'Iran Ancien* 59 66 *La nécropole de Khurru* 64 *Art Iranien Ancien préhistorique protohistorique 66 Opgravungen in Pusht-Kuh I Kalwari en War Kabud* 68 *On the Track of the Civilizations of Ancient Iran* 68
 Department of Western Asiatic Archaeology and Civilizations Univs ty of Ghent Blandijnberg 2 Ghent Home Oost Nieuwkerke Belgium

Vaux, Roland de, Doctor of Theology French ecclesiastic and archaeologist b 17 Dec 1903 ed Paris
 Professor French Biblical and Archaeological School Jerusalem 33 Dir 45 63 Chief of the Archaeological Missions at Tell el Farah and Khirbet Qumran Co Dir British French Archaeological Expedition Jerusalem 61-63 corresp fellow British Acad mem de l'Acad des Inscriptions et Belles Lettres (Paris)
 Ecole Biblique et Archéologique Française P O Box 178 Jerusalem Israel

Vergin, Nurettin, Turkish diplomatist b 1908 ed Lycée Galatasaray Istanbul Univ of Ankara and Ecole des Sciences Politiques Paris
 Ministry of Foreign Affairs 32 served Vienna The Hague Rome and Berlin Minister in Paris 49 52 Amb to Portugal 52 57 61-63 Amb to Greece 57-61 to Spain 63-66 to France 66-68 to Denmark 68 70 to Austria Nov 70-Turkish Embassy Vienna Austria

Vinogradov, Sergei Alexandrovich, Soviet historian and diplomatist b 1907 ed Leningrad Univ
 Former Prof of History Diplomatic Service 39 Counselor Turkey 40 Ambassador 40 48 Head Dept of UN Affairs Ministry of Foreign Affairs 48 50 Chair U S R Council of Ministers Radio Cttee 50-53 Ambassador to France 53 65 on staff of Ministry of Foreign Affairs 65-67 Ambassador to the United Arab Republic 67 mem Central Auditing Comm of CPSU 62-66 Grand Croix Légion d'Honneur

Embassy of the U S R, Cairo United Arab Republic
 Viskari, Mohammed Razi, Iranian politician and banker b 1918 ed Teheran Univ
 Joined Ministry of Finance 40 rose to Perm Under Sec studied Budget Affairs in United States 56 Minister of Customs and Monopolies 60 61 Pres Bank Rahni Iran 61 Bank Rahni Iran Ferdowsi Street Teheran Iran

W

Waely, Faisal El, FR D Iraqi professor and government official b 1922 ed Teacher Training Coll Baghdad and Oriental Inst of Chicago
 Professor Baghdad Univ (Coll of Literature) 53 56 Dir Gen of Technical Affairs Ministry of Education Baghdad 58 59 Prof Cairo Univ 59 63 Dir Gen of Antiquities Baghdad 63

Publs Various articles in journal *Sumer*
 Directorate-General of Antiquities Baghdad West Iraq

Wahrhaftig, Zorach, D JUR Israeli lawyer and politician b Warsaw 2 Feb 1906 ed Univ of Warsaw
 Private law practice Warsaw 32 39 Vice-Pres Mizrahi Poland 26-39 mem of exec Keren Hayesod Hechalutz Hamizrachi World Jewish Congress Deputy Dir Inst of Jewish Affairs New York 43 47 Vice Pres Hapoel Hamizrachi USA 43 47 Dir Vaad Leumi Law Dept 47 mem Provisional Council Govt of Israel 49 mem of Knesset Dep Minister for Religious Affairs 56-59 Minister of Religious Affairs 61 mem Jewish Law Research Inst Ministry of Justice 48 Lecturer on Talmudic Law Hebrew Univ mem American Soc for Int Law Board of Trustees Bar Ilan Univ
 Publs *Starvation over Europe* 43 *Relief and Rehabilitation* 44 *Where Shall they Go?* 46 *Uprooted* 46 *Hazaka in Jewish Law* 64 and many publs in Hebrew on Israel Law and Religion
 Ministry of Religious Affairs Jerusalem Israel

Wazan, Chafic Dib, Lebanese barrister b 1925 Beirut ed Université St Joseph Beirut
 Barrister 47 Pres Lebanese Muslim Congress mem Presidium of El Hayata El Wataniya Party Sec Gen. Al Makassed Chanty Assn Minister of Justice 68-69
 Rue Haroun El Rachid Imm Wazan Beirut Lebanon Telephone 253 772

Weissgal, Meyer Wolf, American journalist and executive b 11 Oct 1894 ed Columbia Univ
 National Secretary Zionist Org of America 21 30 Dir Gen Palestine Pavilion World's Fair New York 39 40 Personal Political Rep Dr Weizmann in USA 40-48 Organiser American Section Jewish Agency for Palestine

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Sec.-Gen. 43-46; Organiser and Exec. Vice-Chair. American Cttee. Weizmann Inst. 46-59; Chair. Exec. Council Weizmann Inst. of Science, Israel 49-66, Pres. of Inst. 66-69; Chancellor 70-; del. World Zionist Congress 24-; fmr. Editor *The New Palestine* (New York) 21-30, *Jewish Standard* (Toronto) 30-32.

Publs. *Chaim Weizmann: Statesman, Scientist, Builder of the Jewish Commonwealth* 44, *Chaim Weizmann, a Biography by Several Hands* 62, and numerous Jewish and Zionist pamphlets, etc.

14 Neveh Weizmann, Rehovot, Israel; and 240 Central Park South, New York 19, N.Y., U.S.A.

Weitz, Raanan; Israeli rural development planner; b. 27 July 1913; ed. Hebrew Gymnasia, Jerusalem, Hebrew Univ. and Univ. of Florence.

Agricultural Settlement Dept., Jewish Agency 37-, fmr. Village Instructor, now Head of Dept.; service with Intelligence Corps, British 8th Army, Second World War; fmr. mem. Haganah; mem. Exec., Zionist Org. 63-; Chair. Nat. and Univ. Inst. of Agriculture 60-66; Head, Settlement Study Centre 63-.

Publs. *Agriculture and Rural Development in Israel: Projection and Planning* 63, *Rural Planning in Developing Countries* (Editor) 65, *Agricultural Development-Planning and Implementation* 68, *Rural Development in a Changing World* 71, *From Peasant to Farmer: A Revolutionary Strategy for Development* 71.

Zionist Organization, P.O. Box 92, Jerusalem, Israel.

Wise, George S.; American university professor; b. Poland 1906; ed. Columbia Univ.

Former lecturer in Sociology at Columbia Univ. and Univ. of Mexico; business interests in U.S.A., Mexico and Israel; Pres. Tel-Aviv Univ. 63-.

Tel-Aviv University, Ramat-Aviv, Tel-Aviv, Israel.

Witkon, Alfred, DR. JUR.; Israeli judge; b. 23 Feb. 1910; ed. Univs. of Bonn, Berlin and Freiburg, and Middle Temple, London.

Called to Middle Temple Bar 36, to Palestine Bar 37; practised law, Palestine 37-48; Pres. District Court, Jerusalem 48; Justice, Supreme Court of Israel 54-.

Publs. *Law and Society* 55, *The Law of Taxation* 69, *Law and Politics* 65.

17 Shmaryahu Lewin Street, Jerusalem, Israel.

Wright, Edwin Milton, M.A., L.H.D.; American education and government officer (Retd.); b. 12 Jan. 1897; ed. Wooster Coll. and Columbia Univ.

Refugee resettlement, Iraq 21-24; educational work in American Secondary Schools, Persia 24-37; Lecturer in History, Columbia Univ. 38-41; Fellow, American Council of Learned Societies 39-40; U.S. Army Mil. Intelligence in Middle East (H.Q. in Teheran and Cairo) with final rank of Lieut.-Col. 41-46; U.S. Dept. of State, Office of Near Eastern, South Asian and African Affairs, Washington, D.C. 46-53; Lecturer in the History of the Contemporary Middle East, Graduate School of Int. Relations of Johns Hopkins Univ. 46-; Foreign Service Inst., Dept. of State 55-66; Visiting Prof. Mills Coll. 67; mem. Board of Govs., Middle East Inst. 56-, Advisory Council, Oriental Dept., Princeton Univ.; Superior Merit Medal, Dept. of State 64, Dist. Alumni Award, Wooster Coll. 67, also Visiting Prof. 67-68; Dist. Scholar, Univ. of S. Carolina 68-70.

573 Williamsburg Court B, Wooster, Ohio, U.S.A.

Wright, Rev. Dr. G(eorge) Ernest; American museum curator; b. 5 Sept. 1905; ed. Wooster Coll., McCormick Theological Seminary and Johns Hopkins Univ.

Ordained to priesthood 34; Field Sec. American Schools of Oriental Research 38; Asst. Prof. McCormick Theological Seminary 39-45, Prof. of Old Testament History and Theology 45-58; Parkman Prof. of Divinity, Harvard Univ. 58-; Dir. Drew-McCormick Archaeological Expedition to Palestine 56-; Curator Harvard Semitic Museum; Pres.

American Schools of Oriental Research 66-; mem. numerous learned socs.; founder and mem. Editorial Board *Biblical Archaeologist*.

Publs. *Pottery of Palestine from Earliest Times to the End of the Early Bronze Age*, *The Old Testament against its Environment* 50, *Biblical Archaeology*, *The Biblical Doctrine of Man in Society* 54, *The Book of the Acts of God* 57, *Shechem, Biography of a Biblical City* 64, *Isaiah in Laymen's Bible Commentaries* 64; co-author *Ain Shems Excavations*, *Westminster Historical Atlas to the Bible*; Editor *The Bible and the Ancient Near East* 61.

6 Divinity Ave., Cambridge, Mass. 02138; and 7 Alcott Road, Lexington, Mass. 02173, U.S.A.

Y

Yaari, Meir; Israeli politician; b. 25 April 1897; ed. Vienna Univ. and Agricultural Inst., Vienna (pupil of Freud).

Served in Austrian Army 14-18; founded Hashomer Hatzair, Vienna; went to Palestine 20; worked with Jewish Nat. Fund and Zionist Org.; mem. Hashomer Hatzair World Exec., Zionist Gen. Council, Gen. Fed. of Jewish Labour; mem. Knesset 49-; Sec.-Gen. Mapam 64-.

Mapam Offices, P.O.B. 1777, Tel-Aviv, Israel.

Yadin (formerly Sukenik), Lt.-Gen. Yigael, M.A., PH.D.; Israeli soldier and archaeologist; b. 21 March 1917; ed. Hebrew Univ., Jerusalem.

Chief of Gen. Staff Branch, Hagana H.Q. 47; Chief of Operations, Gen. Staff, Israel Defence Forces 48; Chief of Gen. Staff Branch 49, Chief of Staff 49-52; Archaeological Research Fellow, Hebrew Univ. 53-54; Lecturer in Archaeology, Hebrew Univ. 55-59, Assoc. Prof. 59-63, Prof. 63-; Dir. Hazor Excavations 55-58, 69, Bar Kochba Excavations 60-61, Megiddo Excavations 60, 66-67, Masada Excavations 63-65; mem. Israel Acad. of Sciences and Humanities; corres. mem. British and French Acads.

Publs. *The Scroll of the War of the Sons of Light against the Sons of Darkness* 55, *The Message of the Scrolls* 57, *Hazor I: The First Season of Excavations*, *Hazor II: Second Season*, *Hazor III-IV: Third Season*, *A Genesis Apocryphon* (with N. Avigad) 56, *Warfare in Biblical Lands* 63, *Finds in a cave in the Judean Desert* 63, *Masada: First Season of Excavations* 65, *The Ben-Sirah Scroll from Masada* 65, *Masada: Herod's Fort and the Zealots' Last Stand* 66, *Philacteries from Qumran* 69, *Bar-Kokhba* 71.

47 Ramban Road, Jerusalem, Israel.

Yafi, Abdullah; Lebanese lawyer and politician; b. 1901; ed. Univ. of Paris.

Admitted to Beirut Bar 26; Prime Minister and Minister of Justice 38-39; Minister of Justice and Finance 47; mem. Lebanese del. to Preparatory Conf. for founding League of Arab States 44, to UN San Francisco Conf. 45; Prime Minister 54 and 56; in private practice 56-66; Perim Minister 66, also Minister of Finance and Information 66; Prime Minister 68-69.

Beirut, Lebanon.

Yahia, General Tahir; Iraqi army officer and politician; b. 1915; ed. primary school, Tikrit, secondary school, Baghdad, Teachers' Training Coll. and Military Coll.

Former teacher, Mamounia School, Baghdad; mem. Nat. Movement 41; Commndr., Armoured Cars' Battalion, Palestine War 48; mem. Military Court, Habaniya 48; mem. Free Officers' Group 58, later Dir.-Gen. of Police; Chief-of-Staff, Iraqi Army Feb. 63-Nov. 63; Prime Minister of Iraq Nov. 63-Sept. 65; Deputy Prime Minister 67; Prime Minister and acting Minister of the Interior 67-68; Al-Khidma Medal, Al-Chaja Medal, Al-Rafidain Medal. Baghdad, Iraq.

WHO S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Yahya, Abdenour Ali, Algerian politician and trade unionist
Former Sec Union of Algerian Workers mem Front de Libération Nationale (F.L.N.) Central Cttee Deputy to Nat. Assembly Minister of Public Works 65 66 Minister of Agriculture 66-68
c/o Ministry of Agriculture Algiers Algeria

Yalman, Ahmed Emin, M.A. PH.D. Turkish journalist b 14 May 1888 ed Istanbul Law School and Columbia Univ New York

Reporter daily *Sabah* 07 Sub Editor *Yeni Ga eta* 08 10
for Associate Prof of Sociology Istanbul Univ war
corresp *Tamim* 15 part proprietor and Editor *Yahit* 17 22
part proprietor and Editor *Yatan* 22 26 *Tan* 36-39 *Yatan*
40-Jan 61 Editor *Hur Yatan* 61 Chair Turkish Press Inst
64

Publs *The Development of Turkey as Measured by its Press* 14 *Turkey in the World War* 28 *Turkey in My Time*

265 Halaskargazi Cadd Koza Apt 15 Şişli Istanbul Turkey

Yamani, Ahmed Zaki, Saudi Arabian politician b 1930 ed Cairo Univ New York Univ and Harvard Univ
Saudi Arabian Govt service private law practice Legal Adviser to Council of Ministers 58 60 Minister of State 60-62 mem Council of Ministers 60 Minister of Petroleum and Mineral Resources 62 Dir Arabian American Oil Co 61 Chair Board of Dirs Gen Petroleum and Mineral Org (PETROMIN) 63 Coll of Petroleum and Minerals Dhahran 63 Chair Board of Dirs Saudi Arabian Fertilizer Co (SAFICO) 66 Sec Gen Org of Arab Petroleum Exporting Countries (OAPEC) 68 69 mem several int law assocs

Publs *Islamic Law and Contemporary Issues*
Ministry of Petroleum and Mineral Resources Riyadh Saudi Arab a

Yardımcı, Celâl, Turkish politician b 1911 ed. Univ of Istanbul
Began career as lawyer elected deputy 50 Deputy Chair Turkish Nat Assembly 51 53 Minister of State 53 54 of Education 54 55 of State 56 57 of Education Nov 57 59 of Justice April May 60 arrested and detained May 60-, sentenced to life imprisonment Sept 61 released 65
Istanbul Turkey

Yasin, Abdul-Hamid, Jordanian educationist and administrator b 1908 ed Teachers Coll. Jerusalem and American Univ Cairo

Teacher 24 36 Broadcaster and translator Jerusalem 36-42 Labour and Co-operatives Inspector Jerusalem 42 46 mem Arab Information Office Jerusalem 46-47 Town Clerk Jaffa 47 48 Registrar and instructor American Univ Cairo 48 52 Dean of Educ Faculty 52 53 Principal Teachers Coll Amman 53 60 UNESCO Adviser on Educ Libya 60 62 Sec Gen Jordan Univ 62 64 Head of UNRWA Educ Dept Jerusalem 64 65 mem Exec Cttee and Del to Arab League Palestine Liberation Org Jerusalem and Cairo 65 66 Dir Gen Housing Corps Amman 66-67 Dir Gen Broadcasting 67 68 Counsellor Ministry of Educ 68 Dir Public Admin Inst Amman 68
Editor *Journal of Modern Education* Cairo 52 53 *Teacher's Message* Amman 56-60

Publs *Short Stories* (Arabic) 46 *10 Short Stories* (Arabic) 59 *Translations Overstreet The Mind Goes Forth* 60 educ and other Arabic contributions to magazines papers and broadcasts
Institute of Public Administration Amman Jordan

Yassin, Mohammed Osman, B.Sc. Sudanese civil servant b 1915 ed Gordon Coll and London School of Economics
Joined Sudanese Political Service 45 Liaison Officer in

Ethiopia 52 53 Gov Upper Nile Province 54 55 Perm. Under Sec of Foreign Affairs 56- mem Sudanese Del to UN 56 Del to Independent African States Conf Mon rovia 59 to Accra Conf on Positive Action for Peace and Security in Africa 60 to Independent African States Conf Léopoldville 60 Special Adviser to UN on training of diplomats 61-62 Special Envoy to Ethiopia and Somalia on border dispute mem African Unity Org Comm for Conciliation and Arbitration between Algeria and Morocco Organizer African Finance Ministers first Conf Khartoum 63 Grading Structure and Sahnes Comm of Zambia 66 Hon mem Inst of Differing Civilizations Brussels 4t Great Band of Humane Order of African Redemption Liberia Grand Officer Order of Menelik II Republican Order United Arab Republic Star of Yugoslavia

Publs *The Sudan Civil Service* 54 *Analysis of the Economic Situation in the Sudan* 58 *Problems of Transfer of Power—the Administration Aspect* 61 *Germany and Africa* 62 Ministry of Foreign Affairs Khartoum Sudan.

Yassin, Aziz Ahmed, PH.D. United Arab Republic (Egyptian) engineer b 13 Aug 1918 ed Abbassia Secondary School Cairo Univ and Imperial Coll London

Ministry of Housing and Public Utilities rising to Under Sec of State 39 59 Chair and Pres Tourah Portland Cement Co Alexandria Portland Co 59 63 mem Board of Dirs Helwan Portland Cement Co Sudan Portland Cement Co 59 63 Chair Egyptian Cement Companies Marketing Board 59 63 Chair Board of Dirs Egyptian Gen Org for Housing and Public Building Contracting Companies 63 65 Minister of Tourism and Antiquities Oct 65 67 External Prof in Soil Mechanics Cairo Univ 51 External Prof of Civil Engineering Ain Shams Univ official of other civil engineering and building orgs

4 Waheeb Doas Street Maadi Cairo United Arab Republic

Yassin, Dr Mohammed Hussain Al-, M.Sc. Iraqi diplomatist b 1913 ed American Univ of Beirut and Columbia Univ New York USA

Director of Primary Teachers Coll Baghdad 41 43 Asst. Dean of Coll of Educ and Prof of Educ. and Philosophy Baghdad 43 Cultural Counsellor Iraq Embassies Beirut and Damascus 49-51 Prof Univ of Baghdad 51 Dir.-Gen. of Cultural Affairs Ministry of Educ Baghdad 51 54 Perm Del to UNESCO and Cultural Counsellor Paris 55 56 Inspector Gen of Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs Baghdad 57 mem Public Service Board of Iraq 57 61 Pres of Public Service Board of Iraq and mem Board of Trustees Univ of Baghdad 61-67 Amb. to Iran 68

Embassy of Iraq Avenue Pahlavi Teheran Iran

Yazici, Bedi, M.Sc. Turkish business executive b 1917, ed Robert Coll Columbia Univ
Fire and Marine Mau Nat Reinsurance Co 43 48 Prof of Insurance Business School of Istanbul 45 50 Man Dir The Credit Bank of Turkey 62 63 Porcelain Industries Inc of Istanbul 62 63 Pres The Gen Insurance Co of Turkey 48-63 Istanbul Chamber of Commerce 60-63 mem Insurance Board Ministry of Commerce 44 64 Chair and Managing Dir TAN Insurance Co 64 Trustee Robert Coll 64
279 Cumhuriyet Caddesi Harbiye Istanbul Turkey

Yazici, Bülent, M.S. Turkish banker b 3 Feb 1911 ed Robert Coll Istanbul and Columbia Univ
Ministry of Finance 34 38 Insp 38 45 Financial Counselor Turkish Embassy Washington 45 49 Dep Gen Dir Dept. of the Treasury 49-50 Dep Gen Man Industrial Development Bank of Turkey 50-60 Dir and Gen Man. Türkiye İ Bankası A.S. 60-67 Chair American Turkish Foreign Trade Bank 64 67 Union of Chambers of Com

merce, Industry and Exchanges of Turkey 60-62; Vice-Chair. Assn. of Banks of Turkey 60-67; Chair. Industrial Devt. Bank of Turkey 60-69, Man. Dir. 69-; Dir. Mensucat Santral T.A.S. 67-; Dir. Tam Hayat Sigorta A.S. 67-; Advisory Dir. Unilever-İş Ticerat ve Sanayi, Sti 68-; Trustee, Robert Coll., Istanbul; Commodore, Deniz Klubu. 36 Devriye Sok., Moda, Kadıköy, Istanbul, Turkey.

Yemen, Former King of the (see Saif Al-Islam Mohamed Al-Badr, H.M. The Imam).

Yeshayahu, Israel; Israeli politician; b. 1910, Yemen. Settled in Israel 29; leading mem. Va'ad Leumi, Histadrut and Mapai; Head of Yemenite and Oriental Communities Dept. of Histadrut 34-48; active in org. of Operation "Magic Carpet" (mass airlift of Yemenite Jews to Israel); mem. all Knessets (Mapai and Alignment) Feb. 51-; Deputy Speaker 55-66; Minister of Posts Jan. 67-69; Editor of periodicals *Mashul* and *Shluhot*.

Publs. Works on the Yemenite Jewish Community and its integration and life in Israel.

Ministry of Posts, Tel-Aviv, Israel.

Yetkin, Suut Kemal; Turkish scholar; b. 1903; ed. Univs. of Paris and Rennes.

Asst. Prof. of History of Art and Aesthetics, Univ. of Istanbul 33-39; Dir.-Gen. of Fine Arts, Ministry of Education 39-41; Prof. of History of Art and Aesthetics, Ankara Univ. 41-50, of History of Turkish and Islamic Arts 50-59; Rector Ankara Univ. 59-63; Officier Légion d'Honneur; Republican Party.

Publs. (in Turkish) *Philosophy of Art* 34, *Courses in Aesthetics* 42, *Literary Doctrines* 43, *Speeches on Literature* 44, *The Art of Leonardo da Vinci* 45, *Art Problems* 45, *On Literature* 53, *Famous Painters* 55, A. Gide: *A Selection of his Critical Writings* 55, *History of Islamic Architecture* 59 (3rd edn. 65); (in French) *Turkish Architecture in Turkey* 62, *Ancienne Peinture Turque* 70.

Kavaklıdere Sok., Güney Apartman 23/5, Ankara, Turkey

Younes, Mahmoud; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) engineer; b. 3 April 1912; ed. Royal Coll. of Engineers. Cairo Univ. and Staff Officers' Coll.

Engineer 37; M.Sc. 42; with Mil. Operations Directorate 43; Lecturer, Staff Officers' Coll. 44 and 47; Dir. Technical Affairs Office, G.H.Q. 52; Man. Dir. and Chair. Gen. Petroleum Authority 54; Counsellor, Ministry of Commerce and Industry for Mineral Wealth; Man. Dir. and Chair. Suez Canal Authority 56; Chair. 57-65; Pres. Engineers' Syndicate 54-65; Dir. and Chair. Cie. Orientale des Pétroles d'Egypte et Soc. Coopérative des Pétroles 58-65; mem. Nat. Assembly 64-; Deputy Prime Minister for Transport and Communications Sept. 65-66; for Electric Power, Oil and Mining 66-67, for Petroleum and Transport 67-68; Cons. ENI. GP 68; Order of Merit (Class I), Order of the Nile (Class III), Military Star, Liberation Medal, Palestine Medal, Grand Cordon of the Order of the Yugoslav Standard, Grand Officer Order of Vasco Nuñez de Balboa (Panama), Republic Medal (Class III), Military Service Medal (Class I), Order of the Republic (Class I). P.O.B. 7272, Beirut, Lebanon.

Yusuf, Dr. Mohammed; Afghan politician.

Former Minister of Mines and Industries; Prime Minister and Minister of Foreign Affairs March 63-Nov. 65; Amb. to German Fed. Repub., Switzerland, Sweden, Denmark 66-.

Embassy of Afghanistan, 5301 Ückesdorf bei Bonn, Liebfrauenweg 1a, German Federal Republic.

Z

Zabarsky, Abraham; Israeli banker; b. 29 March 1897; ed. Kharkov Univ.

Town Councillor, Tel-Aviv 25-50; Treas. Israeli Defence Forces 47-49, mission to U.S.A. 48-49; Chair. and Man.

Dir. Bank Hapoalim B.M.; Gen. Man. Israel-American Industrial Devt. Bank Ltd.; Chair. Housing Mortgage Bank Ltd.; mem. Advisory Cttee. Bank of Israel; mem. Gen. Council of Histadrut; mem. Editorial Board *Economic Quarterly*; Dir. of several companies and del. to numerous Zionist congresses.

Publs. *Jewish Cooperative Movement in Palestine and Abroad*, *Labour Economy in Israel*, and numerous articles. 11 Keren Kayemeth boulevard, Tel-Aviv, Israel.

Zadok, Chaim; Israeli lawyer and politician; b. 2 Oct. 1913; ed. Ukraine and Warsaw Univ.

Immigrated 35; took up private practice as lawyer 45; Deputy Attorney-Gen. 49-52; Lecturer Tel-Aviv Univ. 53-61; mem. Knesset 59-; mem. Advisory Cttee. Bank of Israel; Chair. Income Tax Reform Cttee.; Israel Del. to Council of Europe 61-65; Minister of Commerce and Industry May 65-67, concurrently Minister of Devt. May 65-66; Mapai.

c/o Ministry of Commerce and Industry, Jerusalem, Israel.

Zahedi, Ardeshir, B.Sc.; Iranian diplomatist; b. 17 Oct. 1928; ed. in Teheran, American Univ. of Beirut and Univ. of Utah (U.S.A.).

Treasurer, Iran-American Comm. 50-52; Civil Adjutant to His Imperial Majesty the Shah of Iran 54-; Iranian Ambassador to U.S.A. 60-62; Ambassador to U.K. 62-67; Minister of Foreign Affairs 67-; Hon. LL.D., Utah State Univ., Chungang Univ., Seoul; numerous decorations. Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Teheran, Iran.

Zahedi, Hassan; Iranian politician; b. 1913; ed. Teheran Univ. and Columbia Univ., U.S.A.

Entered Government Service 36, in Agricultural Bank until 45; in U.S. and posts with UN 45-58; in Ministry of Finance 58-61; Pres. Agricultural Bank, Teheran 61-68; Minister of Agriculture 68-70; Minister of the Interior 70. Ministry of the Interior, Teheran, Iran.

Zaher, Aref, B.A.; Iraqi public servant; b. 1910; ed. American Univ. Beirut.

Entered Foreign Ministry 38; worked in Ministry of Finance 41-42; with Ministry of Educ. 42-48; joined staff of League of Arab States 48, Dir. of Econ. Dept., with rank of Counsellor 56-63, Asst. Sec.-Gen. 63-; Order of Cedar of Lebanon.

League of Arab States, Midan al Tahrir, Cairo; and 2 Sharia Kamel Wacyf, 2 Giza, United Arab Republic.

Zahir, Dr. Abdul; Afghan doctor, diplomatist and politician; b. 1910.

Former Minister of Health, Afghanistan; Amb. to Italy until 71; Prime Minister of Afghanistan June 71-.

Office of the Prime Minister, Kabul Afghanistan.

Zaid bin Sultan Al-Nihyan, H.H. Sheikh; Ruler of Abu Dhabi; b. 1918.

Governor of Eastern Province 46-66; deposed his brother Sheikh Shakhbut and succeeded to Sheikdom 66; Pres. Fed. of Arabian Emirates.

Royal Diwan, Abu Dhabi, Trucial States, Persian Gulf.

Zajaczkowski, Ananiasz, DR. PHIL.; Polish university professor; b. 1903; ed. Cracow Univ.

Asst. Univ. of Warsaw 32, Lecturer in Moslem Philology 33, Extra. Prof. of Turkology 35, Ord. Prof. of Oriental Muslim Philology 46-; mem. Polish Acad. of Sciences, Polish Society of Oriental Studies.

Publs. on ancient Ottoman language, translation of the Koran, Arab Manual, etc.

6 Sewerynow, Warsaw, Poland.

Zaki, Hassan Abbas; United Arab Republic (Egyptian) politician; b. 2 Jan. 1917; ed. primary and secondary schools and Cairo Univ.

Commercial Sec. U.A.R. Embassy, Wash. 52; Govt. Rep. in Stock Exchange Mina El Bassal 55; Dir.-Gen. Exchange

WHO S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Control Dept Ministry of Econs mem Nat Assembly
Minister of the Treasury 58 of Economy and Supply 61
Head of Board of Dirs. Egyptian Org for Insurance 65
Minister of Economy and Foreign Trade 66- Order of
Merit (Fourth Class) and awards from Yugoslavia Greece
Somalia and Romania

Publs Various articles on monetary international trade
and cotton policies

Ministry of Economy and Foreign Trade Lazogly Square
Cairo Home 23 Gabalia Street Zamalek U A R
Telephone 914222 (Office) 816719 (Home)

Zaki Shukri Saleh, Iraqi politician
Minister of Commerce March Aug 63 Ambassador to
United Arab Republic 63 64 Minister of Educ Nov 64 65
mem. U A R Iraq Unified Political Command 64 66
Minister of Finance and Acting Minister of Oil Sept 65
Aug 66 Sec Gen. U A R. Iraq Joint Political Leadership
65-66

c/o Ministry of Finance Baghdad Iraq

Zakiah, Abdul Hassan, PH D Iraqi politician and
diplomatist b 14 Jan 1928 ed. Baghdad and Indiana
Univs.

Director Loans and Investments Dept. Central Bank of
Iraq 57 Foreign Exchange Dept 57 Econ Research
Dept 59-62 Deputy Gov Central Bank of Iraq 62-63
Acting Gov 62-63 Chair of Board of Admin 62 63 Amb
to Iran 63-64 Minister of Industry 64-65 of Planning
64-65 Acting Minister of Finance Aug 65 Amb to
Austria 66 to U A R. (also accred to Somalia) 66-

Publs Economic political literary and poetic works in
Arabic and English in local and fore gn newspapers and
magazines.

Embassy of Iraq 9 Sh. Mohammad Mazhar Zamalek
Cairo United Arab Republic

Zayyat, Mohamed Hassan El, M A PHIL United
Arab Republic (Egyptian) diplomatist b 14 Feb 1915
ed Cairo and Oxford Univs

Lecturer and Asst Prof Alexandria Univ 42 50 Cultural
Attaché Egyptian Embassy Washington D C 50-54
First Sec and Counsellor 54 Counsellor Egyptian
Embassy Teheran 55 57 Minister 57 Del of Egypt on
UN Advisory Council for Somaliland 57-60 Special Envoy
and Ambassador of U A R in Somaliland 60 Head of
Dept. of Arab Affairs and Perm Del of U A R to Arab
League 60-62 Alt Perm Rep of U A R. to UN 62 64
Ambassador to India concurrently accred to Nepal 64 66
Under Sec. of State for Fore gn Affairs 65 67 Deputy
Minister Chair U A R. State Information Services and
Govt Spokesman 67 69 Perm Rep to UN 69-

Permanent Mission of U A R to UN 36 East 67th Street
New York N Y 10021 U S A

Zayyan Dr Youssef, Syrian politician b 1931 ed
Damascus Univ and osteopathy study in the U K.
Minister of Agrarian Reform Nov 63 May 64 Ambassador-
des guate to U K Aug 64 mem. Syrian Presidential
Council 64 mem Nat Revolutionary Council 65 Prime
Minister Sept. 65 Dec 65 March 66-68 Baath Party
c/o The Baath Party Damascus Syrian Arab Republic

Zbliri Col Tahar, Algerian soldier and politician
Chief of Staff A L N 62 68 mem Central Cttee A L N
62-68 arrested Ben Bella June 19th 65 mem Revolu
tionary Council 65-68 in hiding following implication in
an unsuccessful attempt on life of Pres Boumedienne 68
Mitidja District Algeria.

Zeln Youssef El-, Lebanese politician b 1939 hafare
mane ed Collège de la Sagesse Beirut
Deputy 62 Minister of Educ Labour and Social Affairs
67-68 Minister of Agriculture 68
c/o Ministry of Agriculture Beirut Lebanon

Zentari Mrani, Mehdi L en D Moroccan diplomatist
b 6 Sept 1929 ed Coll Moulay Idress de Fez Lycée de
Meknes and Faculté de Dro t Paris
Called to Bar Casablanca 55 Head of Office of Minister
of State in Charge of Moroccan Independence Negotiations
56 Dir African Affairs Ministry of Foreign Affairs 57
Dir of Tourism 58 Consul-Gen Paris 59 Legal Adviser
Ministry of Foreign Affairs Rabat 60 61 Dir of Political
Affairs 61 63 Ambassador to Algeria 63-64 to Yugoslavia
64 67 to U A R May 67 Vice-Pres Moroccan Del to
Constitutional Conf of Org of African Unity (OAU) and
signed Charter for Morocco Commissaire at Conciliation
Comm. of O A U Pres 48th Session of Arab League
67 68 Officer Order of the Throne Morocco Grand
Cordon Order of the Flag Yugoslavia Greek decoration
Ambassade du Maroc to rue Salah Eddine Zamalek
Cairo United Arab Republic

Zerdani, Abdelaziz, Algerian politician
Member of Central Cttee of FLN which drew up the
Alger Charter 56 fmr adviser to Ben Bella fmr Editor
Le Peuple Minister of Labour July 65 March 68 fmr
Chair Econ. Cttee of Nat Assembly
Mitidja District Algeria

Zhiri, Kacem, Moroccan diplomatist b 25 March 1920
ed Inst of H gher Studies Rabat.
Detained for activities in independence movement of
Morocco 36 44 exiled and detained 52 fmr Man daily
newspapers *Al Maghrib* and *Al Alam* Gen Dir Broad
casting Station of Morocco 56-59 Ambassador to Senegal
60-61 to Yugoslavia 62 64 to Algeria 64 65 Dir of
Information Ministry of Foreign Affairs 66 Perm Del
of League of Arab States to UN Geneva 66-68 Minister of
Secondary and Technical Educ 68 69 Amb to Mauritania
70- Founder Free School in Al Jadida Moroccan and
Yugoslav decorations
Publs *Biography of Mohammed V* 56 *The Gold of Sows*
(novel) 55 Political commentaries 56-58 Social and
historical studies
Kilomètre 3 3300 Route des Zaers Rabat Morocco

Zial, Taher, B SC PH D Iraman professor and poli
tician b 1917 ed American Coll of Teheran Technische
Hochschule Berlin and Univ of Vienna
Professor (Geology and Mining) Teheran Univ 46- Dir
Nat Iranian Oil Co 47 Under Sec. Ministry of Nat Econs
55 Ministry of Industry and Mines 56 Minister of Industry
and Mines 60-61 62 63 mem of the Senate 67 Pres Iran
Chamber of Industries and Mines 67 Homayoun Decora
tion of Iran Grand Cross of Merit of Fed German Repub
Technical Faculty University of Teheran Teheran
Iran

Ziaie, Abdul Hakim, PH D Afghan judge b 15 Sept
1915 ed Esteghal High School Kabul Tokyo Univ and
the Sorbonne
Director higher and vocational educ 43 45 Dean Faculty
of Law and Political Science 45 47 Pres Dept for Second
ary educ 47 49 Educational adviser Ministry of Educ/
55 57 Pres of its Planning Board 56-63 Deputy Pres
Kabul Univ 57 58 Dean Faculty of Econs 57 60 Dean
Faculty of Law and Political Science 60-63 Acting Deputy
Minister of Educ 61 Deputy Minister 63 65 Minister of
Planning 65 67 Chief Justice of Afghanistan 67 has
participated in over 25 int confs throughout the world
Kabul Acad Prize for Literature 35 Medal of Educ 58
Medal of Stoor 62

Publs all 17 of which have been published in Afghanistan
France and Japan include *Educational Development in*
Afghanistan 51 *Afghanistan's General Progress* 56 *The*
Rule of Education in securing Human Rights 64
Supreme Court Kabul Afghanistan

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Ziartides, Andreas; Cypriot trade unionist; b. 1919; ed. Pancyprrian Gymnasium, Nicosia. Trade unionist 37-; mem. Pancyprrian Trade Union Cttee. 41, Gen. Sec. 43-47; Gen. Sec. Pancyprrian Fed. of Labour 47-; mem. Central Cttee. Cyprus Working People's Progressive Party (AKEL); mem. House of Reps. Cyprus 60-; mem. Exec. Cttee. World Fed. of Trade Unions (WFTU). Pancyprrian Federation of Labour, 31-35 Archemos Street, Nicosia, Cyprus.

Zinder, Zvi, B.Sc.; Israeli journalist and Government official; b. 26 Aug. 1909; ed. Northwestern Univ. On editorial staff *The Palestine Post* 34-37; Associated Press Correspondent in Middle East 37-40; Foreign and War Correspondent, Time-Life Publications 40-48; Public Relations Adviser to Israeli Govt., Washington and New York 48-54; Dir. Israel Broadcasting Service 54-60; Dir. Israel Central Office of Information, Aug. 60-April 63; Dir. of Admin., Instructional Television Trust 63-65; Deputy Commr.-Gen. Israel Pavilion, Expo 67, Montreal, 65-; Dir. Harry S. Truman Centre for Advancement of Peace, Hebrew Univ.; Man. Dir. Zinkoe Productions Ltd. 71-.

31 Ben Maimon Road, Jerusalem, Israel.

Ziv-Av, Itzhak; Israeli administrative official; b. 4 June 1907; ed. Inst. of Pedagogy, Smolensk. In Palestine 26; Man. Editor *Haboker* 35-48; Dir. Public Relations Div., Ministry of Defence and Gen. H.Q., Israel Defence Forces 48-52; Dir.-Gen. Israel Farmers' Federation 52-; mem. Board of Dirs. Jewish Nat. Fund; mem. Council, State Land Authority. Pubs. *The Unknown Land, I seek my Brethren, The Price of Freedom, Forever Ours, From Frontier to Frontier, A World to Live in, Another World.* Israel Farmers' Federation, P.O. Box 209, Tel-Aviv, Israel.

Zobu, Fazil, M.S.; Turkish business executive; b. 1915; ed. Robert Coll., Istanbul, and Purdue Univ., U.S.A. Manager Turkish State Monopolies Cigarette Factories 43-48; Vice-Pres. (Production), State Monopolies 48-54; Gen. Man. Türkay Endüstri ve Ticaret A.Ş. 54-64. Dir. 64-; Pres. Chamber of Industry of Istanbul 63-; Man. Dir. EVAL A.S. 68-; Dir. Industrial Devt. Bank of Turkey. Çatalkaya Apt. 12, Topağacı-Nişantas, Istanbul, Turkey.

Zohary, Michael; Israeli botanist; b. 9 April 1898; ed. Teachers Seminary, Univ. of Prague. Employed by Hebrew Univ., Jerusalem 25-, Prof. of Botany 52-; mem. Editorial Board *Vegetatio* and *Excerpta botanica*; Israel Prize for biology, and Weizmann Prize for natural sciences. Pubs. *Analytical Key to the Flora of Palestine* (Revised edn.) 65, *Geobotany* 55, *Plant Life in Israel* 63, *Flora Palaestina* 1, 66. Hebrew University, Department of Botany, Jerusalem, Israel.

Zondek, Herman, M.D.; Israeli physician; b. 4 Sept. 1887; ed. Gymnasium, Rogasen, Prussia, and Univs. of Göttingen and Berlin. Lecturer Friedrich Wilhelm Univ., Berlin 18-21; Dir. Municipal Hospital am Urban, Berlin 26; Prof. of Medicine, Berlin Univ. 34; Dir. Medical Div. Bikur Holim Hospital, 34; Visiting Prof. Hebrew Univ. Medical School, Jerusalem 40; Hon. Pres. Scientific Council of Israel Medical Asscn., Israel Soc. of Internal Medicine, Jerusalem Acad. of Medicine; mem. Israel Acad. of Sciences and Humanities; affiliated to Royal Soc. of Medicine, London, World Acad., of Art and Science; Hon. mem. Foreign Endocrine Socs.; Worthy of Jerusalem. Pubs. *Das Hungerödem* (Hunger Oedema) 20, *The Diseases of the Endocrine Glands* (German) 23, later revised and enlarged editions in German, English, French, Polish,

Russian and Italian 26-58; about 250 papers on endocrine physio-pathology. 8 Ben Maimon Avenue, Jerusalem, Israel.

Zuayter, Akram; Jordanian educationist and diplomatist; b. 1909; ed. Al-Najah Coll., Nablus, American Univ. of Beirut, and School of Law, Jerusalem. Teacher, secondary schools, Nablus and Acre 27-30; Chief Ed. *Mira'at-al-Shark* and *Al-Hayat*, Jerusalem 30-31; Prof. of History, Training Coll., Baghdad 34-35; Sec. Palestinian Nat. Cttee. 36; exiled 37-50; Insp. of Education, Iraq 40-41; Pres. Arab Del. to Latin America for Palestine Cause 47-48; Minister of Education, All-Palestine Govt. 49; Counsellor, Syrian Del. to Arab League, mem. Perm. Palestine Cttee. 50; Jordan Del. to UN 61; Gen. Sec. Moslem Confs., Jerusalem 60-62; Ambassador of Jordan to Syria 62-63, to Iran 63-66, also accred. to Afghanistan 64-66; Minister of Foreign Affairs 66; Senator 66; Minister of the Royal Court 67-; mem. Consultative Council 67-; Amb. to Lebanon; Alkawkab Medal and Alistiglal Medal (Jordan), Hon. G.C.M.G., and orders from Iran, Libya, and Repub. of Korea. Pubs. *Our History* 35, *Arabic Readings* 39, *Recent History* 41, *Mission to a Continent* 50, *The Palestine Cause* 54, *An Essay in Federation* 55. Jordan Embassy, Beirut, Lebanon.

Zuberi, Masarrat Husain, M.A.; Pakistani government official; b. 25 June 1911; ed. St. John's Coll., Agra, and St. Catharine's Coll., Cambridge. Indian Civil Service 36-47; in Pakistan served in Civil Aviation, Meteorological Dept., Posts and Telegraphs, Road Transport and Ports 47-51; Joint Sec. Ministry of Commerce 52; Revenue Commr. fmr. North West Frontier Province, also Sec. Council of Admin., W. Pakistan 54; Commr. Peshawar Div. 55-58, Bahawalpur Div. 58-60; Sec. to Govt. of Pakistan, Ministry of Industries 60; Sec. Ministry of Fuel and Power and Natural Resources 61, Sec. Ministry of Communications 62-63; Sec.-Gen. Regional Co-operation for Devt. 68-; Hon. O.B.E.; Sitara-i-Quaid-i-Azam 58; Sitara-i-Pakistan 64. Regional Co-operation for Development, 5 Kh. Vessal Sherazi, North of Boulevard, P.O. Box 3273, Teheran, Iran.

Zurayk, Constantine Kaysar, M.A., Ph.D.; Lebanese educationist; b. 18 April 1909; ed. American Univ. of Beirut, Univ. of Chicago and Princeton Univ. Asst. Prof. of History, American Univ. of Beirut 30-42, Assoc. Prof. 42-45; First Counsellor, Syrian Legation, Washington 45-46; Syrian Minister to U.S.A. 46-47; Vice-Pres. and Prof. of History, American Univ. of Beirut 47-49; Rector, Syrian Univ. Damascus 49-52; Acting Pres. American Univ. of Beirut 54-57; Distinguished Prof. of History, American Univ. of Beirut 56-; mem. Syrian Del. to U.N. Gen. Assembly and Alternate Rep. of Syria on Security Council 46-47; mem. Exec. Board UNESCO 50-54; Pres. Int. Asscn. of Univs. 65-; mem. Int. Comm. for Scientific and Cultural History of Mankind; Corresp. mem. Iraq Acad., Arab Acad., Damascus; Hon. mem. American Historical Asscn.; Chair. Inst. for Palestine Studies 65-; Order of Merit, Distinguished Class, Syria, Educ. Medal, First Class (Lebanon); Commdr. Order of the Cedar (Lebanon). Pubs. *Al-Wa'y al Qawmi* (National Consciousness); *Ma'na al-Nakbah* (The Meaning of the Disaster); *Ayyu Ghadin* (Whither Tomorrow); *Nahnu wa-al-Tarikh* (Facing History); *Hadha al-'Asr al-Mutafajjir* (This Explosive Age); *Fi Ma'rakat al-Hadarah* (In the Battle for Culture); *Ma'na al-Nakbah Mujaddadan* (The Meaning of the Disaster Again), *More than Conquerors*; Editor Isma'il Beg Chol's *Al-Yazidiyyah qadiman wa hadithan* (Yazidis past and present), *Ibn al-Furat's History* Vols. VII-IX (partly with

WHO'S WHO IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA

Najla Izzeddin); Editor and translator Miskawayh's *Tahdhib al-Akhlaq* (The Refinement of Character) American University of Beirut, Beirut, Lebanon.

Zureikat, Abdallah, B A , LL B ; Jordanian diplomatist; b 1912, ed Univ of Damascus
Advocate, then Magistrate, Amman 34-43; entered Diplomatic Service 43-; served Lebanon 48, United Arab

Republic at several Arab League meetings; Ambassador to Iraq 49-57, to German Fed. Republic 57-61, to Lebanon, also accred. to Greece 61-65, to U S S R also accred. to Finland and Czechoslovakia 66-68, to Lebanon also accred. to Greece 68-, Pres Arab League meeting, Cairo 63; many foreign decorations
Publs. articles on politics and psychology.
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IRAN

The Asia Institute: Pahlavi University, Shiraz; Dir. Dr. RICHARD N. FRYE.

British Institute of Persian Studies: 238 ave. Takhte Jamshid, P.O.B. 2617, Teheran; f. 1961; cultural institute, with emphasis on history and archaeology; 318 mems.; Pres. Sir MAX MALLOWAN, C.B.E., D.LIT., Hon. Sec. J. E. F. GUERITZ; Dir. DAVID STRONACH, M.A., F.S.A.; publ. *Iran* (annual).

Regional Cultural Institute: 5 Vessal Shirazi, Teheran; f. 1964; Dir. Dr. SALIM NEYSARI; publ. *Journal* (quarterly).

IRAQ

American School of Oriental Research: Baghdad; f. 1923; undertakes archaeological surveys and excavations; Dir. (vacant); publ. *Bulletin*, quarterlies and monographs.

British School of Archaeology in Iraq (Gertrude Bell Memorial): Karradet Mariam, Baghdad; f. 1932; Pres. Sir JOHN TROUTBECK, G.B.E., K.C.M.G.; Dir. DAVID OATES; publ. *Iraq* (twice annually).

Deutsches Archäologisches Institut: 71B/11 Horriya Square, Karrada, Baghdad.

Instituto Hispano-Arabe de Cultura: Nidal St., opp. Saadun Market, Baghdad.

Iraq Academy: Waziriyah, Baghdad; f. 1947 to maintain the Arabic language, to undertake research into Arabic history and the history of Iraq, and to encourage research in the modern arts and sciences; Pres. ABDUL RAZZAQ MUHIDDIN; Sec. Dr. Y. IZZIDIEN; publ. *Literary Criticism in Iraq*, *Bulletin*.

ISRAEL

Academy of the Hebrew Language: P.O.B. 1033, Jerusalem; f. 1953; study of the Hebrew language and compilation of an historical dictionary; Pres. Prof. N. H. TUR-SINAI; publ. *Zikhronot*, *Leshonenu*, *Lesonenu La'am*, monographs and dictionaries.

American Institute of Holy Land Studies: P.O.B. 1276, Jerusalem; f. 1959; Christian study centre; Pres. Dr. G. DOUGLAS YOUNG.

American School of Oriental Research: Herod's Gate, Jerusalem; f. 1900; research in Semitic languages, literature and history, archaeological research and excavations; Pres. G. ERNEST WRIGHT; Dir. J. H. MARKS; publ. *Bulletin*.

The Ben-Zvi Institute: The Hebrew University, Israel; f. 1948; sponsors research in the history of Jewish communities from the end of the Middle Ages to the present day; Dir. MEIR BENAYAHU.

British School of Archaeology in Jerusalem: P.O.B. 283, Jerusalem; f. 1920; archaeological research and excavation; hostel and library; Chair. Sir R. E. M. WHEELER; Dir. J. B. HENNESSY.

Couvent Saint Etienne des Pères Dominicains, Ecole Biblique et Ecole Archéologique Française: P.O.B. 178, Jerusalem; f. 1890; research, Biblical and Oriental studies, exploration and excavation in Palestine; Dir. R. P. BENOIT; library of 50,000 vols.; publs. *Revue Biblique*, *Etudes Bibliques*.

THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA—(RESEARCH INSTITUTES)

Historical Society of Israel: P O B 1062 Jerusalem, f 1925 to promote the study of Jewish history and general history, 850 mems., Pres Prof B DUKOR, publ *Zion* (quarterly)

Institute of Asian and African Studies: Hebrew University of Jerusalem, Jerusalem, f 1926, studies of medieval and modern languages, culture and history of Middle East, Asia and Africa, Dir Prof GABRIEL BARR, irregular publications

Israel Exploration Society: 3 Shemuel ha Nagid St P O B 7041, Jerusalem, f 1913 excavations and historical research, congresses and lectures 2 500 mems., Chair Prof Y YADIN, Pres Prof B MAZAR Hon Sec J AVTRAM publ *Eretz Yisrael* (Hebrew annual) *Qadmoniot* (Hebrew quarterly), *Israel Exploration Journal* (English quarterly)

Israel Oriental Society: The Hebrew University, Jerusalem, f 1949 lectures and symposia to study all aspects of contemporary Middle Eastern, Asian and African affairs, Pres E. ELAT, publ *Hamivrah Hehadash* (Hebrew quarterly) *Oriental Notes and Studies* (Irregular), *Asian and African Studies* (annual)

Near East School of Archaeology: Jerusalem Dir J P FREE

Orientalisches Institut der Görres-Gesellschaft: Jerusalem, historical and archaeological studies.

Patristic Biblical Institute: King David and Botta Streets, P O B 497, Jerusalem, f 1927, study of Biblical geography and archaeology, student tours excavations, Dir Rev Prof L. SENKOWSKI, s j publ *Biblica*, *Orientalia*, *Verbum Domini*

Wilfred Israel House for Oriental Art and Studies: Kibbutz Hazorea, Post Hazorea, near Haifa, f 1947, culture centre for reading study and exhibitions of art and cultural materials from the ancient and modern Near and Far East Dir Dr URI R. BAER, SHIMON OPPENHEIMER

ITALY

Istituto Italiano per l'Africa: via Ulisse Aldrovandi 16, Rome Govt. Commissary Prof R RUSSO

Istituto Italiano per il Medio ed Estremo Oriente (ISMEO): Palazzo Brancaccio, via Merulana 248, Rome, f 1933 Pres. Prof GIUSEPPE TUCCI, Gen. Sec. Rear Admiral I N R. MARIANO IMPERIALI, Cultural Dir Prof ANTONIO GARGANO, publs *East and West* (quarterly) *Rome Oriental Series*, *Nuovo Ramusio*, *Archaeologica*, *Reports and Memoirs*

Istituto per l'Oriente: via Alberto Caroncini 19 Rome, f 1921 Pres. Prof F GABRIELI, publ *Oriente Moderno* (monthly)

Istituto Universitario Orientale: Piazza San Giovanni Maggiore 30 Naples f 1889, library of 63 646 vols.; Dir Prof A. BONNACCI

Istituto del Vicino Oriente: Università degli Studi Città Universitaria Rome, Dir Prof S MOSCATI

JAPAN

Ja Kaiser Kenkyusho (*Institute of Developing Economies formerly Institute of Asian Economic Affairs*) 42 Ichigaya Hommura-cho Shinjuku ku Tokyo 162 f 1958 260 mems Chair SHENICHI TOBATA Pres TAKEKAZU OGURA, library of 83 000 vols., publs *Asia Review* (Japanese monthly) *The Developing Economies* (English quarterly) *Research Reports Bibliographical Studies* etc

Ajia Seikai Gakkai (*Society for Asian Political and Economic Studies*) Hitotsubashi University, Kunitachi, Tokyo f 1953 353 mems., Pres T ITAGAKI, publ *Asiatic Studies* (quarterly)

Nihon Orient Gakkai (*Japanese Society for Near Eastern Studies*) Tokyo Tenmikyokan, 9 t-chome, Kanda Nishiki-cho Chiyoda ku, Tokyo f 1954, 438 mems., Pres H I H Franco TAKAHITO MIKASA, publs *Oriente* (Japanese quarterly) *Oriente* (European languages annual)

LEBANON

Centre d'Etudes et de Documentation Economiques, Financières et Sociales S A L: B P 6068 Beirut, branch in Damascus Syria

Institut de Géographie du Proche et Moyen Orient: ave de Damas B P 2691, Beirut, f 1946, Dir M LE LANNON

Institut de Recherches d'Economie Appliquée: Faculté de Droit et des Sciences Economiques Université Saint Joseph, B P 293, Beirut, f 1963, economic studies of the Lebanon and other countries of the Middle East, Dir Prof ELIAS GANNAGE

Institut Français d'Archéologie: rue Georges Picot, B P. 1424 Beirut f 1946, library of 21 000 vols., Dir DANIEL SCHLUMBERGER, publ *Syria*, *Revue d'Art et d'Archéologie* (annual) *Bibliothèque Archéologique et Historique*

MOROCCO

Institut des Hautes Etudes Marocaines: Rabat.

THE NETHERLANDS

Afrika Instituut: Prinses Beatrixlaan 7 s Gravenha ge publ *Afrika* (monthly)

Assyriologisch Instituut der Rijksuniversiteit: Rijksuniversiteit te Leiden, Noordersteplein 4A, Leiden Dir F R. KRAUS

Netherlands Institute for the Near and Middle East (*Midden Oosten Instituut*) 7 Prinses Beatrixlaan, P O B 2007, The Hague, f 1949, publ *Bard Hollandia*

NORWAY

Indo-Iransk Institutt: Nils Treschow's Hus Blindern Oslo, f 1920, studies Indian and Iranian languages culture and history, library of 15 000 vols., Pres Prof NILS SIMONSSON

PAKISTAN

Institute of Islamic Culture: Club Rd., Lahore, f 1950, Dir Dr. S M IKRAM, Sec. M ASHRAF DARR, publ *al Maarif* (monthly), and about 120 publications on Islamic subjects in English and Urdu

Institute of Islamic Research: P O B 1035 Islamabad, f 1960 Dir Dr M S H MASUMI

POLAND

Centre for African Studies: University of Warsaw Krakowskie Przedmiescie 26 28, Warsaw, publ *Africana Bulletin*

Polskie Towarzystwo Orientalistyczne (*Polish Oriental Society*) Preta 16, Warsaw, f 1922, Pres TADEUSZ LEWICKI EDWARD SZYMANSKI TADEUSZ POBOŻNY, Sec. LESZEK CYRZEK, publ *Przegląd Orientalistyczny* (quarterly)

Research Centre for Mediterranean Archaeology: Palac Kultury i Nauki, Room 1909, Warsaw; f. 1956; documentation and publication of Polish excavations in the Middle East; Dir. Prof. Dr. KAZIMIERZ MICHALOWSKI; publs. *Travaux du Centre d'Archéologie Méditerranéenne*, *Palmyre-Fouilles Polonaises* 1959-, *Faras-Fouilles Polonaises* 1961-.

Zaklad Orientalistyki P.A.N. (Research Centre for Oriental Studies): Freta 16, Warsaw; f. 1953; Dir. Prof. Dr. ANANIASZ ZAJACZKOWSKI.

PORTUGAL

Instituto de Linguas Africanas e Orientais: Rua da Junqueira 86, Lisbon 3; library; 10 teachers; specializes in African and Oriental studies.

SENEGAL

Centre de Recherche, d'Etudes et de Documentation sur les Institutions et la Législation Africaines: Université de Dakar, Fann Parc, Dakar.

Institut d'Etudes Administratives Africaines: Faculté de Droit et des Sciences économiques, Université de Dakar, Fann Parc, Dakar; Dir. Prof. JEAN-PIERRE QUENEUDEC.

Institut d'Etudes Islamiques: Université de Dakar, Fann Parc, Dakar; Dir. Prof. V. MONTEIL.

SOUTH AFRICA

Africa Institute, The: Cnr. van der Walt and Skinner Streets, P.O.B. 630, Pretoria; f. 1960; collects and publishes information on all matters concerning the African continent; Dir. Prof. J. H. MOOLMAN; Head of Research and Information Dr. P. SMIT; Sec. Man. P. W. ESTERHUYSEN; publs. *Bulletin* (ten a year), *Maps and Statistics*, *Communications* (irregular), *Southern Africa Data*, *Africa at a Glance*, *Occasional Papers*, *South African Journal of African Studies* (annual).

Institute for the Study of Man in Africa: Johannesburg; f. 1960; anthropological and medical study of man in Africa; Pres. Prof. I. D. MACCRONE; Medical School, Hospital Street, Johannesburg.

SPAIN

Asociacion Española de Orientalistas: Límite 5, Madrid 3; publ. *Boletín* (annual).

Centro de Estudios Bíblicos y Orientales: Universidad Pontificia de Salamanca, Calle Campana 1, Salamanca; Dir. LORENZO TURRADO.

Instituto "Benito Arias Montano" de Estudios Hebraicos y Oriente Próximo (*Institute of Hebrew and Near East Studies*): Duque de Medinaceli 4, Madrid 14; f. 1940; branch in Barcelona; 12 mems.; Dir. FREDERICO PEREZ CASTRO; Sec. JOSÉ LUIS LACAVE RIAÑO; publ. *Sefarad* (quarterly).

Instituto de Estudios Africanos: Castellana 5, Madrid; f. 1945; 20 mems.; Dir. JOSÉ DIAZ DE VILLEGAS Y BUSTAMANTE; Secs. JOAQUIN VENTURA BAÑARES, LUIS SAEZ DE GOVANTES; publ. *Africa* (monthly), *Archivos*.

Instituto de Estudios Islamicos: Francisco de Asis Mendez Casariego 10, Madrid 2.

SWEDEN

Scandinavian Institute of African Studies: P.O.B. 345, S-751 06, Uppsala; organizes seminars and publishes wide range of books and pamphlets, also newsletters in Swedish, English and French.

Swedish Oriental Society: Stockholm; publ. *Acta Orientalia* (semi-annual).

SWITZERLAND

Centre d'Etudes Orientales: Université de Genève, rue de Candolle 3, Geneva; Dir. Prof. C. MAYSTRE.

Institut Africain de Genève: 2-4 route de Drize, Carouge-Geneva; f. 1960; lectures on African geography, culture, economic and social problems; seminars, research, training programmes and social activities; Dir. PIERRE BUNGNER; Dir. of Studies RENÉ WADLOW; publ. *Geneva-Africa* (semi-annual).

Schweizerischen Gesellschaft für Asienkunde: Berne; publ. *Asiatische Studien* (semi-annual).

SYRIA

Institut Français d'Etudes Arabes: B.P. 344, Damascus, f. 1928; library of 30,000 vols.; Dir. ANDRÉ RAYMOND; publ. *Bulletin d'Etudes Orientales* (annual), monographs; translations and Arabic texts.

Near East Foundation: B.P. 427, Damascus.

TUNISIA

Institut des Belles Lettres Arabes: 12 rue Djemaa el Haoua, Tunis; f. 1930; cultural centre; Dir. A. DEMEERSEMAN; publ. *IBLA* (twice yearly) and special studies.

Mission Archéologique Française en Tunisie: 8 rue M'hamed Ali, Tunis; Dir. PIERRE CINTAS; Publications Dir. CL. POINSSOT; publ. *Karthago* (quarterly).

TURKEY

British Institute of Archaeology at Ankara: Tahran Caddesi 21, Kavaklıdere, Ankara; f. 1948; archaeological research and excavation; Pres. Sir STEVEN RUNCIMAN; Dir. D. H. FRENCH; publs. *Anatolian Studies* (annual), *Occasional Publications*.

Centri di Studi Italiani in Turchia: Menekse Sokak 8, Yenisehir, Ankara; Dir. Prof. GIUSEPPE GARINO; Mesrutiyet Caddesi 161, Istanbul; Dir. Prof. LUCIANO PERSELLI.

Deutsches Archäologisches Institut: Siraselvi 123, Taksim, Istanbul; Dir. Prof. Dr.-Ing. R. NAUMANN; publ. *Istanbul Mitteilungen der D.A.I.* (annual).

Institut Français d'Archéologie: Istanbul; f. 1930; Dir. EMMANUEL LAROCHE.

Netherlands Historical and Archaeological Institute: Istiklâl Caddesi 393, Beyoğlu, Istanbul; f. 1958; library of 12,000 vols.; Dir. Prof. Dr. A. A. KAMPMAN; publs. *Publications de l'Institut Historique et Archeologique Néerlandais de Stamboul*, *Revue Anatolica*.

Österreichisches Kulturreferat für die Türkei: Belvedere Apt. 101/2, Tesvikiye, Istanbul; Dir. Prof. Dr. J. E. KASPER.

Türk Dil Kurumu (*Turkish Linguistic Society*): Ankara; f. 1932; 550 mems.; library of 14,500 vols.; Pres. Prof. MACIT GÖKBERK; Sec.-Gen. OMER ASIM AKSOY; publs. *Türk Dili* (monthly), *Türk Dili Araştırmaları-Belleten* (annual).

THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA—(RESEARCH INSTITUTES)

Türk Kültürünü Araştırma Enstitüsü (*Institute for the Study of Turkish Culture*) P.K. 14 Çankaya Ankara f 1961 scholarly research into all aspects of Turkish culture Dir Prof Dr AHMET TEMİR publs *Türk Kültürü* (monthly) *Cultura Turcica* (semi annual) *Türk Kültürü Araştırmaları* (semi annual)

Türk Tarih Kurumu (*Turkish Historical Society*) Ankara f 1931 41 mems library of 90 000 vols Pres Ord Prof Dr ŞEVKET AZİZ KANSU Gen Dir ULUĞ İZDEMİR publs *T T K Belleten* (quarterly) *Delgeler* (twice a year)

Türkiyat Enstitüsü (*Institute of Turcology*) University of Istanbul Bayezit Istanbul f 1924 research into Turkish language literature history and culture library of 20 000 vols Dir Dr M CAVID BAYSUN

U.S.S.R.

Africa Institute of the Department of History, U.S.S.R Academy of Sciences Starokonyushenny per 16 Moscow f 1959 studies the peoples and history of Africa and contemporary economic and political problems Dir V G SOLODOVNIKOV

Commission on Oriental Literature of the Department of Literature and Language, U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences Volkhonka 18/2 Moscow Chair Acad N I KONRAD
Institute of Asian Peoples of the Department of History, U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences Armyansky per 2 Moscow Dir Acad B GAFUROV

Institute of Oriental Studies of the Academy of Sciences of the Georgian S.S.R. Tbilisi Georgian S.S.R

Institute of Oriental Studies, U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences Armyansky per 2 Moscow Chair B G GAFUROV

Research Institute of Oriental Studies of the Academy of Sciences of the Azerbaijanian S.S.R. Baku Azer baijanian S.S.R

Section of Oriental Studies of the Academy of Sciences of the Armenian S.S.R. Yerevan Armenian S.S.R

Section of Oriental Studies and Calligraphy of the Academy of Sciences of the Tajik S.S.R. Dushanbe Tajik S.S.R

UNITED ARAB REPUBLIC

Academy of the Arabic Language 26 Sharna Mourad Giza Cairo f 1932 Pres Dr AHMED LOUFI EL SAYED Sec-Gen. Dr IBRAHIM MAKDOUR publ Review collections of scientific and Koranic terms

American Research Center in Egypt Inc. 2 Midan Kasr el Doubara Cairo U.A.R. and 20 Nassau St Princeton, N.J. 08540 f 1948 by American universities to promote research by U.S. scholars in all phases of Egyptian civilization including archaeology 19 institutional mems and 235 individual mems Pres Prof G F VON GRUNEBaum Vice Pres Prof G R HUGHES American Dir L B POULLADA Cairo Dir JOHN DORMAN

Deutsches Archäologisches Institut (*German Archaeological Institute*) 22 Sharna Gezira al Wusta Zamalek Cairo Dir Prof Dr WERNER KAISER

Institut Dominicaín d'Etudes Orientales Priory of the Dominican Fathers 1 Sharna Masma al Tarabish Abbasiyah Cairo f 1952 Dir Père G C ANAWATI publ *Mélanges* (yearly)

Institut d'Égypte 13 Sharna Sheikh Rihane Ca ro f 1859 studies literary artistic and scientific questions relating to Egypt and neighbouring countries Pres KAMEL HUSSEIN Sec-Gen P GHALIONGUI publs *Bulletin* (annual) *Mémoires* (irregular)

Institut Français d'Archéologie Orientale 37 Sharna Sheikh Ali Youssef Cairo f 1898 Dir S SAUNERON

Société Archéologique d'Alexandrie 6 Sharna Mahmoud Moustakhar Alexandria f 1893 100 mems Pres MONTE EL DIN EL SHAZLI Sec Gen D A DAUD Treas A SADEK Editor MAX DEBBANE publs *Bulletins Mémoires Monuments de l'Égypte Gréco Romaine Cahiers Publications Spéciales*

Société Égyptienne d'Économie Politique, de Statistique et de Législation BP 732 Cairo f 1909 900 mems Pres Dr ABDEL HAKIM RIFAÏ Sec Gen Dr GAMAL EL OTTIFI publ *Revue* (quarterly in Arabic French and English)

Society for Coptic Archaeology 22 Avenue Ramses Cairo f 1934 300 mems library of 7 500 vols Pres MIRRIAT BOUTROS GHALI Sec Dr ANTOINE KILATER Treas Dr BOUTROS BOUTROS GHALI Librarian Dr O H E KHS BURKEMSTER publs *Bulletin* (annual) *Fouilles Bibliothèque d'Art et d'Archéologie Textes et Documents et Divers*

UNITED KINGDOM

The Africa Bureau 2 Arundel St London WC2 f 1952 Aims to improve understanding in Britain about current African events and problems to promote British policies that will assist social and economic development in Africa to oppose racial tyrannies in Africa to promote the achievement of non discrimination majority rule in Africa Chair PETER CALVO CORESSI Dir GUY ARNOLD Sec CHRISTINE TROUGH TON publ *Africa Digest* (every two months)

African Studies Association of the United Kingdom c/o Centre of West African Studies Univ of Birmingham P.O.B. 363 Birmingham 15 publ *Bulletin* (thrice yearly)

Anglo Arab Association, The 27 Laton Place London SW 1

Council for the Advancement of Arab British Understanding (CAABU) Room 106 Grand Buildings Trafalgar Square London WC2N 5LP f 1967 911 mems

Egypt Exploration Society 2/3 Doughty Mews London WC1 f 1882 library of 4 000 vols Sec MARY D ST B CRAWFORD publs *Excavation Memoirs Archaeological Survey Graeco-Roman Memoirs Journal of Egyptian Archaeology* etc

International African Institute St Dunstan's Chambers 10-11 Fetter Lane Fleet St London EC4 f 1926 to promote the study of African peoples their languages cultures and social life in their traditional and modern settings through publication the sponsoring of research and provision of a documentation and information service 2 350 mems Chair Sir ARTHUR SMITH Admin Dir Prof DARYLL FORDE publs *Africa Africa Abstracts* (quarterly)

Islamic Cultural Centre (and London Central Mosque) Regents Lodge 146 Park Rd London NW8 f 1944 to spread Islamic culture in Great Britain library of 3 000 vols mostly Arabic Dir RAJA OF MAHMUDABAD publ *Islamic Quarterly*

Middle East Association Bury House 33 Bury St London SW 1 Dir Gen Sir CHARLES DUKE K.C.M.G. C.I.E. O.B.E.

Palestine Exploration Fund 2 Hinde Mews London W 1 f 1865 750 subscribers Pres The Archbishop of Canterbury Hon Sec Prof P R ACAROVYD publ *Palestine Exploration Quarterly*

Royal African Society: 18 Northumberland Ave., London, W.C.2; f. 1901; 920 mems. and 1,227 subscribers; Pres. Sir CHARLES PONSONBY; Sec. Miss H. HEATHER; publ. *African Affairs* (quarterly).

Royal Asiatic Society of Great Britain and Northern Ireland: 56 Queen Anne St., London, W.1; f. 1823 for the study of the history, sociology, institutions, customs, languages and art of Asia; approx. 800 mems.; library of 78,000 vols. and 1,500 MSS.; branches in various Asian cities; Pres. Prof. C. F. BECKINGHAM, M.A.; Sec. Miss D. CRAWFORD; publs. *Journal* and monographs.

Royal Central Asian Society: 42 Devonshire St., London, W.1; f. 1901; 2,000 mems. with past or present knowledge of the Middle East, Central Asia or the Far East; library of about 5,000 vols.; Pres. Lord SELKIRK; Chair. Sir ESLE DENEING; Sec. Miss M. FITZSIMONS; publ. *Journal* (three times a year).

School of African and Asian Studies: University of Sussex, Brighton, Sussex; Dean DAVID F. POCKOCK, M.A., B.LITT., D.PHIL.

School of Oriental and African Studies, University of London: Malet St., London, W.C.1; f. 1916; library of over 320,000 vols. and 2,000 MSS.; Dir. Prof. C. H. PHILIPS.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Academy of Asian Studies: 431 Duboce Ave., San Francisco, Calif., 94117; Pres. Dr. EDSZEN N. LANDRUM.

African American Institute: 345 E. 46th St., Room 815, New York, N.Y. 10017; publ. *Africa Report* (monthly).

African Studies Center: Boston University, 10 Lenox St., Brookline, Mass. 02146; f. 1953; research on anthropology, economics, sociology, history and political science of Africa; library of 35,000 vols.; Dir. Dr. A. A. CASTAGNO; publs. *African Studies Research Series* (irregular), *African Historical Studies* (bi-annual), *Boston University Papers on Africa* (irregular).

African Studies Center: University of California, Los Angeles, Calif.; f. 1959; centre for co-ordination of scholarship on Africa in the social sciences and humanities, and for graduate training on Africa; Dir. LEO KUPER; publ. *African Arts/Arts d'Afrique* (quarterly).

African Studies Committee: Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, Ill. 62901; f. 1961; Chair. Dr. J. E. REDDEN.

American Friends of the Middle East, Inc.: Middle East House, 1717 Massachusetts Ave., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036; f. 1951; a private, non-profit organization for furthering communication and understanding between the peoples of the Middle East and N. Africa and the people of the U.S.A. through educational and international programmes.

American Oriental Society: 329 Sterling Memorial Library, Yale Station, New Haven, Conn.; f. 1843; 1,700 mems.; Sec. FERRIS J. STEPHENS; publ. *Journal*.

American Schools of Oriental Research: 126 Inman Street, Cambridge, Mass. 02139; f. 1900; approx. 1,200 mems.; Pres. G. ERNEST WRIGHT; Sec. JAMES B. PRITCHARD, Univ. of Pennsylvania; Schools in Jerusalem and Baghdad; publs. *Biblical Archaeologist* (quarterly), *Bulletin* (quarterly), *Journal of Cuneiform Studies* (quarterly), *Annual*.

American Society of African Culture: 101 Park Ave., New York, N.Y. 10017; f. 1957; 300 mems.; affiliated with the Société Africaine de Culture, Paris; exists to establish channels of communication for the recognition and development of African culture; Pres. SAUNDERS REDDING; Exec. Dir. JOHN A. DAVIS; publ. *African Forum* (quarterly).

Asian Studies Program: Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind. 47401; research into social sciences of Near and Far East, South and Southeast Asia; Dir. WALTER J. MESERVE.

Center for Middle Eastern Studies: University of Chicago, 1130 E. 59th St., Chicago, Ill. 60637; f. 1966; research into medieval and modern cultures of the Middle East from Morocco to Pakistan; Dir. NUR YALMAN.

Center for Middle Eastern Studies: Harvard University, 1737 Cambridge St., Cambridge, Mass. 02138; research in social sciences and humanities.

Center for Middle Eastern Studies: University of Texas at Austin, Benedict Hall, Tex. 78712; f. 1960; linguistic and social studies of Middle East languages and cultures; Dir. Dr. R. A. FERNEA.

Center for Near East and North African Studies: University of Michigan, 144 Lane Hall, Ann Arbor, Mich. 48104; f. 1961; research into the ancient, medieval and modern cultures of the Near East and North Africa, Near Eastern languages and literature; Dir. Dr. WILLIAM D. SCHORGER.

The Dropsie University: Broad and York Streets, Philadelphia, Pa. 19132; f. 1907; Pres. I. KATSH.

Hairenik Association, Inc.: 212 Stuart St., Boston, Mass. 02216; publ. *Armenian Review*.

Hoover Institution on War, Revolution and Peace: Stanford University, Stanford, Calif. 94305; contains important Middle Eastern and North African collections; Dir. W. G. CAMPBELL.

The Iran Foundation, Inc.: Empire State Bldg., New York, N.Y. 10001; intermediary for U.S. welfare assistance to Iran.

Institute for Mediterranean Affairs: 1078 Madison Ave., New York, N.Y. 10018; established under charter of the University of the State of New York to evolve a better understanding of the historical background and contemporary political and socio-economic problems of the nations and regions that border on the Mediterranean Sea, with special reference to Palestine; 350 mems.; Hon. Pres. Dr. W. F. ALBRIGHT; Chair. Prof. N. S. FATEMI; Vice-Chair. Prof. A. P. LERNER; Dir. SAMUEL MERLIN.

Israel Institute: Yeshiva University, Amsterdam Ave. and 185th St., New York, N.Y. 10033; f. 1954; research into modern Israel and her cultural and political problems, Jewish history and culture; Dir. Dr. SAMUEL K. MIRSKY; publ. *Sura, Talpioth*.

Joint Committee on the Near and Middle East: c/o Social Science Research Council, 230 Park Ave., New York, N.Y. 10017; the Committee is co-sponsored by the American Council of Learned Societies and administers a programme of grants for research by individual scholars in the social sciences and humanities.

Middle East Center: University of Utah, Salt Lake City, Utah 84112; f. 1960; research in Middle Eastern languages, medieval history, United States' policy towards the Middle East; library of over 60,000 vols.; Dir. Dr. KHOSROW MOSTOFI.

Middle East Institute: 1761 N. St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036; f. 1946; exists to develop and maintain facilities for research, publication and dissemination of information, with a view to developing in the United States a more thorough understanding of the countries of the Middle East; the Institute holds an annual conference on Middle East affairs; 1,200 mems.; National Chair. Hon. RAYMOND A. HARE; Pres. Hon. PARKER T. HART; Sec. RODERIC DAVISON; Dir. of Pubs. and Exec. Dir. WILLIAM SANDS; publ. *Middle East Journal* (quarterly), and occasional books.

THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA—(RESEARCH INSTITUTES)

Middle East Institute • Columbia University 602 Kent Hall New York N.Y. 10027 f 1954 research into current problems of economics government and international relations of the Middle East countries and their languages and history library of 60 000 vols Dir Prof JOHN S. BADEAU publ *Publications in Near and Middle East Studies* (irregular)

Middle East Studies Association New York University Washington Square New York N.Y. 10003 f 1967 to promote high standards of scholarship and instruction and to facilitate communication on the area membership open to all persons of scholarly attainment in the field of Middle Eastern studies 1 000 mems Pres (1969-70) Prof WILLIAM M. BRUNNER Vice Pres Prof DAN K. WART A. RUSTOW Sec Prof I. W. ZARTMAN publs *Bulletin* (3 times a year) *International Journal of Middle East Studies* (quarterly)

Middle East Studies Centre Portland State Univ Portland Ore 97207 language studies Dir Prof FREDERICK J. COX

Near East College Association, Inc. • 40 Worth St. New York N.Y. 10013 and 548 Fifth Ave. New York N.Y. 10036

Near East Foundation 54 East 64th St. New York N.Y. 10021 U.S.A. f 1930 Aims to conduct educational programmes and agricultural projects in order to improve standards of living in underdeveloped areas of the world primarily the Near East Chair JOHN S. BADEAU Vice Chair HALSEY B. KNAPP Pres E. DEALTON PARTRIDGE Exec Dir Dr DELMER J. DOOLEY

Near Eastern Center University of California Los Angeles 405 Hilgard Ave. Los Angeles Calif 90024 f 1957 social sciences and language studies of the Near East

since the rise of Islam library of over 100 000 vols and outstanding MSS collection in Arabic Armenian Persian and Turkish Dir G. E. VON GRUNEBaum

Oriental Institute 1155 E. 58th St. Chicago Ill. 60637 f 1919 principally concerned with cultures and languages of the ancient Near East extensive museum affiliated to the University of Chicago Dir GEORGE R. HUGHES

Program in Near Eastern Studies Princeton University Jones Hall Princeton N.J. 08540 f 1947 research in all aspects of the modern Near East library of 100 000 vols Dir L. CARL BROWN publs *Proceedings of Annual Near East Conference* (annual) *Princeton Studies in the Modern Near East* (irregular) *Princeton Near East Papers* (irregular)

Semitic Museum Harvard University 6 Divinity Ave. Cambridge Mass. 02138 f 1889 sponsors exploration and research in Western Asia contains collection of exhibits from ancient Near East Curator Dr G. ERNEST WRIGHT

Society of Oriental Studies Claremont University College Harper Hall Claremont Calif f 1936 literary social and economic studies in Asian areas library of 50 000 vols Head Dr MERRILL R. GOODALL publ *Claremont Asian Studies*

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Pontificium Institutum Orientalium Studiorum (*Pontifical Institute of Oriental Studies*) 7 Piazza Santa Maria Maggiore I-00185 Rome f 1917 library of 100 000 vols Rector Rev IVAN ŽUŽEK SJ Sec Rev J. REZÁČ SJ publs *Orientalia Christiana Periodica* *Orientalia Christiana Analecta* *Concilium Florentinum* (*Documenta et Scriptores*) *Anaphorae Syriacae*